Co-design and co-delivery programme approaches: National and international knowledge and insights

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Introduction

The Tamaki Transformation Programme (TTP) has the task to develop innovative approaches to inter-agency collaboration and community participation. This paper is a review of selected literature on community participation as it applies both to co-design/co-delivery of the TTP and to programme evaluation. As much more literature exists than can be compressed into the space and time allotted for this analysis, discussion is necessarily summary. Eight principles of community engagement are presented and discussed: participation, working together, influence and power sharing, treaty-based principles, principles for working with Pacific Peoples, capacity building, clarity of purpose, and innovation and learning together.

The research questions that guided this literature review and development of the co-design/co-delivery framework were:
- What theoretical frameworks inform a co-design/co-delivery programme and evaluation approach?
- In what ways do Tamaki residents seek to be involved in the TTP evaluation?
- In what ways do Tamaki residents seek to be informed and kept up to date about the TTP evaluation?
- What processes and practices are needed to build the evaluation capacity and experience of people in Tamaki? How are these implemented?
- To what extent has evaluation capacity and experience been built in the Tamaki community?

This paper begins by setting out the background to TTP. Next it reviews selected literature for developing a co-design/co delivery approach relevant to TTP and the evaluation. The implications for the co-design and co-delivery of TTP follow. The discussion then turns to evaluation approaches consistent with co-design and co-delivery, and their implications.

Background to the programme

In June 2007, Cabinet agreed a multi-agency TTP be developed to address social issues and take advantage of opportunities in Tamaki. Central and local government operating expenditure in Tamaki is significant, linked to the level of deprivation in Tamaki. The TTP aims to adopt a systems approach whereby agencies and communities work together to achieve outcomes across housing, education, employment, health, environment, crime and safety. Figure 1 shows the nine high-level outcome areas that contribute to the Programme's vision which is to develop an environment where people thrive and prosper for generations, in a place with a strong and vibrant community spirit that is valued for its natural beauty and history.
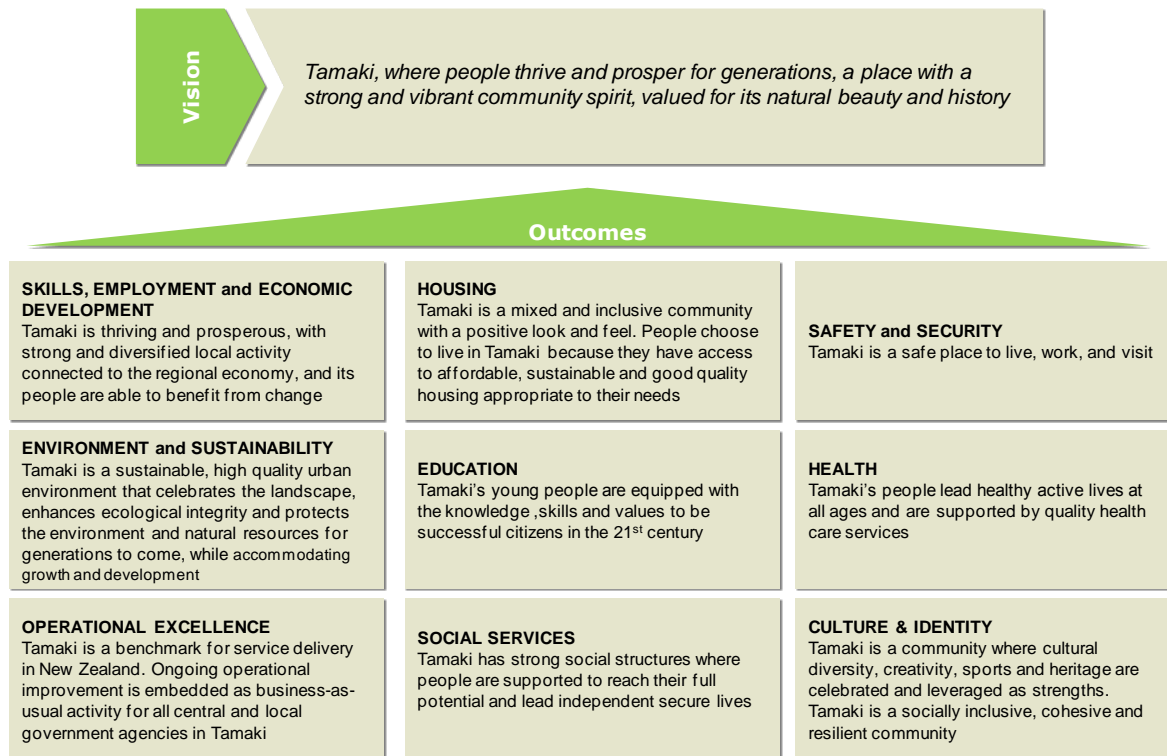
Vision

Tamaki, where people thrive and prosper for generations, a place with a strong and vibrant community spirit, valued for its natural beauty and history

Outcomes

SKILLS, EMPLOYMENT and ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT Tamaki is thriving and prosperous, with strong and diversified local activity connected to the regional economy, and its people are able to benefit from change	**HOUSING** Tamaki is a mixed and inclusive community with a positive look and feel. People choose to live in Tamaki because they have access to affordable, sustainable and good quality housing appropriate to their needs	**SAFETY and SECURITY** Tamaki is a safe place to live, work, and visit
ENVIRONMENT and SUSTAINABILITY Tamaki is a sustainable, high quality urban environment that celebrates the landscape, enhances ecological integrity and protects the environment and natural resources for generations to come, while accommodating growth and development	**EDUCATION** Tamaki's young people are equipped with the knowledge ,skills and values to be successful citizens in the 21st century	**HEALTH** Tamaki's people lead healthy active lives at all ages and are supported by quality health care services
OPERATIONAL EXCELLENCE Tamaki is a benchmark for service delivery in New Zealand. Ongoing operational improvement is embedded as business-as-usual activity for all central and local government agencies in Tamaki	**SOCIAL SERVICES** Tamaki has strong social structures where people are supported to reach their full potential and lead independent secure lives	**CULTURE & IDENTITY** Tamaki is a community where cultural diversity, creativity, sports and heritage are celebrated and leveraged as strengths. Tamaki is a socially inclusive, cohesive and resilient community

Figure 1: The nine high-level outcome areas that contribute to the Programme's vision

Innovative processes of multi-agency partnership and community engagement are sought by the TTP. These are set out as guiding principles in the TTP Values Proposition (2009:21):

- Adopting a joined-up approach across agencies and the community
- Building on what has gone before to foster the 'heart' of the community
- Supporting neighbourhood and broader community identities
- Connecting across boundaries
- Building for generations
- Achieving a mixed and cohesive community at the street level.

The TTP Community Engagement team is responsible for developing a strategy for community engagement in the programme. Community engagement has been defined by the programme as 'about involving communities early in processes so they influence, shape, co-design and have a sense of ownership of the Programme, because it addresses their priorities and needs' (Tamaki Transformation Programme 2009: 5). Since the introduction of the terms co-design and co-delivery in mid 2008 (Minutes of the TTP Board 28 June 2008 refer), the concept of a co-design/co-delivery approach has attracted considerable support from the TTP Board. This literature review is intended to inform the development of the co-design/co-delivery framework for both the programme and the evaluation.

Literature review on co-design and co-deliver approaches

This review draws on literature on community participation, sustainable development, community development and natural resource management[1] to identify principles and practices of co-design/co-delivery that work. The review is targeted at place-based or 'local' participation in urban development processes.

The review is small scale and focused. It explores key issues on community participation in 'local' programmes that seek multiple outcomes (social, cultural, economic, environmental), and participatory evaluation.

Participation

Participation is a social action, enacted within a specific space and time (Batten 2008). To 'participate' simply means to share or take part; the term 'participatory' is loaded with social, ideological, political and methodological meaning (Lawrence 2006). Some definitions of participation identify the social action as decision-making, for example, a process where individuals, groups and organisations take an active role in making decisions that affect them (Wandersman 1981). Community participation can also relate to collaborative action that follows decision-making; for example, Midgley (1986: 23, in Batten 2008) stated that community participation involves 'direct involvement of ordinary people in local affairs'. This definition is more in keeping with a co-design/co-delivery approach as it implies that community members and community organisations contribute not just to the design phase but also to some aspects of the delivery of the programme.

Participation has been a key concept in community development for many years. Participation is aimed at fostering relationships built on mutual understanding, trust and respect, building knowledge, and community and individual capacity to respond to change and to address structural inequality through active citizenship (Munford & Walsh-Tapiata 2006; Kretman & McKnight 1993; HNZC 2009). More recently, participation has been related to rights of citizenship and to democratic governance aims of improving communication and negotiation between state and citizens (Cornwall & Coelho 2007; Gaventa 2001).

Communities are understood to benefit from active citizenship (Cuthill 2003). Batten's (2008) review of the literature identified the following benefits claimed to result from active citizenship: development of a sense of community and individual and collective responsibility, social development and increased social integration (Midgley 1986); social inclusion (Harrison 2002; Jones, 2003); community empowerment (Chambers 1995; Paul 1987); political, social and cultural transformation (Mayo & Craig 1995); and conscientization (White 1982).

Community participation in urban renewal processes can be described as pragmatic and normative (Reed 2008):
- Pragmatic: a means to an end in the sense that community participation provides opportunities for citizens to contribute to programme planning so that plans more closely reflect local conditions and build community 'buy-in' to the programme.

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[1] Natural resource management has a history of active community engagement in the design and delivery of programmes, monitoring and evaluation, e.g., Integrated Catchment Management (Bowden 1999).

- Normative: focus on process, suggesting that people have a democratic right to participate in decisions that affect them.

The international literature suggests that there is a gap between principles and practices of participation (Harrison 2002). Participation is understood in a range of ways, with implications for practice and practical outcomes. Different styles of participation are suited to different contexts, and clarity is therefore needed about communities' ability to influence decision-making and be involved in programme delivery (Reed 2008). In an effort to inform decisions about the level of public involvement required, the OECD developed a guideline (see table 1).

Table 1: Guidance on choosing different levels of public involvement

Inform when	Factual information is needed but the decision is effectively made
Consult when	The purpose is to listen and get information (when decisions are being shaped and information could improve them)
Co-decide when	Two-way information is needed because individuals and groups have an interest in and/or are affected by outcomes and there is still an opportunity to influence the final outcome
Delegate when	Stakeholders have capacity, opportunity, and influence to shape policy that affects them
Support when	Institutions want to enable and have agreement to implement solutions by stakeholders, stakeholders have capacity and have agreed to take up the challenge to developing solutions

(Source: OECD, 2004: 11, in Blackstock et al. 2007)

Numerous typologies of participation have been developed to inform analysis and identification of best practice community participation. These typologies include continuums of participation, spectrums of how participants are viewed, the nature of participation, and underpinning assumptions and objectives of participation (Reed 2008).

The most commonly cited continuum is Arnstein's (1969) 'ladder of participation', which ranges from passive recipients of information to active engagement. As with most continuums of participation, the hierarchical nature of the ladder implies the higher rungs of the ladder (active engagement) are superior to lower rungs (passive recipients) (Reed 2008). Other continuums describe the nature of the relationship that can be 'contractual', 'consultative', 'collaborative' and 'collegiate' (Bigg 1989); 'consultative', 'functional' or 'empowering' (Farrington 1998). Lawrence (2006) proposed a further category – 'transformative' participation, 'where participants control the process' (2006: 6) – targeted at transformation of the communities involved. Lawrence posits that both instrumental and transformative participation occurs at the same time, and that both can occur in a top–down process.

The characteristics of these categories of participation were used to develop a typology of how participants are viewed by those leading a programme or in policy development (see table 2). For example, Batten (2008) draws on Cornwall's (2003) typology to describe the positioning of community members.

Table 2: Categories of participation and participants

Mode of participation	Associated with…	Participants viewed as…
Functional	Beneficiary participation	Objects
Instrumental	Community participation	Instruments
Consultative	Stakeholder participation	Actors
Transformative	Citizen participation	Agents

(Source: Batten 2008: 44, adapted from Cornwall 2003).

In this typology, 'community participation' is more concerned with pragmatism than with rights. 'Consultative participation' is viewed as one step up because it involves stakeholders as 'local', and non-government, and representative of something else (e.g., users *of* specific services, beneficiaries *of* projects) (Batten 2008).

Working together

The Parliamentary Commissioner for the Environment identifies the following principles for a participatory process (PCE 2005, in Henley 2006):

- All interests are represented and acknowledged – the process is inclusive
- All forms of knowledge are important – cultural, local, scientific, etc.
- Consensus decision-making is the preferred approach
- All participants strive for active listening and constructive participation.

Some authors argue that participatory processes are fundamental to sustainable development. The Bellagio principles, developed in 1996 in Bellagio, Italy, to inform evaluation of sustainable development (Devuyst 2000), were the basis on which Rachel Trotman developed 10 key principles for evaluating the Auckland Sustainable Communities Programme (Trotman 2005). One of these principles, 'be participatory',[2] clearly underpins the co-design/co-delivery model being advocated in the TTP Values Proposition and Community Engagement Strategy.

Influence and power sharing

The use of community as a category of actor is problematic. Despite detailed analysis and insights from the social science literature on the concept, participatory processes often rely on overly generic notions of 'community' (Batten 2008). Efforts to build consensus often fail to recognise competing 'communities of interest' within localities. Diverse interest groups can subscribe to a shared set of symbols and imagine themselves as a community, yet attribute different meanings to these symbols (Hansen 1995). Differences are regularly suppressed to maintain community relations but surface in times of conflict between groups (Strathern 1982; Young 1990; Giddens 1994). Participatory democracy can lead to the wielding of power by a small group over the interests or values of the majority (Trotter 2006). Such problems of representation and legitimacy are often ignored in participatory processes (Cornwall & Coelho 2007).

People can and do participate as 'community or community members, as citizens, the public, or as service users' (Batten 2008: 48); what matters is who decides the specific actor required in specific circumstances. This issue of power and participation is a consistent theme in the literature, including 'how power is constructed, changed,

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[2] Others principles include: define sustainable development for each project, be holistic, consider essential elements, have an adequate scope, be practical, be open, communicate effectively, undertake ongoing, reflexive assessment, and ensure you have (and develop) the capacity to evaluate (Trotman 2005).

concealed, reproduced in forms and structures of participatory practice' (Batten 2008: 62). The literature suggests that the creation of 'protected arenas' (Cameron & Grant-Smith 2005) for marginalised groups to develop their own standpoints can be effective, particularly if such forums are facilitated by existing community-based organisations or community leaders (Scott 2007).

Treaty-based principles for research with Maori

> *We have to accept that the Treaty did not submit us to the research methodologies and ethics of somebody else. The Treaty affirmed our right to develop the processes of research which are appropriate for our people (Jackson 1996:8)*

Kaupapa Māori evaluation affirms the importance of Māori self-definitions and critiques Pakeha/colonial definitions of Māori. It articulates solutions to Māori concerns in terms of Māori knowledge that build on Māori strengths rather than perpetuating a deficit-focussed status quo (Cram 2004).

Māori researchers contributed to the development of the Health Research Council's *Nga Pou Rangahau Hauora Kia Whakapiki Ake Te Hauora Māori 2004-2008* which identifies underpinning values for Māori health research. Some of these principles are transferable to the evaluation of the Tamaki Transformation Programme. They are (Health Research Council of New Zealand 2004:8):

- Mātauranga rangahau hauora – health research knowledge needs to be relevant, accessible and available to tangata whenua.
- All health research should be conducted giving due consideration to the Treaty of Waitangi and the needs and expectations of Māori.
- Tangata whenua should have equal opportunities to define, design, and deliver quality health research at all levels.
- There should be investment in quality health research that aims to inform policy and practice and which contributes to improvements in Māori health and well-being.
- Improving Māori health will be achieved through collaboration and co-operation of those in the health and research communities.

Collaboration and co-operation includes 'supporting research which generates knowledge that bridges the spectrum of Māori health, social, environmental and economic outcomes' (Health Research Council of New Zealand 2004:17). Particular mention is made of 'developing opportunities for tangata whenua to actively participate in health research', and 'community led research which seeks to address their specific health needs' (Health Research Council of New Zealand 2004:18). Among the strategies for supporting collaboration and co-operation is assisting 'Māori communities to develop their capacity, capability and infrastructure to conduct health research' (Health Research Council of New Zealand 2004:18).

In addition, the ethics of Māori research and evaluation needs to draw on various guidelines that recognise that Mātauranga Māori is a source of knowledge related to ethics and knowledge generation.

The Health Research Council of New Zealand (2004:21) recognises that the health of indigenous people in a number of countries follows a pattern of decline which can

only be addressed through cooperative efforts. A Tri-lateral Agreement between New Zealand, Australia and Canada exists to put this into effect. This is another avenue of collaboration and co-operation.

Consultation with the Māori community in Tamaki and a review of Maori scholarship suggests that treaty-based approach to community participation is fundamental to sustainable development in a New Zealand context. In Tamaki this includes mana whenua (Ngati Whatua, Ngati Paoa and Ngai Tai) and taurahere (Ruapotaka Marae and other Māori and Māori organisations (TIES, in draft). The inclusion of a Māori world view can contribute a richness of strategies and develop 'ownership' of the programme and evaluation (Moewaka Barnes 2000). Durie (2006) noted that Māori participate as individuals, as whānau, and collectively as Māori; each of these types of participation need to be measured as aspects of Māori well-being.

Principles for research with Pacific Peoples

> *If research is to make a meaningful contribution to Pacific societies, then its primary purpose is to reclaim Pacific knowledges and values for Pacific peoples* (Anae et al., 2001)

In 1993, Tupuola contended that Western research must recognise non-Western scholarship, knowledge, worldviews and interpretations. Subsequently Anae et al (2001) and the Health Research Council of New Zealand (2005) have articulated the existence and specifications of specific Pacific research methodologies and guidelines. These specifications are premised on Pacific cultural values, principles, understandings, practices and epistemological underpinnings. An overarching contention by these authors is that research methods must effectively engage and address the concerns of Pacific peoples, and that the final outcomes must be for the benefit of all involved. A number of authors (Gegeo, 2001; Tamasese, 2005; Thaman, 2002) support this view and also claim that unless research on, with or about Pacific peoples is of direct benefit to them then it remains a mere reflection of colonisation.

Tamasese (2005) suggests questions that ought to be asked at the outset of any research with Pacific Peoples:

> Who will benefit from this production of knowledge? ... What steps can be taken by researchers to ensure that the knowledges they produce do not further marginalise Pacific people? Does this research contribute to the self-determination, freedom and liberation of Pacific peoples?

Establishing collaborative community consultations with all stakeholders (community and researchers) is required at not only the initial developmental stage (selection of research questions) but also throughout subsequent stages of the research (selection of methodological approach) and beyond (dissemination of information) (Anae et al 2001). At one level this can be considered a means of developing research partnerships between Pacific researchers, representatives, communities and advisory groups, who are knowledgeable to advise on: the focus of research topics; the identification of the most useful and appropriate research design methods; and, the resolution of contentious issues and the maximisation of the various potential benefits of the research.

The importance of collaboration in Pacific research is also emphasised within the Pacific Health Research Guidelines (2005) and reflected in an overarching principle which states '…that relationships are the foundation of all ethical conduct…The centrality of relationships directly reflects a Pacific perspective…' (Health Research Council of New Zealand, 2005, p.1). The principles stipulated in The Health Research Council guidelines include: respect, meaningful engagement, reciprocity, balance, protection, capacity building, and utility.

One important component of 'utility' is to 'develop Pacific methodologies, frameworks, models, analyses and approaches'. Examples of this are:
- The Samoan *fa'afaletui* methodology developed by Tamasese, Peteru and Waldegrave (1997).
- The Tongan **kakala** model developed by Konai Helu Thaman (1992)[3].
- The Cook Islands *tivaevae* (Cook Islands patch-quilts) model developed by Maua-Hodges (2000).
- A Fijian model developed by Ravuvu (1983) named **sevusevu** (ceremonial offering of *yaqona*[4] by hosts to guests and/or vice versa as a protocol of respect, recognition, trust and acceptance of one another).

Consultation with Pacific people in Tamaki and a review of Pacific scholarship suggests that these Pacific methodological procedures and protocols premised on Pacific values, knowledge and epistemologies provide an optimal framework within which to explore and develop Pacific understandings and engagement within the TTP evaluation.

Influence and power sharing
Relationships developed during participatory planning processes can foster partnership and civic 'ownership' of the initiative, supporting collaborative approaches to implementation (Rodgers 2007). However, there is often a breakdown between participatory planning and participatory implementation processes. For example, the Glen Innes Liveability planning process, a cross-sectoral process led by local government, engaged central government agencies, local institutions, community organisations, and citizens in identifying issues and community outcomes. Multi-layered relationships developed during participatory planning processes were not maintained over time and once plans were completed, agencies retreated to 'business as usual'. Programme achievements were not 'branded' back to the participatory planning process so community members did not feel their input was valued. Collectively, this resulted in further erosion of civic trust (Scott and Park 2008).

Capacity building
Capacity building within a community renewal context is understood to be a dynamic and continuous process targeted at organisational change as well as within local communities and society as a whole (O'Reilly 2004). Enabling conditions identified for effective capacity building have relevance to community renewal. These include:
- a supportive political, economic and social context

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[3] Kakala refers to the Tongan royal garland, as well as the fragrant flowers used to make the garland.
[4] Yaqona is *piper methysticum* – a plant the roots of which are prepared and used by Fijians as a social and ceremonial drink (Ravuvu, 1983).

- a commitment between two or more parties to work in partnership towards agreed objectives
- a belief in and commitment to organisations' right to independence and ability to build their own capacity
- an emphasis on outcomes and agreement on outcome indicators at an early stage
- a thorough assessment of needs and resources conducted in a climate of trust
- leadership from both the funder and the recipient of capacity building funding
- provision of adequate resources to achieve agreed goals
- sufficient start-up time for organisations to clarity outcomes, plan, source and access support and form key relationships
- a readiness for change
- an ability to network and build capacity through sharing information, experiences and good practice
- the availability of organisations to be intermediaries to provide appropriate services, resources and technical assistance
- clear, open and timely communication.

Clarity of purpose

HNZC developed a 'toolkit' to support the practitioners in community engagement, with useful guidelines on effective principles, skills and methods (HNZC 2009).A literature review of best practice related to participation suggests replacing the 'tool kit' approach, to participation that emphasizes getting the right tools for the job, with a focus on the process (Reed 2008). These processes, particularly relevant to a government-led initiative, include:

- Stakeholder participation needs to be underpinned by a philosophy that emphasizes empowerment, equity, trust and learning.
- Stakeholder involvement as early as possible
- Relevant stakeholders need to be represented systematically
- Clear objectives for the participatory process need to be agreed among stakeholders from outset
- Methods should be selected and tailored to the decision-making context, considering the objectives, types of participants and appropriate level of engagement
- Highly skilled facilitation essential
- Local and scientific knowledge should be integrated
- Participation needs to be institutionalized

Internationally, the literature suggests that 'any urban renewal strategy is most effective when combined with community consultation and participation strategies, and that these participation strategies can lead to many of the desired changes *in the absence* of any other action' (Stubbs 2005: 10, emphasis in original). This was reflected locally in an evaluation of a HNZC community renewal programme that identified a close link between the degree of resident participation in planning and implementation processes and the success of community renewal programmes (Buchan and Austin 2006). Demonstrated influence of residents in the planning process and adequate time and other resources were required to build residents' skills and confidence to participate. Of particular importance was the allocation of funds to support community and formal multi-agency partnerships (Buchan and Austin 2006).

Co-design/Co-delivery

Innovation and learning together is a central feature of a co-design/co-delivery approach. Svendsen and Laberge (2006) articulated a 'co-creative' engagement process with a focus on networking between multiple stakeholders. Co-creative processes are advocated to develop innovative solutions to complex, cross-boundary issues; such processes are collaborative, inclusive and learning focused through cycles of outreach, collective learning and joint action (Svendsen & Laberge 2006). These networks are aimed at building trust and mutual understanding to enable collective action.

A common typology of community participation distinguishes government-led, co-led and community-led processes (e.g., Horwich 2004: 28). These distinctions are evident in the TTP (e.g., Community Engagement Strategy), and has some currency in the Tamaki community sector (e.g., TIES, in draft). The Tamaki Inclusive Engagement Strategy (TIES) group noted that co-design/co-delivery requires 'doing things differently'. The basis of doing things differently is understood as developing collaborative relationships between community, government, and other interested parties; focus on a common vision; acknowledgement and active management of power differentials; and delivery of tangible outcomes for Tamaki (TIES, in draft)[5]. An example often cited is the Talbot Park Community Renewal Project (2004-2007) which successfully promoted both improved service delivery (agency-led) and community-led activities. The programme evaluation noted however that inter-agency collaboration was more difficult to achieve (Buchan and Austin 2006).

Henley (2006) compares co-creative processes with traditional 'org-centric' processes in terms of their mindset, focus, purpose orientation, timeframe, communication and power (see table three .

Table 3: Comparison of org-centric and co-creative processes

	Org-centric	Co-Creative
Mindset	Mechanistic Bilateral/separate parts/ autonomous	Systemic Web of symbiotic relationships
Focus	Organisation's interests either/or Differences/separation	Mutual interests Both/and Interdependence
Purpose	Instrumental	Generative
Orientation/Strategies	Defensive Command/control Problem-solve	Collaborative Self-organization Innovation
Timeframe	Short-term	Longer-term
Communication	One- or two-way communication is common Traditional forms used, e.g., advertising (company "tells" their story)	Multidirectional
Power	Organisation "manages"	Network collectively owns

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[5] The TIES book draws on collective understandings of effective community engagement processes. Such understandings are informed primarily by community knowledges and experiences conveyed through storied accounts and the documented GI Visioning Project (Hancock and Chilcott 2004) as well as ideas developed through collective reflection undertaken by the TIES group and in dialogue with community members. The book documents a range of examples of successful community-led initiatives. It provides a participatory framework and tools, which could be used to guide community-led, co-led and government-led initiatives. The TIES framework and tools are being trialled by several community organizations. The TIES group has done presentations on the tools to over 350 community participants, including multiple community groups and has received considerable support.

	issue and stakeholders	issue

(Source: Henley 2006, adapted from Laberge and Svendsen 2006)

Key principles of co-creative approaches include (Laberge and Svendsen 2006):
- Relationships are critical for success
- Relationships cannot be controlled or 'managed'
- Relationships between members are dynamic – they grow and change over time
- There may be one or more 'network convenors' whose role is to link and network members
- Trust is crucial to the models success and must be fostered at all stages
- Networks are difficult, unpredictable but necessary
- Diverse views, backgrounds and interests of network members are seen as providing opportunities for creativity, innovation and learning (as long as they do not totally destabilize the network).

There is a difference in co-creative approaches from the best practice community participation principles identified by Reed (2008) above. While community participation comes from an agency-led approach with a focus on systematic involvement of stakeholders, co-creative processes focus more on facilitation of dynamic relationships. Dynamic or transformative relationships were identified as a critical success factor in a meta-analysis of community action projects (Greenaway 2006). Co-creative processes were also defined as relationships between individuals and organisations that enable existing understandings and ways of working to be challenged and which require new ways of working to be trialled and adopted (Greenaway 2006). A co-design/co-delivery approach is likely to have aspects of both agency-led and co-led initiatives and requires collective identification of aspects of the programme that can be community- or co-led. Where appropriate, the programme can develop a gradual progression towards community- and co-led processes over time.

Features of 'transformative' modes of participation that are evident in this literature review that have relevance to a co-design/co-delivery approach include:
- A partnered or shared analysis of both the problem and the solution (Ryan and Brown 2000; Greenaway 2006).
- Citizens (individual or groups) undertake actions for the collective good (Batten 2008).
- Civic participants have and exercise agency to create and support transformative practice.
- Community members decide how they choose to participate, for example, as individuals, community members, citizens, service users.
- 'People-centred' (rather than 'planner-centred) participation builds capacity and empower stakeholders to define and meet their own needs (Michener 1998, in Reed 2008).
- Change is created through people developing personal and shared understandings of their own and others' interests, values, experiences, and beliefs and based on shared understanding, act for the collective good (Webler 1995, in Blackstock et al. 2007).
- A social learning environment is critical to transformative modes of participation (Blackstock et al. 2007), recognising and integrating all forms of knowledge,

capacity, views, methods of learning and stores of historical experience (Allen et al. 2001).

- Two-way information sharing is necessary because individuals and groups have an interest in and/or are affected by outcomes, and there is an opportunity to influence the final outcome (OECD 2004, in Blackstock et al. 2007).
- Power sharing and a shift in the locus of control from agency to community is critical (Greenaway 2006, Themessl-Huber and Grutsch 2003).

Implications for co-design and co-delivery of TTP

Community participation in urban renewal processes can result in improved strategic plans and can also build community knowledge of sustainable practices, civic engagement, and collaboration at a local scale. Participation can also cause community conflict, create costs for community members and reduce the amount of time people have for other civic and kin activities. Expectations that citizens develop a 'collective voice' are unrealistic and exclusionary. Careful processes are required that recognise people's time and difference and diversity and provide safe environments for people to learn more about others' views and develop some shared understandings. Engaging existing community organizations and leaders to facilitate dialogue is an effective approach.

Participatory processes are not just about design; relationships with community and other stakeholders developed during design processes can support ongoing collaboration in implementation, monitoring and evaluation. While lack of community capacity is often identified as the most important barrier to community participation in urban planning processes, research in Glen Innes suggests lack of civic trust is also an important barrier in this marginalised community. Civic trust can be built through respectful, transparent processes that make the links between dialogue with residents and the resulting actions explicit and that are clear about the community's ability to influence decisions.

Co-design/co-delivery approaches are identified as a neutral technology, neither good nor bad. What matters is how the technology is applied, in what context, and how effective it is in implementation leading to outcomes. It is likely that a co-design/co-delivery approach will take time to emerge. For TTP, such an approach will require a mix of government-led, co-led or community-led processes. This report proposes a set of guiding principles to underpin a co-design/co-delivery approach (see table 4).

Table 4: Guiding principles for a co-design/co-delivery approach to the Tamaki Transformation Programme

	Targeted at…	Reflected in…	Indicators
Participation	Diverse range of participants involved to support innovation, creativity and learning (Svendsen & Laberge 2006)	Who takes part Degree of involvement Degree of influence (Themessl-Huber & Grutsch 2003) Safe forums for deliberation (Cameron & Grant-Smith 2005)	To be developed with community
Working together	Transformative relationships, power sharing (Greenaway 2006)	Residents and community organisations as equal partners in planning, implementation, monitoring & evaluation (Stubbs 2005: Greenaway 2006) Transparency of processes	
Influence and power sharing	Community as agents of change and decision-making (TIES, in draft, Buchan & Austin 2006, Greenaway 2006).	Who leads The way services, programmes resourced Citizens as active participants in (not recipients of) design, development, implementation and evaluation of the programme (TIES, in draft; Batten 2008) Collective ownership of programme (Laberge & Svendsen 2006)	To be developed with community
Treaty-based approaches	Respectful involvement of mana whenua and taurahere (TIES, in draft). Māori as kaitiakitanga. Holistic worldview, interconnectedness of all systems (Greenaway 2006).	Who takes part/leads Degree of involvement/influence (Themessl-Huber & Grutsch 2003) Safe forums for deliberation (Cameron & Grant-Smith 2005) Participation in society as Māori Enhanced whānau capacities Vibrant Māori communities (Durie 2006)	To be developed with community
Innovation and learning together	Learning together, creating shared understanding of vision, objectives, actions and outcomes. Fostering creative solutions and processes that are locally appropriate, emergent.	New ways of agencies and agencies/community working together (TIES, in draft) Increasing proportion of co-led initiatives (Laberge & Svendsen 2006) Evolving frameworks reflecting 'learning as we go' approach (Themessl-Huber et al. 2008) All forms of knowledge important (local, cultural, scientific, etc.) (Reed 2008) Adequate time for reflexive process. Fluidity of design process (Themessl-Huber et al. 2008)	To be developed with community
Capacity building	Building community and agency capacity for transformative practice (O'Reilly 2004)	Skills emerging (e.g., leadership, facilitation, evaluation) Civic participation Systemic co-design/co-delivery approach (Laberge & Svendsen 2006)	To be developed with community
Clarity of purpose	Build trust, engagement and collaboration	Generative, emergent Multidirectional communication channels (Laberge & Svendsen 2006) Transparency about ability to influence (Stubbs 2005)	To be developed with community

Co-design/co-delivery of evaluation

Evaluation can be a means to bring together the perspectives of communities and agencies under a common framework (Horwich 2004). The challenge is to engage all stakeholders in the design and delivery of the evaluation in ways that build ownership, capacity and programme efficiency and effectiveness. Part of the evaluators' task is process oriented: to document the story of the programme, highlight whether it is moving towards achieving what it set out to do, celebrate successes and learn from what is and is not working (Taylor et al. 2005). Lessons from similar programmes are also being reviewed to provide key lessons. In the longer term evaluators will facilitate the analysis of the effectiveness, value and achievements of the programme (Measham 2009).

Purpose of TTP evaluation

The overall goal is to design the first (formative) phase of the evaluation. The formative phase of the evaluation is to provide information that supports the ongoing improvement of the Programme. The objectives for designing the formative evaluation are to:

- capture organisational knowledge and lessons learnt from the programme activities over the two years from 1 June 2007 to 1 October 2009, with an emphasis on interagency work
- develop processes that build the evaluation capacity and experience of people in Takaki
- develop a framework that enables co-design and co-delivery of the evaluation with the Tamaki community
- contribute to developing and agreeing a range of indicators and measures that can help track progress towards achieving TTP outcomes
- identify what contributes to similar programmes' success and review the match of these 'success factors; with the operation of the TTP to date.

Information produced by the evaluation will be developed in collaboration with programme staff and community members to help shape ongoing programme planning and decision making. This paper is intended to fulfil the objectives by developing a framework that enables co-design and co-delivery of the evaluation with the Tamaki community.

Co-design/co-delivery approaches to evaluation

A co-design/co-delivery evaluation framework is informed by the principles developed in the previous section. The framework will also draw on a growing body of knowledge on participatory evaluation and similar models such as organic evaluation (Reid and Nilsson 2002); order of outcomes framework, (Olsen 2006), Cluster Group approach (Buchan and Austin 2006), Most Significant Difference (Davies and Dart 2005), and Collaborative Inquiry (Bray et al. 2000). The following is a brief review of participatory evaluation.

Evaluation needs to be centred on unique attributes and context of the given community or communities (Horwich et al. 2004). Participatory evaluation responds to these criteria by involving stakeholders in all aspects of programme monitoring and evaluation, including evaluation design, data collection, analysis, dissemination of findings, and action planning (Eberhardt et al. 2004). Negotiation and co-ordination of objectives and outcomes of the evaluation is critical to this process (Themessl-Huber and Grutsch 2003). Cousins and Whitmore (1998) distinguished two forms of participatory evaluation: 'practical participatory evaluation' that supports programme or organisational decision-making and problem-solving and 'transformative participation evaluation' that fosters empowerment and creation of social justice (in Themessl-Huber and Grutsch 2003). Transformative participatory evaluation

aligns with 'organic evaluation' (Reid and Nilsson 2002) that is intended to identify and value organisational strengths and processes through a process of questioning, reflecting, experimenting and assessing value. While the initial framework may be proposed by the lead agency, values and meanings are developed over time through a collaborative process that provides people with the opportunity to participate on their terms. Values are used for 'continual re-centring' of the programme (Reid and Nilsson 2002). Similarly, the Most Significant Difference framework uses stories of changes created by the programme to foster learning and a shared vision, and build capacity (Davies and Dart 2005[6]).

Collaborative Inquiry (CI) (Bray et al 2000) is a form of action research based on a process of learning and meaning-making based on experience. CI involves a group of peers working together to develop understanding and constructing meaning around experience. Rather than problem solving, the focus for a CI group is to imagine the possibilities of what could be and then using an action/reflection approach to create change.

CI is proposed as an alternative to more conventional 'community consultation' and selecting of 'community representatives'. In contrast, CI is aimed at actively engaging residents in not just the design of the programme but also the delivery. A CI approach is also responsive to Tamaki residents' preference for story-based 'learning as we go' approach.

The group process involves:
- firstly framing a research question
- agreeing on criteria that define the group and ground rules for working together
- recording the meaning-making process through e.g. storytelling, dialogue, reflection, pictures, metaphors, etc.
- group develops action plan based on what was learned from recent experiences
- reflecting on what was learned from these actions (what worked, why, what could be done differently) and how this influences future actions by the group
- identifying trends and themes in these meanings and these are fed back into the programme or action process (this could be an evaluation task).

Participatory approaches to evaluation and monitoring help build relationships between stakeholders, create measurements that have meaning for multiple audiences, and engage a range of people in data gathering and learning (Allen et al. 2001).

Participatory evaluation is generally aimed at engaging stakeholders (e.g., programme staff and recipients of programmes) in the evaluation design. In contrast, a co-design/co-delivery evaluation framework envisaged for Tamaki is aimed at engaging individuals and community groups (and agencies) in the design and delivery of evaluation, not just as recipients but as active partners/agents in the process (e.g., undertaking data collection, community forums to undertake analysis of data). Nevertheless, the principle of influence and power-sharing is

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[6] The Most Significant Change technique, developed by Davies and Dart (2005), is offered as an alternative to indicators. This technique is a form of participatory monitoring and evaluation of community development programmes, and focuses on learning rather than just on accountability. It involves collecting significant change stories from the field level, followed by the development of "domains of change", broad categories of possible significant change stories. Domains could include, for example, changes in the quality of people's lives, changes in the nature of people's participation in development activities, and changes in the sustainability of people's organisations and activities. Validity of the process is developed through thick description ("closely textured accounts of events, placed in their context"(p67)), a systematic process of selection, transparency, verification, participation and member checking.

particularly evident in participatory evaluation frameworks, denoting the desire for a framework fluidity that allows a shift in the locus of control over decision-making and practices towards the community (Themessl-Huber and Grutsch 2003).

Conventional evaluation practices measure project success against predetermined indicators (usually quantitative) that are set by the lead agency, often at the end of the project. In contrast, participatory approaches to evaluation are flexible enough to allow all programme stakeholders to engage in the development of measures of success and in the implementation of the evaluation. Participatory evaluation includes both quantitative and qualitative data and is intended to inform dialogue, decision making and action planning in an iterative process.

Implications for co-design/co-delivery of the TTP Evaluation

Three main areas have been identified in which community members and groups can take part in the TTP evaluation:

1. As active participants in the governance of the evaluation such as members of the evaluation owners group, evaluation advisory group and the evaluation team.
2. As active participants in the design of programme success factors, and in the development and prioritisation of programme indicators. Involving local people as active participants is aimed at recognising local diversity, building support for TTP and contributing to community capacity.
3. As active participants in the delivery of the evaluation, for example, taking part in data gathering (e.g., compiling success stories, interviewing, developing and administering questionnaires, facilitating focus groups) analysis, dissemination of evaluation findings, and monitoring. This participation is aimed at building community capacity and making use of community skills, knowledge, and experience.

All three areas are in keeping with the co-design/co-delivery principles identified in the previous section and will be explored in workshops with residents.

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