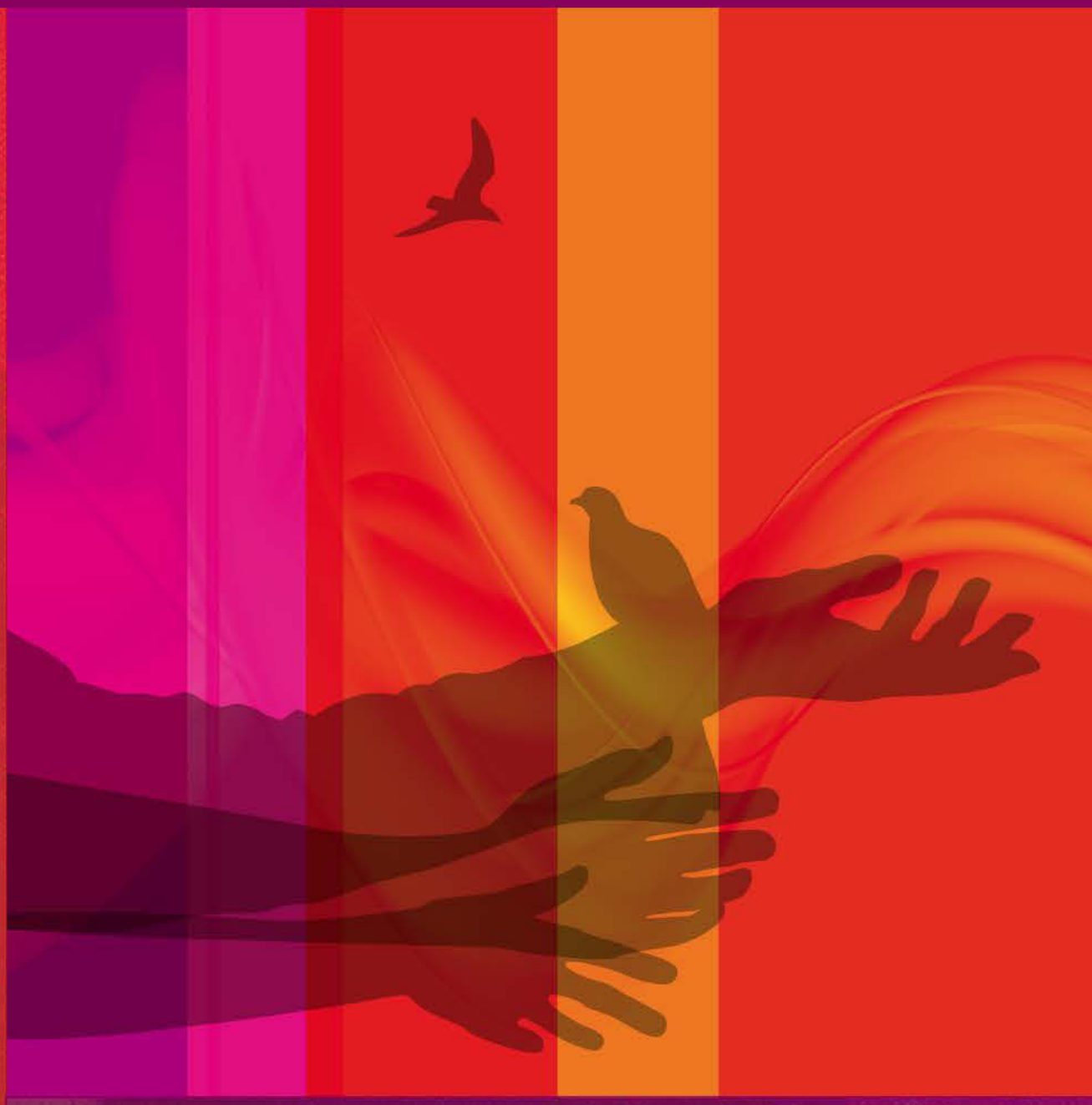
Involving citizens and communities in securing societal progress for the well-being of all

Methodological guide



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Involving citizens and communities in securing societal progress for the well-being of all

Methodological guide

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Explanation for the numbering

The numbering can be decoded as follows:

- *The first figure refers to the relevant part of the guide*
- *The second figure refers to the chapter in question*
- *The third figure is a one-up number for the table, figure or diagram in the chapter*

Example: Table 121

- *1 = Part 1*
- *2 = Chapter 2*
- *1 = 1st table/figure/diagram in this chapter*

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Preface

At a time when we in Europe are seeking new ways of restoring hope in the future, there is a crucial need to call on and value the knowledge and ideas of citizens in order to strengthen the links between public policies and the aspirations of each and every individual. Revitalising political decision making and making it more relevant is a key challenge when public debt at all levels is giving rise to doubts about the capacity of public authorities to foster social cohesion.

This is why the Council of Europe has produced this guide on "Involving citizens and communities in securing societal progress for the well-being of all". It is a part of the joint effort to identify new common benchmarks and to shape future political and socio-economic decisions, relating to the meaning of progress and well-being.

This is our contribution to the reflection carried out by other international organisations, including the OECD and the European Union, and by national governments.

By placing the emphasis on the role of citizens and communities, the Council of Europe intends to contribute to the debate from its own perspective, in other words with a view to strengthening democracy and human rights.

The proposals made in this guide are the result of experimental and comparative work carried out by the Council's Directorate of Social Cohesion. They are there to be taken up and used by all those working in cities, neighbourhoods, companies or public bodies who wish to get citizens involved in the process of defining well-being for all and thinking about the progress that needs to be made in this direction.

I hope that you will find this guide useful.

Thorbjørn Jagland
Secretary General of the Council of Europe

Presentation of the guide and acknowledgements

Europe and the whole world are faced with a serious crisis of confidence in the future. Citizens themselves are at a loss and wonder about the role that is theirs to play and their ability to exert influence. In such a context, this guide provides some food for thought on how we should understand the extent of the concept of "the well-being of all", harnessing the commitment and potential of everyone. Throughout the various chapters, it highlights the political value of involving women, men and communities in defining this concept and corresponding indicators.

This guide is therefore addressed to all those who see the involvement of and reflection with communities and citizens as key ways of offering a vision of the future, taking account of shared responsibility and our obligations to future generations. Going beyond an approach involving mere consultation of citizens, it puts forward a way of turning to account what they have to say – which is so often trivialised or overlooked – transforming their views into indicators of progress towards the well-being of all.

Transforming the views of individuals – living in a given area (neighbourhood, town, city, etc.) or working in a particular sector or on a particular topic, in schools, businesses or hospitals – leads to a better understanding of the inter-relationship between the different dimensions of the well-being of all and the interdependence between individual and collective well-being. Co-responsibility can emerge only from a deep understanding of the aspirations and skills of each and every individual.

Progress is a difficult concept to define. Moving away from a simplistic figure-based approach, it shows the paradoxes between the choices and needs of present-day generations and the rights of future generations, between short-term and long-term visions, between resources and satisfaction, between effort and the distribution of costs and benefits, between tangible and intangible aspects of life, between individual and common goods. Now more than ever we have to tackle the question of how we should address the polarisation in well-being created by "progress" and restore the true meaning of "social equity".

By defining the only possible progress as progress which reduces disparities in well-being, this guide demonstrates that it is only in close conjunction with citizens that it is possible to construct indicators for this type of progress.

This guide also shows how taking account of the views of citizens makes it possible to draw up new evaluation grids for social policies and action, create new common references, reflect on the multidimensional nature of well-being for all and highlight the key significance of intangible and environmental resources. It calls on us to incorporate the concept of "critical" resources in the public and private choices that are made.

As with any tool that is the outcome of an experimental approach, this is an ongoing project, but already it opens up new avenues for giving fresh thought to progress from the point of view of strengthening democracy. It is the fruit of much co-operation and dialogue and of many meetings. Nonetheless, the responsibility for any imperfections is ours alone. It is for this reason that we intend to regularly update our Council of Europe collaborative website SPIRAL (Societal Progress Indicators and Responsibilities for All) (https://spiral.cws.coe.int), as a source of supplementary information. That site will continue the process out of which this guide was born, the various stages of which are outlined below.

Methodological guide

This guide follows on from an initial Council of Europe publication, *Concerted development of social cohesion indicators – Methodological guide* (2005), which defined social cohesion as society's capacity to ensure the well-being of all its members, including equitable access to available resources, respect for dignity in diversity, personal and collective autonomy and responsible participation.[1] It was the starting point for discovering how citizens themselves understood well-being for all. In this connection, we would like to express our thanks to the municipality of Mulhouse (France) and its mayor at that time, Jean-Marie Bockel, whose commitment made it possible to begin participatory experiments with the citizens of that city.

One year later, in 2006, the Stracel company (UPM Group, Strasbourg, France) opened its doors to us. Its director, Philippe Gaudron, in liaison with the Strasbourg and Bas-Rhin Chamber of Commerce and Industry (under the responsibility of Marcel Schott), played host to Cathy Fanton, following her traineeship at the Council of Europe, enabling her to bring together workers and management to discuss the well-being of all in the business environment.

Mulhouse municipal council subsequently obtained funding from DIIESES[2] and took on Sébastien Houssin following his traineeship at the Council of Europe. With the support of Mireille Godefroy and Anne-Elisabeth Reeb (special advisers to the mayor) and Brigitte Göllner (Deputy Director General of Solidarity and Community Affairs), he extended the experiment to the Albert-Schweitzer lycée, thanks to the involvement of the headmaster, Michel Vuillaume, and Sophie Pignalosa, teacher; he then applied the method to the zoo and botanical gardens, with the support of Mr Moisson (director) and Ms Feller (head of administration). The experiment then continued in the Drouot neighbourhood, at the local health monitoring centre, with the support of Henri Metzer (municipal councillor with responsibility for health), and in the des Coteaux neighbourhood – with the project Tout un Quartier pour Eduquer un Enfant (A whole neighbourhood to bring up a child), assisted by Dominique Roesslinger-Kacem (counsellor, Maison des Parents) and Mr Schneider (a resident) and the Multipartite Social Contract with Lydia Meyer (Social Affairs Department) following its experimentation in Alsace with the encouragement of the Cresus association and its president, Jean-Louis Kiehl. The list of people who assisted and supported the work in Mulhouse is of course very long; we would like to extend our thanks to them all.

This same type of funding made it possible to carry out similar research in the 14th arrondissement of Paris, with the active involvement of Marie-Thérèse Atallah (arrondissement councillor), the Florimont association and Muriel Rochut (project co-ordinator).

In Italy, the authorities of the autonomous province of Trento made it possible for us to carry out the experiment in Rovereto. In Romania, a highly motivational process began in conjunction with the local authorities and the Timişoara Intercultural Institute; the latter took on Mihaela Vetan, who has since been at the heart of a powerful dynamic approach.

Once these processes were launched, an institutional meeting paved the way for an exchange of views with Enrico Giovannini, who at the time was responsible for the Global Project to Measure the Progress of Societies, run by the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). His enthusiasm for a citizen-based approach to progress indicators brought us into contact with Susan Brutchy and Deanna Zachary (Applied Survey Research – ASR[3] – United States) and Mark Friedman, developer of the Results-Based Accountability

1. *Concerted development of social cohesion indicators – Methodological guide*, Council of Europe Publishing, 2005, p. 23. While that first guide offered a variety of choices among a large number of indicators defined from already existing variables, the work carried out subsequently and presented in this new guide focuses on constructing indicators on the basis of citizens' views.

2. DIIESES: Délégation interministérielle à l'Innovation, à l'Expérimentation sociale et à l'Economie sociale (Interministerial Department for Innovation, Social Experimentation and Social Economy – which has now become the Directorate General of Social Cohesion), France.

3. www.appliedsurveyresearch.org.

(RBA) method (2005). This meeting marked a turning point. This prompted the search for other structures or individuals all over the world who had developed approaches to select or define indicators together with citizens and communities: we made contact with Sue West from the University of Melbourne (Australia), Takayoshi Kusago from the University of Osaka (Japan), the person running the Bogotá Cómo Vamos[4] project in Colombia, Michel Renault and other members of the Pekea[5] and Fair networks[6] (France), Florence Jany-Catrice from the University of Lille, Pierre-Jean Lorens, Director of Sustainable Development, Forward Studies and Evaluation, and Grégory Marlier (both from the Nord-Pas-de-Calais Regional Council), Mary Pat MacKinnon from the University of Ottawa (Canada), Tommaso Rondinella de Sbilanciamoci (Italy), the Rete Nuovo Municipio (Italy), Alberto Chiari from the University of Turin (Italy), and Elisabeth Langgren-Lundov from the region of Sörmland (Sweden).

In addition, since 2003, the Council of Europe's Social Cohesion Development and Research Division has closely co-operated with the social cohesion departments of the Walloon Region (Belgium), particularly Carine Jansen, director, and the Walloon Institute of Evaluation, Forward Studies and Statistics (IWEPS), who have been faithful partners in this work, especially Christine Ruyters and Michel Laffut, researchers in IWEPS, and Daniel Defays, director. The IWEPS helped carry out experiments in 15 municipalities in the region, with a view to extending this to all local entities taking part in the Local Social Cohesion Plan.

As a result of co-operation with the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), experiments were also carried out in Cape Verde as part of the national plan to combat poverty in rural areas – with the support of Jorge Guimarães, Jorge Dias Amado, José Maria Veiga and Ramiro Azevedo. Lastly, a meeting with Constance Kenguel from the Directorate General of Well-Being in the Ministry of Social Affairs in Gabon led to a presentation of the experiment in that country.

All these people and bodies have contributed in one way or another to this publication: by playing a direct part in running the experiments; by providing information on experiments under way in their region or country; revising or offering constructive criticism of the provisional texts; submitting final texts (we would particularly like to thank Christine Ruyters and Michel Laffut from the IWEPS for the first part of this guide); forging exchange and friendship links (a special mention should be made of Filomena Maggino, lecturer at the University of Florence (Italy) and member of the ISQOLS network); making it possible to further develop the work and produce regional indicators based on local experiments (IWEPS in the Walloon Region).

The long work involved in analysing all these contributions – given their extreme complexity and rich substance – and the gradual fine-tuning of the method for transforming citizens' ideas into indicators of progress in the well-being of all are the fruit of the enthusiasm, dedication and commitment of Samuel Thirion, administrative officer at the Council of Europe in the division referred to above.

We would also like to thank our trainee, Félix Martins, and Anne-Iris Romens, who worked on developing software for processing citizens' criteria. This work subsequently passed on to Joël Obrecht, temporary member of staff at the Council of Europe.

Lastly, many colleagues at the Council of Europe's Documents and Publications Production Department have shown the utmost professionalism in the proofreading of the texts, the layout and publication aspects and the design of the cover. Irène Malki-Botte, assistant in the Social Cohesion Development and Research Division, with considerable patience and attentiveness, has been responsible for the day-to-day monitoring of the work.

4. www.bogotacomovamos.org/scripts/home.php.

5. www.pekea-fr.org/building.htm.

6. www.idies.org/index.php?category/FAIR.

To date, the most promising result of this effort has been the drafting by the Council of Europe's European Committee for Social Cohesion (CDCS) of a Social Cohesion Plan open to the 47 member states, drawing on the work with citizens at local level to produce indicators and priorities for social cohesion. This plan puts forward a combination of a bottom-up approach, picking up on the achievements presented in this guide, and top-down approaches aimed at making citizens aware of the policy decisions taken and tools devised at European level.

Finally, we could like to express our most sincere thanks to all the citizens who took part in the working groups, putting forward their criteria and visions of well-being and ill-being, demonstrating their commitment and expressing their frustrations, validating the indicators, becoming involved in action plans, etc.

Throughout this work, we have been aware that the well-being of all provides everyone with the opportunity to feel that they are stakeholders in society. When citizens can reflect and interact on a concept, a new prospect for the future emerges, centred on shared references – so lacking today – to find ways of achieving future progress.

I hope you will find this guide of interest and that it will prove to be of particular value for those who firmly believe that there is much to be gained from pursuing and further developing the methodological lessons referred to here.

Gilda Farrell
Head of the Social Cohesion Development and Research Division
Council of Europe

Introduction

The question of societal progress is not a new one. Throughout history, men and women have given much thought to their own future and that of the generations to come. Over the last two centuries, scientific and technological progress and innovations in all fields have emerged in tandem with a whole range of ideas relating to what constitutes an ideal society and how this can be achieved. This has taken place in accordance with the concept of "necessary progress".[7]

However, at the beginning of the 21st century, the question of societal progress is becoming more acute given the rapid pace of change. The fall of the Berlin Wall marked the end of a myth which had given rise to much hope for a more egalitarian society. Today, a deep-rooted crisis calls into question an ideology based on the self-regulation of the market. But over and above this questioning which obliges us to review the models previously serving as a reference for progress, there is the awareness, given the depletion of natural resources and the disastrous consequences of their over-exploitation, that development based on the approach pursued over the last two centuries of drawing massively on non-renewable resources (particularly fossil energy sources) leads to an impasse. It must be replaced by a model of societal progress based on the rational use of renewable resources and on an awareness of the multiple factors which are essential to achieving well-being for all.

Accordingly, it is now becoming increasingly obvious that gross domestic product is unable to address the complexity of societal progress, particularly as it conceals a number of adverse effects which clearly have to be reversed.

Never before, therefore, has the question of progress been as essential as it is today, requiring an open and inclusive democratic debate.

Given this urgency, citizen initiatives have emerged more or less everywhere in the world in order to take a fresh look at the objectives and indicators of societal progress. Discovering these initiatives was the starting point for this guide and the main focus of Part 1. As broad an overview as possible (Chapter 1), though not exhaustive, gives an idea of their diversity and their differences (Chapter 2), their similarities and the things they share (Chapter 3) in rethinking progress today. This first part of the guide provides an initial reference framework for progress processes (which we have termed the "cube of potential complementarities for societal progress"), showing how these involve the participation of all players in the different stages of the processes and at different levels of society.

Following on from this general framework, Part 2 looks at the question of societal progress today. An analysis of the concept of progress and the challenges of the 21st century (Chapter 1) leads to a rethinking of the bases of societal progress (Chapter 2) and an analysis of how the initiatives referred to provide an appropriate response to this need (Chapter 3). Part 2 of the guide identifies several types of need to ensure that citizen initiatives actually do provide a response to the challenges of our century, leading to the need to rethink the global reference frameworks, the knowledge tools (primarily the indicators) and the methods, dealt with in the following three parts.

The discussion of the global reference frameworks (Part 3 of the guide) looks first of all at the well-being of all as an objective of societal progress. Starting from the idea that the definition of well-being for all is a

7. See Salvadori, 2008.

matter for citizens themselves, Chapter 1 presents the results of the exercise of collecting criteria which made it possible to identify the dimensions and key components of well-being. It shows the possible points of convergence between the well-being of present and future generations. Chapter 2 further develops the reflection on the components of a society able to ensure the well-being of all – future generations included – based on citizens and communities, in particular in terms of recognition of rights and "obligations",[8] institutional and organisational tools, and the capacity to identify and overcome any obstacles. Chapter 3 clarifies the reference framework regarding the processes and cycles of progress, picking up on and supplementing the "cube of potential complementarities for societal progress".

Part 4 raises the key issue of drawing up progress indicators together with citizens and communities. It moves away from the well-worn paths in order to explore new types of indicators and thereby make the link between citizens' knowledge and action. For this reason, this part begins with a general approach to indicators, placing an emphasis on the concepts of value fields, scales of meaning and assignment relationships (Chapter 1) and then applies these concepts to societal progress indicators (Chapter 2) and on that basis sheds light on the transition from a set of indicators to action strategies (Chapter 3).

Part 5 deals specifically with methods for conducting societal progress processes with citizens and communities. It seeks to offer guidance in order to stimulate and harness the interest and motivation of citizens in the different stages of this process, placing the emphasis in each of the stages on simple and easily transferable methods, drawing on and learning from experiments conducted in Europe and the rest of the world.

Lastly, the appendices (to be found on the CD-Rom) provide some additional information to facilitate understanding of the guide, in particular Parts 3, 4 and 5, and the implementation of the methods it proposes. They include various tools (glossary, applications, identification key, software), sheets and examples of processes with citizens and communities throughout the world, certain products of these processes and videos.

And so, in its five parts, the guide offers a complete approach highlighting how the fact of rethinking well-being for all together with citizens and communities leads to a rethinking of societal progress itself, its reference frameworks, tools and methods. Many points need to be further developed and call for new experiments in order to provide possible answers. This guide is a contribution to an open debate which should continue after its publication,[9] with the aim of incorporating into society new methods to strengthen the fundamental values of the Council of Europe which are human rights, democracy and the rule of law.

8. See Cortina, 2007.

9. In particular via the SPIRAL collaborative website (https://spiral.cws.coe.int).

Part 1

Rethinking well-being together with citizens and communities

Social cohesion

Introduction

Numerous experiments conducted throughout the world show that the need to reconcile well-being and societal progress is a universal concern. But how can we provide the right answers and, furthermore, how are we to "measure" well-being and societal progress?

The purpose of this first part of the guide is to present various experiments developed in this field throughout the world. All sought to construct evaluation and action tools, visions and criteria applicable to the well-being of all and societal progress. In particular, they show that it is possible to involve citizens and communities at different levels, whether on a national, regional or more local scale. Each of these experiments will first of all be described, then details will be given of how they were implemented and, lastly, their respective aims will be analysed in order to identify how they differ. In this way, it should be possible to understand how these approaches can supplement and be linked to each other in the interests of societal progress.

Most are based on "deliberative" processes.

Historically, deliberative/decision-making processes developed from discussions which started between the two world wars (Dewey, 1927). These debates were intended to improve decision making on the management of public policies and budgets. They were also aimed at strengthening civic culture. Deliberative processes proliferated all over the world in the 1970s and were based on innovative procedures which had a tangible impact on public action. These included the citizen panels or citizen juries (particularly in Germany and the US), American "mini publics" embracing educative forums, participatory advisory panels, participatory problem-solving collaboration and participatory democratic governance (Fung, 2003), consensus conferences (which were launched in the Scandinavian countries in the late 1980s), participatory budgets (launched for the first time in Porto Alegre, Brazil, in 1989 and trialled in several towns) designed to improve the allocation of tax revenue, and deliberative polls, all of which have given rise to various modes of civic involvement of citizens, in both the North and the South, with hundreds of local communities becoming actively involved in dialogue on such themes as racial issues, social vulnerabilities, urban planning, etc.[10]

A new stage was reached in 1992 with the adoption of Agenda 21 at the Rio Conference, which provided for action plans at local authority level (Agenda 21 Local), encouraging dialogue between and the involvement of all interested parties (elected representatives, services, local, civic and community associations, enterprises and citizens). Consultation is now an integral part of a sustainable development-oriented approach.

In Europe, these approaches have been applied to policy making. Innumerable consultation processes (sectoral consultation tables, territorial covenants, participatory public policy observatories, etc.) have therefore been put in place. This movement has also prompted substantial theoretical output (Habermas, 1984, 1987, 1993; Pettit, 2001; Bobbio, 2005a, 2005b, 2007; Bobbio and Pomatto 2007; Lewanski, 2006, 2007).

There is growing interest in deliberative democracy in response to the difficulties facing the traditional forms of liberal democracy in taking decisions binding on the community.

Nonetheless, this guide also seeks to show that by implementing free dialogue within a local living environment (neighbourhood, town, village, etc.) or within a collective entity (company, school, etc.), these processes

10. The International Association for Public Participation website (IAP2 – www.iap2.org) lists more than a dozen participatory methods used in this context: Conversation Café, World Café, Sustained Dialogue, Citizens Choicework, etc.

foster individual and collective awareness; they underpin the development of common references (concepts, criteria, indicators, modes of action) on societal issues; they provide guidance for the choices that are made. In so doing they create knowledge which is shared by a wide variety of citizens and players who interact in different social roles and conditions. They help us to rethink the interrelations between public and private life, between individual and collective development, between private and collective goods. Lastly, they help objectify social potential in order to conceive and generate sustainable societal progress conducive to recognising each individual's input and creating new common heritages. For this reason, we prefer – in describing some of the initiatives – to use the term "elaborative processes", which makes explicit reference to the shared elaboration of indicators and action decisions.

This first part is divided into three chapters:

- the first discusses the wide range of experiments virtually everywhere throughout the world which are helping to create new references within human communities and to bring the question of harmonious coexistence back onto the agenda;
- in order to home in on the issues at stake in these experiments, Chapter 2 identifies their main differences and similarities;
- lastly, Chapter 3 sets out a general reference framework based on a summary of the points of convergence among the different approaches, so as to identify their possible link-up points and incorporate them into a broader process of redefining well-being and societal progress.

For the purposes of clarity and precision, it might at this point be useful to define the various forms of citizen participation in the various approaches to constructing a common project. Below is an interpretation which could serve as a possible reference framework for the rest of this guide. We shall make a distinction between four types of process: consultative, deliberative, participatory and elaborative.

A consultative process is the most traditional form of contact between the public authorities and representatives of the population or organised civil society for the purpose of approving, for example, a policy approach, the choice of forms of action or, where appropriate, of indicators. It meets the authorities' need to legitimise their action by broadening the discussion circles to all those who will be potentially affected by a given policy decision.

A deliberative process involves interaction between public authorities and citizens or interested parties to discuss the possible content of a given public policy. The difference between deliberation and consultation lies in the interactive aspect of the approach, whereby the final decision is the result of a collective agreement on the preferences expressed by participants. Where these processes are binding on citizens who are not personally involved in the issue under discussion, the deliberation is described as "cold" (Fung, 2003), in that the debate is held in isolation from the interests in question. Conversely, where the interested parties – who are fully familiar with the issue – are involved in the deliberative process, the deliberation is described as "hot", since specific interests vis-à-vis a given issue can be given prominence and a strong case for them can be made.

A participatory process involves commitment and responsibility on the part of participants in implementing the process.

An elaborative process involves elaborating a common reference framework (knowledge, indicators and action plan) consciously shared by citizens. This is necessarily a long-term process. The participants are involved in the different stages of consultation on and construction of points of reference, in a forward-looking approach geared to improving a given situation through a sharing of responsibilities, including vis-à-vis future generations.

Chapter 1 – A multitude of initiatives worldwide

There are many approaches being developed on all continents aimed at encouraging citizens to give fresh thought to well-being and progress criteria. Some have been initiated by the public authorities while others are conducted by citizens themselves and yet others by public-private partnerships.

These experimental approaches are designed to improve quality of life, to correct or renew existing public action, to integrate sustainable human development goals or to construct a shared vision of the future. Some initiatives are implemented via consultative or deliberative processes, others use elaborative processes based on interaction among individuals, creating new concepts, criteria, visions and modes of action. Such processes can transcend mere public policy assessment to seek out forms of responsibility and reconciliation between private life and public interest.

What do all these initiatives have in common? They seek to take account of citizens' involvement and, in this way, help redefine the customary reference and action frameworks. They bear witness to the need to generate within a community the criteria of harmonious coexistence. They also reflect the need to once more have a say in the choice of priorities, to construct or reconstruct spaces in which a reformulated collective expression can give rise to ideas, projects and solutions to today's questions and tomorrow's challenges. Not all these initiatives have reached the same stage of development. Some stem from a long process of maturation and learning, having taken various routes along the way. Today, they have proved their worth and are being reproduced within the same country or elsewhere in the world. Some are more experimental and have not yet been completed.

The contexts in which these experiments are carried out are also very diverse. The institutional and cultural environment, practices and customs specific to each location, and citizens' use of the public arena shape the perception held of current and future well-being. Accordingly, the initiatives being discussed here logically reflect the social situation and conceptions of public and political life in the various countries and reveal the different boundaries within which citizen involvement is legitimised; this is also reflected in the terminology used. North America, for instance, prefers the word "community" to the European term "citizen" because it better expresses the living environment and the feeling of belonging, regardless of origin or nationality. The term "community", particularly in the United States, refers to an entity which can take ownership of areas which Europeans consider as coming under government responsibility – especially with regard to the dysfunctioning of integration and social cohesion policies.

All of these many projects are anchored in a wide range of histories and geographical areas and, in their own way, prompt a re-examination of progress, a redefinition of collective needs and a reassessment of the relevance of the resources implemented. In short, they highlight the pressing need to adopt a critical approach and call on our capacity for innovation and collective intelligence. Thanks to their areas of complementarity, they help fuel a broader, more universal debate on the path to be taken by a society which is "losing its way" and the future of a planet unsure of where it is heading.

With a few exceptions, all these initiatives involve citizens from a diverse range of backgrounds (members of a community, inhabitants of an area, organised civil society, interested parties, researchers, experts, practitioners, volunteers, etc.) to a variable extent depending on the nature of the initiators and their projects. In this chapter, some examples have been mentioned even though they did not initially comprise any citizen involvement. Nonetheless, they attracted our attention because they provide interesting points, or tools, for developing a different vision of societal progress and should, sooner or later, find legitimacy among citizens.

1. Specific initiatives on well-being

We cannot claim that the list of initiatives is exhaustive, not only since we obviously do not know about all of them, but more importantly because this is not our aim. Our objective here is to back up our observations, reflections and analyses by reference to practices in different places, institutional settings and cultures. The selection which we have made of existing initiatives was based on the examples sent in by our partners, cited in the general presentation, who have co-operated with the Council of Europe in producing this guide. Most of these initiatives are presented in the sheets appearing in the appendix (see the CD-Rom), which provide information on the context, origin, methods, results and limits of each project.

We therefore invite our readers to accompany us on a journey across the world, an expedition through the collective, mutually supportive, creative and innovative imagination. In order to assist readers on this journey and help them derive maximum benefit, we shall specify the way in which each initiative contributes to an understanding of the links between participation and the concepts of well-being for all and progress.

1.1. Developing a shared vision of quality of life within living communities

Our journey begins in America, over 20 years ago.

In Jacksonville, Florida, the Quality of Life project and the Community Agenda Indicators project[11] (cf. sheet US1) were launched in 1985. These were two independent projects, the former organised by the Chamber of Commerce as part of its economic development remit, and the latter by the Community Council,[12] endeavouring to improve the quality of life of members of the community. Both projects sought out completely new information. The Chamber of Commerce took a particular interest in education, interracial relations, environmental quality, workforce capacities, opportunities for investment and infrastructures, while the Community Council dealt with the decisive factors in ensuring attractive quality of life for Jacksonville. It also sought to gauge the efforts and progress made in achieving the objectives set. These projects were the starting point for the first report on the quality of life progress indicators in Jacksonville. The indicators were selected by a group of volunteer citizens convened by the Community Council with financial support from the Chamber of Commerce. The individuals concerned were first asked to engage in a joint discussion on their own values, on the future shape of a shared vision of quality of life and on what could help forge a local identity. It was decided to choose only those indicators for which community action could help bring about an improvement. Indicators such as climate or spiritual well-being were excluded since, according to the promoters, these were aspects which were difficult to improve solely by community action. The indicators adopted were subdivided into nine fields: education; economy; natural environment; social well-being; the arts, leisure and culture; health; community involvement and governance; transport and mobility; and public safety.

Since 1985, the annual report has been revised by a new group of citizens, making the required changes to the set of indicators and presenting the final outcome to the community. The 2008 report contained over 100 indicators.

11. Community quality of life indicators are being increasingly used by political authorities and local government departments. They are a knowledge utility, a basis for planning, citizens' demands and action, and also a means of measuring results and assessing the efforts deployed and the progress made. They are result-oriented. For more detailed information on this type of indicator, see Swain and Hollar (2003).

12. A group of some 100 volunteers from the community representing its diversity in demographic and cultural terms and also as regards public and private interests. This group was set up as a non-profit association, bringing together operators from the business world, the humanitarian services, government, the arts, religious institutions, activists and members of other community organisations.

These indicators provide a picture of the current situation, as well as historical trends, helping fuel more in-depth discussions. They may also prompt the Community Council, leading to recommendations. For example, in 1984 the indicators revealed an abnormally high rate of teenage pregnancies; this prompted the Community Council to set up a citizens' group to discuss the problem and take action. Some 10 years later, this initiative had produced positive results: local indicators pointed to improvements in the situation.

Clearly, this experiment proved attractive. Geographical zoning of quality of life indicators in Jacksonville is a good illustration. The zoning has changed over time as the project has been revised and improved, more data have become available, and efforts have been made to enrich knowledge of other areas deemed to be of interest by the community. The highest level, in this case Duval County, has always been the starting point, before being extended to the sub-regions (subject to the availability of statistics). Lastly, it should be noted that the indicators have not been designed to compare the progress made by the different communities. They are there specifically to measure the efforts made by the community to achieve its goals.

Jacksonville's quality of life indicators report earned its credibility and legitimacy in the community thanks to the participation process (information activities requiring numerous working group meetings on various aspects of quality of life, prolonged meetings, consensus-based decisions, etc.). This participation was implemented by a high-level research team, attaching particular attention to that aspect. All these factors encouraged the community to work together and promoted the sharing, by the largest possible number, of a common responsibility, namely to improve short-term and long-term quality of life. The data provided by the change indicators were used as measurement criteria. These tangible improvements helped consolidate the community's confidence in the project's effectiveness.

In order to boost the political impact of the initiative, a long-term plan designed to be implemented over several years has been adopted. Its aim is to publicise the indicators as widely as possible and encourage their use by public and private organisations involved in local governance, either explicitly as criteria for measuring performance and funding allocation decisions, or implicitly as a means of providing information on action priorities.

At the same time, a method to revise and improve the indicators has been developed, based on the lessons learnt from experiments conducted in the communities. Some 10 years ago, objectives were laid down and linked to each indicator, enabling the community to assess the progress made in each area and to set priorities to achieve the objectives in question. These changes have helped improve the visibility and usefulness of the project. They have also led to a better understanding of the interrelations between the elements measured, which is crucial for understanding the conditions under which improvements to quality of life can be brought about.

The experience of community indicators in Jacksonville has inspired many other projects in North America and elsewhere.

1.2. Supporting community action and gauging changes secured in terms of quality of life

Continuing our journey to Santa Cruz, a wide-ranging Community Assessment project (cf. sheet US2) was launched in 1994 following a request submitted by the State of California to Santa Cruz county hospital for a survey of public health and its contribution to quality of life in the county. This request coincided with the

wish expressed by citizens' organisations for a report on quality of life in their community in order to assess current trends.

The project was devised and financed by the United Way of Santa Cruz County organisation,[13] which is responsible for promoting initiatives and proposing political and social changes in order to secure lasting improvements in the health and quality of life of the local population.

Project implementation was entrusted to the social research body Applied Survey Research (ASR),[14] which used the Results-Based Accountability (RBA) method,[15] a tried and tested one in the US, in order to bring about tangible improvements in community life, on the social and political fronts. To this end, from the outset it launched a project, bringing together over 25 organisations and more than 550 citizens, designed to measure and improve quality of life in Santa Cruz.

In such an approach, indicators are a working tool rather than an end in themselves. They are used at all stages in the process: to support knowledge, learning, action, assessment, etc. They also make it possible to ensure citizen involvement in producing a common definition of quality of life, observation and understanding of problems experienced, prioritising action and target goals as part of action plans. Lastly, they lead to an assessment of results and impact of changes, and can be disseminated in different formats and media.

Since its launch in Santa Cruz in 1994, the process has been established on a permanent footing. The representation of interested parties has been consolidated and the methodology further developed, resulting in ongoing improvement of citizen well-being in such fields as health, education, public safety and the social environment, particularly where various forms of marginalisation are concerned. The results have included a reduction in youth abuse of drugs, alcohol and tobacco, improved health care cover for undocumented immigrant children, reduced obesity, and increased provision of services and linkages between existing services for persons of no fixed abode.

Thanks to its success, the Santa Cruz project has been reproduced in a dozen different communities in the United States, tailored to the specific situations and the local goals set. In San Joaquin in California (cf. sheet US3), for instance, efforts have centred on improving medical care for expectant mothers during the first three months of pregnancy. In Anchorage, Alaska (cf. sheet US4), the focus has been more on young people particularly affected by problems of drugs, drink, violence and school drop-out, the project aim being to enable such youngsters to make constructive and positive choices in terms of both their schooling and their future lives. Other projects have been instigated by the US Federal Government and implemented in various communities, sometimes geared to reducing domestic violence and abuse of children (cf. sheet US5), and sometimes to gaining a better understanding of the problems and experiences of persons of no fixed abode and pinpointing the type of services they need (cf. sheet US6).

1.3. Broadening the debate on quality of life and well-being at national level

We shall now consider the situation in Canada and see how national quality of life and well-being indicators can help initiate and amplify a civic debate and collective commitment to hitherto unexplored societal issues.

13. An independent non-profit organisation made up of volunteers from the community, which receives funding from private and public donors, investing it in various bodies working in the field of health and social action. Its primary goal is to improve the lives of members of the community.

14. A non-profit organisation specialising in guidance for individuals and communities, with citizen participation.

15. See Friedman, 2005.

The idea of quality of life indicators (cf. sheet CA1) emerged at the end of the 1990s when, after 10 years of unstinting efforts to reduce and eliminate the federal government deficit, all involved were forced to admit that the efforts in question had resulted in a major social deficit. Policy makers and leaders in all sectors of society therefore realised that there was a need for a tool to help them understand the situation and provide the objective information required for implementing appropriate public action.

In 1999, alerted to this issue and supported by the Atkinson Foundation,[16] the Canadian Policy Research Networks (CPRN)[17] began creating an innovative set of national quality of life indicators. To this end, they began implementing a public participatory dialogue process (adapted from the Kettering Foundation model)[18] which encourages citizen participation and co-operation, both among themselves and with policy makers, in order to explore ideas, feelings and shared values, and paint a collective portrait of quality of life in Canada. It also encourages them to take informed decisions on problematic issues, establish priorities and, lastly, ensure that these opinions and values are reflected in the indicators and the relevant public policy decisions.

The CPRN has management committees made up of representatives of different governmental departments and private and public bodies from various backgrounds to assist it in its research work. The deliberative dialogues are based on theoretical reference frameworks, analysis of public opinion polls, and handbooks written for participants, and are led by moderators/facilitators and rapporteurs trained in the methodology of dialogue. Use is also made of specific, coherent dialogue protocols/agendas, exercises in training in establishing priorities and choices, and quantitative and qualitative analytical tools.

In autumn 2000, 350 Canadians who had been recruited by means of hybrid, random and targeted sampling methods[19] took part in 40 different dialogue groups in 21 municipalities scattered across the country, looking at what they felt to be the most important aspects of quality of life in Canada. Experts helped them identify and select indicators for each topic. The results of these dialogues led to the production of national prototype quality of life indicators comprising 42 indicators broken down into nine themes.[20] The final outcome was published in September 2002 under the title "Quality of life in Canada: a citizens' report card".[21] Drawing on a wide range of objective and subjective data, this bulletin classified Canadians in terms of the progression over the previous 10 years vis-à-vis each of the 42 quality of life indicators identified during the dialogue process.

The draft indicators created on the basis of direct citizen participation was an unprecedented pioneering initiative in Canada,[22] which gave rise to further experiments. These included "Vital Signs",[23] which paints an annual portrait of the vitality of towns and cities nationwide, pinpoints the major trends and assesses at least 10 decisive sectors for quality of life, on the basis of indicators. In Quebec, the Vibrant Communities project fosters exchanges of knowledge between and within communities in order to promote local action against poverty.

16. See www.atkinsonfoundation.ca.

17. An independent Canadian group of experts on social and economic policy specialising in large-scale deliberative dialogue methods with citizens and in public participation initiatives launched by various governments and private non-profit bodies. Website: www.cprn.org/index.cfm?l=en.

18. The foundation's programmes are geared to encouraging North American citizens to become more politically committed to the future of their communities and their country and reconnect with public affairs.

19. Geared to including groups difficult to reach out to such as ethnic minorities, single mothers, persons of no fixed abode, etc.

20. The nine themes were: democratic rights and participation; health; education/learning; environment; social programmes and conditions; the community; personal well-being; economy and employment; and government.

21. www.cprn.org/doc.cfm?doc=44&l=en.

22. As a general rule, research projects in this field are based more on consulting interested parties from civil society by means of sample groups, round tables and specialist panels, with citizen participation.

23. www.signesvitauxcanada.ca/index-e.cfm.

Another pan-Canadian project is the Canadian Index of Well-Being (CIW)[24] (cf. sheet CA2), an initiative once again directed by the Atkinson Foundation and funded by several independent non-profit organisations. The aim of the project is to devise a composite measurement of Canadian well-being on the basis of 64 indicators broken down into eight associated fields: healthy populations; living standards; community vitality; time use; democratic engagement; education; environmental health; arts, culture and recreation. The index was launched in 2009. It will be regularly updated in accordance with a systematised, standardised and comparable procedure, as requested by the Canadian population.

This index is rooted in Canadian values,[25] based on citizen experience[26] and formulated via the technical expertise, which is recognised at national and international level, of indicator experts and practitioners from academic, government and community circles.

Its development requires considerable financial, human, methodological and logistical resources in order to control the whole process, which includes consulting sample groups, round tables attended by representatives of government, private enterprises, the media, local and national non-governmental organisations (NGOs), stakeholders at local level, etc., interviews with opinion leaders, and various workshops to ascertain progress in the work and discuss choices and questions arising.

This composite well-being index is a catalyst for debating and taking into account questions which have never been addressed before or have only been touched on. It is designed to be reproduced under specific conditions.[27]

1.4. Backing up long-term community action plans with citizens

Our next port of call is Australia, a federation of six self-governing states. Since the early 1990s, Australia has been experiencing a sharp increase in activity in the field of community indicators, in both the federate states and the territories, with the State of Victoria emerging as a clear leader in the field. Several of these projects operate from the angle of sustainable local well-being, including environmental, cultural and socio-economic dimensions. They are formulated in such a way as to support long-term community action plans, in the design and implementation of which citizens and communities are actively involved, usually via their representative organisations.

One of the many projects being developed, Tasmania Together (cf. sheet AU1), is an action plan which is geared to improving the life and well-being of Tasmanian communities and inhabitants by the year 2020. It is being used by policy makers, non-governmental organisations, partner organisations, researchers, students and citizens involved to bring about positive changes in the community.

The project was launched in 1999 by the Tasmanian Premier, the former Labour Party leader. Several concerns prompted him to take this initiative: citizen satisfaction with service provision, taking account of citizens' comments and criticisms, and their active participation in constructing the state's environmental, economic and social future. In short, therefore, this project has a strong political aim.

It is based on formal and informal territory-wide consultations organised by a group of leaders representing the whole community, including those who often feel excluded, in order to ascertain citizens' views on their

24. www.ciw.ca/en/AboutTheCIWNetwork/History.aspx.

25. Fairness, diversity, equity, inclusion, health, safety, economic security, democracy and sustainability.

26. Tried and tested under the Quality of Life Indicators project, and based on broad community dialogue and direct citizen participation.

27. See www.ciw.ca.

lives, hopes for the future and their expectations and priorities vis-à-vis the action plan. All the information collected is recorded and translated into indicators, to which target goals are assigned, subject to dual validation by citizens and parliament before incorporation into the plan. The first plan began in 2001. It comprised 24 goals and 212 benchmarks which were designed in accordance with available (objective and subjective) data and which were updatable in order to guarantee regular follow-up to the indicators, measure the progress made and compare them with those in other territories.

All the consultation processes are repeated for every revision of the benchmarks or the plan itself (every five years).

In Victoria, the Community Indicators Victoria (CIV) project (cf. sheet AU2) was launched in 2006-07 and co-ordinated by the McCaughey Centre and Melbourne University, in partnership with a number of governmental and non-governmental institutions, including the Australian Bureau of Statistics and two other universities. It takes the form of a co-operation programme assisting local authorities and their communities in developing and measuring community well-being and improving local information and basic statistics, planning and implementing policies, while reinforcing citizen and community involvement throughout the process. It generates an integrated system of indicators drawn up from data compiled from administrative files, surveys and censuses. In 2007, a telephone survey of 24 000 adults (300 from each local community) complemented the missing data on the activities implemented and their effectiveness, and on citizen access to the various services (health, transport, etc.), cultural participation, citizen commitment, the ratio of private to working life, subjective well-being, etc. This survey was specifically designed to guarantee consistency and comparability with existing data and repeatability. The main advantage of the project is the quality and efficiency of its communication and dissemination facilities: the information, which is regularly updated, is readily accessible on the Internet and linked up to the local projects.

In Port Phillip, the Community Pulse project (cf. sheet AU3) is fairly similar to the above-mentioned experiments, but what distinguishes it from the rest is its mode of data collection. In this project the whole community – residents, community groups, volunteer networks and primary schools, etc. – is asked to gather information. This has the effect of not only increasing the quantity and scope of the data collected but also encouraging community support for and involvement in the project. The data collected are not intended to be stored, and must not be too technical or scientific, the main requirement being accessibility to all. This means that rather than being set out in annual reports, they are fed back to the members of the community, the ones most directly concerned, using all the available media in order to ensure information transmission, such as circulars, statements, council newsletters, the local media, street billboards, bus shelter adverts, postcards, works by street artists, etc.

The indicators are geared to highlighting the different aspects of community well-being, for example the level of participation and voluntary work, the preservation of endogenous plants and animals, local symbols and characteristics, the number of smiling faces registered per hour, etc.

Citizen participation is encouraged here by local government, so much so that it is included in the governmental commitment to develop participatory democracy and encourage community debate.

The project promoters acknowledge that the project cannot provide solutions to all the community's problems, but they do feel that it helps prompt debate and intelligent discussions and stirs people to action.

In the rural community of Mildura, the Community Engagement Framework project (cf. sheet AU4) is designed to create and reinforce social cohesion within the community. It is specifically aimed at supporting deprived communities and excluded citizens, listening to those who are generally unheard and recognising

potential differences within the community. In so doing, the project simultaneously endeavours to combat exclusion and encourage inclusion.

The indicators play a vital role in launching consultation and dialogue with higher governmental levels: they highlight local conditions and outstanding problems, as well as the community's capacities which need to be strengthened if the shared aims are to be achieved.

Another recent project has been run by six local councils in the west of the Melbourne metropolis (cf. sheet AU5), where there is major cultural and linguistic diversity owing to the massive presence of first- and second-generation immigrant communities. The project is part of the four-year health and well-being plan drawn up by each local authority in Victoria. It provides an opportunity for these local authorities to take stock together of the health and well-being situation in a multicultural context.

1.5. Correcting the restrictive GDP-based vision of progress

Our journey now continues in various other parts of the world where much thought is being given to devising new wealth indicators replacing or complementing gross domestic product (GDP).

In France, for instance, a number of experiments have highlighted some interesting similarities between two different types of concerns: first, a substantive discussion on the subjects of wealth and progress and, more generally, the concept of societal value, and, second, the need for local communities and authorities to tackle what really matters to citizens, namely their present and future daily living conditions. In this connection, productive and lasting co-operation processes are being set up involving universities, associations and public administrations. Some are working on pinpointing the inadequacies of GDP, its propensity for obscuring what genuinely constitutes a society's wealth and its responsibility for the truncated vision of societal progress based on economic growth and over-accumulation of material goods. Others are particularly concerned with the disastrous effects of this vision, particularly as regards the increasingly obvious and alarming damage to the environment, and are developing appropriate action and assessment strategies. Both together are prompting and fuelling citizen debates about these vital issues, which includes validating indicators and assessment processes.[28]

A Barometer of Inequalities and Poverty (cf. sheet FR1) (Bip 40) has been set up at national level in consultation with the action group Réseau d'Alerte sur les Inégalités (RAI). This barometer promotes citizen values in particular by its choice of variables and respective weightings for six major dimensions (health, housing, education, justice, work and employment, and income). The results obtained and the comparative analysis between the latter and trends in poverty and inequalities on the basis of conventional indicators (rate of financial poverty and inter-decile ratio) were put forward for discussion in order to keep citizens informed about the use of the indicators not only in assessments but also for public policy objectives.

In Nord-Pas-de-Calais, a regional version of Bip 40 has been implemented with the support of thematic working groups made up of representatives of the Nord-Pas-de-Calais Regional Council (from the Directorate

28. Just after the Second World War, the debate on well-being, particularly measuring well-being, focused on developments in the emerging national accounting systems. The latter calculated gross domestic product per inhabitant (GDP/inhabitant), which provided a means of assessing what was, at the time, deemed to constitute individual well-being, that is, the income available to meet individual needs, and collective well-being, namely, the sum of these available funds and the resultant satisfaction. During the 1970s, this paradigm came under challenge, highlighting the paradox that growth in GDP/inhabitant did not go hand in hand with any substantial increase in well-being. Moreover, it masked the growing inequalities within so-called wealthy societies. There was increasing criticism that income represented only one aspect of well-being and that individual well-being was only a fragmentary version of the collective well-being. This was enough to set off a series of attempts to propose other indicators to replace or complement GDP and to "correct" the biased vision proposed by the latter. This is still "work in progress", and the search for new indicators of wealth continues to be a topical issue. In this connection, see Gadrey and Jany-Catrice, 2005.

of Sustainable Development, Forward Studies and Evaluation), academics, representatives of civil society and data-producing and disseminating organisations. Continuing on from this work on the basis of the working group discussions, a consolidated social health indicator has been calculated (cf. sheet FR2) comprising a simplified version of the Bip 40 dimensions, adding two dimensions relating to community and inter-personal relationships.

In Asia, Japan has also highlighted the gap which has been widening since the 1980s between growth in GDP/inhabitant and other indicators such as the UNDP HDI (United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Index), the Genuine Progress Indicator[29] (GPI as opposed to GDP) developed by the Californian Redefining Progress Institute, and the rate of life satisfaction, which is calculated on the basis of satisfaction surveys in Japan.

In this connection, a number of local authorities are trying out new approaches to community development, particularly by encouraging citizen participation in defining and implementing the social design for their own community and devising their own indicators.

Arakawa Ward in the north of Tokyo has been promoting resident "happiness" as its main policy goal (cf. sheet JA1). Concurrently, realising the need for quantitative measurements to assess the performance of action to support or reinforce resident well-being, the local authority has incorporated into its programme the development of a happiness indicator known as Gross Arakawa Happiness (GAH) with explicit reference to the indicator selected by Bhutan to measure development, namely Gross National Happiness (GNH).[30]

During the 2004 elections for the new Mayor of Arakawa (population 200 000), the municipality announced an innovative move to steer local government towards the goal of improving the population's well-being. This vision of development will now guide policies over the next 20 years. Adapting Bhutan's Gross National Happiness to create Gross Arakawa Happiness (GAH) has meant creating new indicators. The work on the set of indicators required for calculating GAH has not yet been completed. A 2007 survey enabled the authorities to take stock of the situation. Further regular surveys will help measure the progress made.

1.6. Gearing the concepts of well-being and progress to a sustainable human development goal

Returning to the French region of Nord-Pas-de-Calais, the Regional Council, in an attempt to measure the progress of its sustainable development policy within its area, has co-operated with a research laboratory at the University of Lille (Centre lillois d'Etudes et de Recherches sociologiques et économiques – CLERSE) in producing the Indicateurs 21 project (cf. sheet FR3). This project is based on three main areas of work: the Regional Sustainable Development strategy; the Regional Planning and Development programme; and the regional Agenda 21. It is a four-tiered project: the first tier involves the conventional general indicators for regional development, the second the regional sustainable development indicators, the third the regionalised

29. The Genuine Progress Indicator was developed by H. Daly and C. Cogg at the Californian Redefining Progress Institute. This indicator incorporates the GDP computing bases with the additional value of voluntary and household work, although it subtracts the costs arising from insecurity, "reparations" (following accidents or thefts, for instance), pollution, exhaustion of resources or break-up of families. The degree of inequality in the distribution of wealth and the level of state debt are also taken into account: www.rprogress.org.

30. Since the 1970s, Bhutan, a small Himalayan country located between India and China, has been holding an in-depth debate on the well-being and happiness of its population, so much so that it has replaced the concept, and calculation, of gross national product (GNP), with that of Gross National Happiness (GNH). GNH has four pillars: promoting equity and sustainable socio-economic development; conserving and promoting Bhutanese cultural values; protecting the natural environment; and establishing good, responsible governance. These pillars have been operationalised in seven different fields: economic well-being; environmental well-being; physical well-being; mental well-being; occupational well-being; social well-being; and political well-being.

"Lisbon-Göteborg" indicators,[31] and the fourth the consolidated sustainable human development indicators, which include the ecological footprint, the main regionalised UNDP human development indicators (HDI, HPI (Human Poverty Index) and GEM (Gender Empowerment Measure)), the local or regional barometer of inequalities and poverty and the Social Health Indicator. These indicators are used as awareness-raising and information tools to fuel the public debate on policy choices for developing the region (transport, housing, education, etc.), as formalised in citizen conferences on these issues.

The experience accumulated in Nord-Pas-de-Calais has been put to good use under an international project with the State of Acre in Brazil (cf. sheet BR1). A small Amazonian territory located along the Peruvian and Bolivian borders, Acre has launched its new sustainable well-being indicators in Amazonia, supported by the France-Libertés Foundation[32] and conducted in co-operation with a research team from the University of Lille 1 and the Nord-Pas-de-Calais region.

The project is set in the specific historical and political context of this small state, which was transferred to Brazil in 1903 and constituted as a full Brazilian state in 1962. Since the advent of the first people's government in 1996, the authorities have taken action to preserve the "living forest" and create a sustainable economy by supporting small local producers, pursuing a threefold objective: "living in the forest", by rehabilitating indigenous populations; "living off the forest", by developing a forest-based economy (Brazil nuts, rubber, plants, etc.); and "living with the forest" by ensuring that farming respects the forest. This development project is based on the local communities and a strategy of familiarisation with the territory.

Nevertheless, where the UN human development indicators are concerned, the very poor scores achieved by Acre fail to reflect the current progress and well-being in the population because they are based on monetary criteria, income levels and standardised norms for assessing public access to health care and adequate housing. In Acre, such criteria are meaningless because most of the interpersonal exchanges that occur are excluded from the national accounting system, health care often involves traditional medicine using plant remedies, and the wooden dwellings, which are ideal for the climate, are built on stilts.

This points to the need, which has been acknowledged by the State of Acre, to redefine the concept of wealth in order to highlight the invisible riches of their territory. The new indicator emerging from this approach has an extra environmental dimension: soil quality, water reserves, preservation of biodiversity, CO_2 emissions, etc. have been taken into account alongside more traditional criteria such as income, health, education and transmission of knowledge, and housing. Validation by the population takes place by consulting the different social groups in order to ensure that it really reflects their conception of well-being.

Alongside these efforts, the government has undertaken to place greater emphasis on forestry production (latex, fruit, plants and essences for cosmetics, pharmacology, etc.) in order to improve local people's income, ensuring their sustainability via resource renewal-oriented exploitation.

In Belgium, the Flemish Government, in pursuance of its urban policy, has since 2001 been co-operating with Ghent University Sustainable Development Centre in devising a participatory method for measuring the progress made in the 13 largest towns and cities in the region, using the relevant public policy indicators. The *Stadsmonitor voor leefbare en duurzame vlaamse steden* – the urban monitor for liveable and sustainable Flemish towns and cities – (cf. sheet BE1) sets out a list of over 200 indicators, which are regularly updated, on mul-

31. For further information on the Lisbon-Göteborg indicators, see www.nordregio.se/?vis=artikkel&fid=8680&id=1111200910031214580. Information (in French only) on the indicators used by the Nord-Pas-de-Calais region can be found in: www.insee.fr/fr/themes/document.asp?reg_id=19&ref_id=13927.

32. See www.france-libertes.org.

tiple themes relating to societal progress in cities, facilitating a comparison of the towns and cities, indicator by indicator or theme by theme, and spotlighting general trends. The results, which are comprehensible and accessible to all, are being widely published and disseminated. Two factors play a central role in this process: first, all urban monitor indicators are based on a vision of urban progress which the local players are interested in pursuing by means of municipal public policies; and second, this vision and the related indicators have been elaborated in consultation with hundreds of experts from the 13 urban centres, the Flemish administration, civil society and academic circles.

These experiments initially lacked a strong participatory dimension: it was up to the experts to challenge the conventional indicators and devise new ones. However, very quickly this preliminary phase revealed the need for the work on indicators to be based on citizen debate and participatory joint development in order both to validate this work and to give it meaning and legitimacy.

1.7. Restoring the significance of harmonious coexistence with community involvement

Moving back to Japan, the Wealthy Land project (cf. sheet JA2), which is being implemented in the small town of Date (population 38 000) on Hokkaido island, was designed to meet the emerging needs of elderly people seeking a haven of improved well-being. It comprises three strands: the first consists of fostering a pleasant environment for the elderly by encouraging new industries to provide services and goods tailored to this group; the second encourages mobility for elderly persons from outside the town in order to improve their living environment; and the third creates job opportunities for young people in these new industries.

The municipality of Minamata (Kyushu) was forced to choose between income and wealth on the one hand and its citizens' dignity on the other. In 1956, the town was hit by an unusual disease caused by the accumulation of organic mercury in fish and crustaceans owing to acetaldehyde dumping from the Chisso chemical plant. Up until the 1970s, Chisso had occupied 68% of the urban area, consumed 30% of the town's water resources, employed 19% of the workforce and commissioned 66% of local maritime transport activity. A conflict arose between Chisso and the victims of the industry, exacerbated by the stigmatisation of the Minamata population because of the contagious nature of the disease. For a long time, the public authorities simply ignored the victims and provided no assistance, as Chisso sought to hush up the affair. It was not until 1988 that the Supreme Court finally declared them liable. In 1994, a new mayor made a speech at a ceremony attended by the Director of the Environmental Agency and the governor, in which he proposed attempting to settle the conflict through dialogue in the local community. In 1995, the socialist prime minister, Tomiichi Murayama, offered the government's apologies and a political solution was found which involved developing a future vision based on partnership between government and citizens, and implementing a mechanism for restoring the population's capacity to decide on their own future in accordance with the Proximity Study method. This empirical method encourages inhabitants to identify what they are and what they have, by comparing past wisdom with their own ideas in order to shed light on action for future progress. In 1996, the question of compensation for victims was officially settled. In September 2001, a law for the creation of an active village was passed, based on the following three approaches: creating a refined image/appearance and active scenario; ensuring interaction among villages and different visions; and creating a village enriched with harmonious relations between monetary, co-operative and self-sufficient types of economy. A process of renewal targeting sustainability and well-being has been under way ever since.[33]

33. The documents analysing the Minamata experiment were supplied by Takayoshi Kusago (tkusago@zar.att.ne.jp and tkusago@gmail.com).

1.8. Changing the political decision makers' social and environmental priorities

Let us now head for Rome, where the Sbilanciamoci project (cf. sheet IT1), which developed from the campaign launched in 1999 by 47 voluntary organisations[34] working for an economy based on justice and a new development model based on rights, respect for the environment and peace, is advocating radically different policy priorities (particularly in budgetary terms), changing the use of public resources and creating a new role for public operators in the economy in order to refocus political decisions and choices towards human dignity, solidarity and environmental protection. In so doing, Sbilanciamoci is advocating a "future-proof" Italy.

Since 2002, Sbilanciamoci has been calculating a composite regional development quality indicator (Qualità Regionale dello Sviluppo – QUARS), which was devised under a consultative and participatory process. This composite indicator is geared to identifying and linking up the components of development quality in the Italian regions on the basis of 41 indicators spread over seven categories: environmental sustainability, economy, law, health, education, equal opportunities and participation. These categories have corresponding macro-indicators which were devised by combining 41 different variables. QUARS is the average of the seven macro-indicators, each equally weighted. The interesting aspect is that the most innovative "variables" are calculated by the organisations themselves and combined with the variables calculated by the Italian Statistical Institute (ISTAT). For instance, the "economy and labour" macro-indicator comprises four variables, three of which are calculated by ISTAT (unemployment, inequality and relative poverty), while the fourth (insecurity) is calculated by Sbilanciamoci.

This indicator, which was revised in 2006, is being used to make politicians aware of alternative indicators to the conventional economic ones, and also to establish and guide action priorities, in particular with regard to the way budgets are allocated. It has been acknowledged by the political authorities and attracted considerable media attention. The latest Sbilanciamoci report, published in 2008 under the title "How we live in Italy", presents an analytical summary of the position of each Italian region in terms of the QUARS indicator and discusses the need to measure economic and social well-being in the regions on the basis of indicators corresponding to a model radically different from that currently used. The report also claims that development is increasingly bottom-up thanks to the new modes of community and participatory democracy, enhancing local resources and energies in order to promote a high-quality sustainable development model. Measuring the economy on the basis of quality rather than quantity involves using different indicators from the traditional ones.

Moving across to Bogotá, in Colombia, the project Bogotá Cómo Vamos (cf. sheet CO1) was launched in the city in 1998, at the initiative of the community at large supported by three organisations, the Chamber of Commerce, the El Tiempo publishers and the Corona private foundation.[35] The project endeavours systematically to assess the quality of life of the urban population on the basis of access to the goods and services which the inhabitants deem necessary for their social and personal development in the fields of education, health, security, mobility, economic development, environment, public services, housing, the public environment, public administration, civic responsibility, action against poverty, equity and public finances. The aim, in other words, is to assess local governance in the light of the resources deployed to meet public needs, and to validate and reinforce democracy and democratic instruments, particularly the programme-based vote and implementation of each department's development strategy.

34. See www.sbilanciamoci.org.

35. Corona is a private non-profit foundation which supports and funds initiatives geared to reinforcing the country's institutional capacity in such sectors as education, health, entrepreneurial development and local community development. See www.fundacioncorona.org.co.

The approach is based on the following main lines: responsible citizen participation in the processes of discussing, implementing and assessing public management; promoting information and networking; and supporting effective, transparent governance.

In practice, the assessment process is based on two types of indicators making it possible to monitor the impact of key projects and the problems experienced by the population. The first type comprises "result indicators", which are regularly updated and provide information on practical results obtained and the impact of action plans in terms of cover and quality of services provided. They target all government departments, helping them assess their contribution to the general situation. The second category covers "perception indicators", or subjective indicators, which are based on annual opinion polls highlighting the changing public perception of access to and quality of the goods and services provided, their successes and problems. In addition to these indicators, sectoral analyses are regularly conducted on other issues which are deemed relevant. These involve experts and citizens participating in round tables, workshops and forums. All the information collected is published in reports and other publications which are widely disseminated by the media (radio, TV, press, etc.). The annual assessment is presented to the general public, the mayor and the government and administrative departments.

The whole activity improves the citizens', policy makers' and administrative departments' knowledge of the city and its problems, leading to improved planning and action strategies accompanied by measurable objectives. This approach, which has been adopted as a reference by both researchers and politicians thanks to its credibility and methodology, has been reproduced in other towns and cities in Colombia and other Latin American countries (Peru and Brazil).

1.9. Incorporating concern for future generations

Some 5 000 kilometres north of Bogotá, in the United States, the conurbation of Kansas City is constantly expanding towards the periphery, where more and more dormitory suburbs are growing up, leaving the city centre to a concentration of poor minorities. This is causing social problems owing to the impoverishment of the city centre and environmental problems linked to increasing pollution from the ever-growing road network. How could increasing wealth ever be conceivable in such a context?

The project Metro Outlook: Measuring the Progress of Metropolitan Kansas City (cf. sheet US7) was developed in response to this vital question, in order to help policy makers find effective means of bringing about significant change in the metropolitan spatial planning systems.

The innovative aspect of the project lies in its vision of progress and its conception of wealth, which also covers social and natural riches. The increase in wealth is simultaneously made subordinate to increasing quality of life for both present and future generations.

Some aspects of the indicators for Metro Outlook differ from those used in the projects described above. First of all, the main aim of the exercise is to gain a proper understanding of what quality of life currently represents for the citizens, taking account of the needs of future generations. This perception is then transposed into indicators highlighting the interconnection between present and future. Second, the project primarily meets a need for information rather than the result of any public or private political initiative. Implementation is overseen by a social science research team. Citizen participation occurs further down the process, when its results are communicated and discussed. However, the complexity of the model and the wide variety of indicators make them difficult for elected representatives and policy makers to use.

Moving back to Belgium, a four-year research project was launched in 2006, as part of the federal scientific policy under the Science for Sustainable Development programme, entitled Developing Theoretically and Democratically Justified Indicators for Well-Being in Belgium (WELLBEBE) (cf. sheet BE2). This project involves co-operation by two university centres, co-ordinated by the Sustainable Development Institute. In this experiment, participatory reflection on well-being is a prerequisite for the lifestyle changes that are needed for sustainable development. In order to achieve a democratic transition to such sustainable development, it is necessary to ascertain the main conceptions of well-being shared by the population and the criteria which they use to gauge the state of society. However, new indicators are needed to assess social progress whenever the contribution of economic growth to well-being is being discussed and this project is geared to developing such indicators, which must be scientifically coherent, democratically legitimate and tailored to defining and assessing sustainable development policies.

Involving citizens in enhancing the local heritage and defining participation and progress

In Italy, citizen participation is well established in many regions, initiated by local activists in the field and politicians involved in new modes of governance seeking to promote a more democratic and sustainable mode of development of their territory.

For example, the Rete del Nuovo Municipio association[36] was founded in 2001 by Alberto Magnaghi, an academic and an active grass-roots politician, who promoted a national research programme to give prominence to the local heritage in a number of Italian regions. He also drafted the "Charter for the new municipality", which was presented in Porto Alegre in 2002 and subsequently at the European Social Forum in Florence. The association has constantly expanded and innovated since, in particular through its contribution to the Tuscan "law on participation", which was the result of a civic debate on the subject.[37]

The association embraces municipalities, regions, civil society associations, groups, individuals, academic representatives, etc.

Awareness-raising and lobbying campaigns are organised to support and give political impetus to the local sustainable development project promoted by Alberto Magnaghi,[38] which is intended to enable the various interests involved to help promote the enhancement and social appropriation of the local heritage, as a common asset. From this angle, local government can be a driving force for change; it must use its communication facilities, policies and action to foster awareness of places and the affirmation of styles of development based on recognition of its specific sociocultural features, enhancement of local resources and networks of non-hierarchical, cohesive exchanges between local societies so that the latter can forge constructive links with the networks within overall society.

Choosing indicators by means of effective citizen participation is a key component of the process, facilitating consolidation of the cultural and technical capacity for comprehending dynamic complexity and taking action, democratic legitimisation of complex actions, and creation of meaningfulness. The local population are asked to identify the components of well-being present in the landscape, architecture, etc. around them. This process of reappropriating "common assets" is geared to coming up with endogenous proposals for societal progress.

The Rete del Nuovo Municipio has in this way provided a national policy reference framework for innovatory and creative experiments in democratic participation. Some were already being conducted in the 1990s, such

36. See www.nuovomunicipio.org.

37. See www.regione.toscana.it/regione/multimedia/RT/documents/1210079040449_scheda_illustrativa_inglese.pdf.

38. See Magnaghi, 2003.

as the schemes implemented in 1994 by the mayor of the town of Grottamare in Ascoli Piceno Province (cf. sheet IT2), to combat the negative effects of relocating a great deal of the shoe-making industry, for which the region was well known. This relocation had given rise to an erosion of social cohesion and increasing distrust among the population vis-à-vis public institutions and politics in general. It was against this background of crisis that the participatory experiments were developed in order to restore the conditions for active citizen involvement in the political decision-making process, particularly with regard to use of the public budget.

The practical application of this was that the town was subdivided into six sectors or districts, each of which had its own assembly, responsible for identifying the citizens' main priorities. Citizens would subsequently submit their findings to the municipal council and sit down with the latter to plan budget policies. They were also given the task of monitoring implementation of the projects and assessing the results.

As regards results, the action helped define the citizens' real needs and substantially increase their participation in the policy-making process. Beyond this, it had very positive effects on public well-being, the economy, tourism and the provision of social services.

Having achieved such success, the method was transferred from the local to the provincial level in 2004 by means of "listening campaigns" involving some 50 encounters in the province's 73 municipalities, at which participants were able to voice their opinions, their main concerns and wishes. It also enabled the provincial administration to develop an efficient method of information collection so as to devise the required policies to provide a practical response to citizens' requests. Other participatory methods have also been developed (for example, participatory planning forums), based on four mainstays: setting up new spontaneous social networks, supported by informal networks and based on reciprocity rather than competition, in order to combat social fragmentation; formulating new public policies to meet increasing demands from civil society in various sectors (culture, local economy, urban planning, environmental quality and security); developing a new approach to governance based on interaction among the different players, with the public authorities acting as mediator; and ensuring that local and regional planning is based on this new approach to governance involving the active participation of all the relevant players.

Other innovative projects have also been initiated in Ascoli Piceno Province, centring on two themes, "Knowledge Province" and "Quality Province". The former concerns projects in the cultural sphere (cultural activities, exhibitions, promotion of specific educational programmes, etc.), while the latter is designed to improve people's quality of life, the environment and tourist development by means of projects based on rural development, promoting multifunctional agriculture, renewable energies, organic and local produce, bio-tourism, new forms of mobility, etc. Other projects are geared to promoting, re-qualifying and preserving the landscape, which is regarded as an important element in public well-being, via creative joint planning processes inspired by the guidelines set out in the European Landscape Convention (Council of Europe, ETS No. 176).[39]

These innovative mechanisms have been deemed necessary for restoring a "political community" in the public sphere, eliciting synergies capable of supporting and developing shared initiatives and projects, as well as establishing a "non-material infrastructure", conceived as a vision shared by all the players and enabling them to promote and direct their decisions.

By redefining spatial planning and giving it a central role in the processes of governance, these new participatory methods have laid the foundations for a mode of local development primarily based on the identity and needs of the local population. They have shown that dialogue between local authorities, the private sector,

39. www.coe.int/t/dg4/cultureheritage/heritage/landscape/default_EN.asp?

citizens' associations, etc. can promote social cohesion together with the sustainable economic development of the province.

These experiments have led to the setting up of local and provincial "democratic participation bureaus", the function of which is to ascertain and clearly define citizens' needs, draw up and assess the participation processes, define the provincial economic development strategies, and develop new local action strategies to promote public well-being and transfer them to other municipalities.

Our journey around Italy brings us to "citizens' panels". A whole series of experiments were conducted in Emilia Romagna[40] and Piedmont, in Turin, Alessandria and Vercelli in 2006 and 2007.[41] Instigated by Turin University and supported by various researchers, the experiments were geared to developing a strategy to reduce road traffic pollution. The three assemblies adopted the same approach, bringing together some 20 participants for two days of debate. An organising committee was set up for each jury, representing all the players involved for each urban area, guaranteeing the effective organisation and management of the whole process. Policy decisions were taken on the basis of evolving public preferences with regard to traffic organisation.[42]

Let us head north now, to the Sörmland region in Sweden,[43] where the authorities are intent on speeding up application of the European Union's Lisbon Strategy at local level by developing their own strategy based on a bottom-up participatory model. In this process, the municipalities and county councils are invited to identify their own challenges and formulate their own indicators, specifying the target goals to be achieved. All these indicators are summarised under common objectives which help control and guarantee positive growth and planning of activities, while ensuring that the latter are as far as possible based on action that is already being taken by the partners at local level.

What makes this initiative of particular interest is its bottom-up structure, reversing the conventional institutional procedure by starting off from the local level, whereby the municipalities are responsible for implementing the action plans. This level is the best placed to identify problems and influence the challenges to be taken up, with the process subsequently moving up to the regional, national and European levels.

Project development is based on co-operation between Sörmland Regional Council and a range of partners such as the political representatives of the municipalities, counties, the region, the country and Europe, the Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional Growth, the Swedish Environmental Protection Agency, etc.

The project's success and legitimacy stem from the appropriation of the process by the politicians and the link-ups with existing development processes.

Experiments are also emerging in Russia to promote the well-being of communities, particularly at the initiative of the Sustainable Development Fund (SDF).[44] The SDF is an independent, non-profit, non-governmental foundation which was set up in April 2005 and is supported financially and technically by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The role of this fund is to assist with projects in municipalities nationwide to support the development of socially responsible communities by adopting environmental solutions.

40. See Giannetti and Lewanski, 2006.

41. See Chiari, 2008.

42. Ibid., pp. 8-10.

43. www.region.sormland.se.

44. http://fund-sd.ru/english.

By exchanging knowledge and expertise in the context of international co-operation processes, the foundation has accumulated solid experience in the field of intra-community and inter-regional co-operation, as well as in energy efficiency technologies and management of natural resources. This is helping to develop projects enhancing citizen participation in protecting their socio-environmental interests, the development of schemes involving local community participation and encouraging youth involvement in social well-being.

The priority goals of the action programme are involving citizens at local level in defining needs and tackling local problems via subsidies targeting energy efficiency, developing the local economy, waste management, public health, developing small enterprises, social welfare and managing natural resources, devising and introducing energy-saving tools and mechanisms to help communities reinvest the resources thus saved in development programmes, involving all interested parties in identifying community development priorities, training community leaders, government representatives and company directors in incorporating community needs more effectively in the collective action taken, and widely disseminating best practice in terms of community development.

2. Using local approaches for an interactive approach to drawing up indicators with citizens: the process initiated by the Council of Europe

The majority of initiatives outlined in our overview of what is taking place in various parts of the world use already existing indicators, identified and selected in conjunction with citizens and within communities.

Taking account of the results of the initiatives examined, the Council of Europe has instigated a process geared to giving a democratic dimension to the development of indicators for progress in well-being with citizens and communities.

The Council of Europe is an intergovernmental institution with 47 member states throughout Europe. Set up after the Second World War, its role is to promote human rights, democracy and the rule of law, three fundamental values shared by all its member states. In the late 1990s, faced with rising unemployment, exclusion and poverty, the Council established social cohesion as an additional priority, defining it as society's capacity to ensure the well-being of all.[45] Social cohesion thus becomes an expression of the responsibility of all society's stakeholders, including the public authorities, socio-economic operators and citizens.

In the early 2000s, drawing on its Strategy for Social Cohesion, the Council of Europe advocated the idea of the concerted development of indicators inherent in this concept. It produced a methodological guide (Council of Europe, 2005) – proposing experimental testing at various levels – laying the foundations for these indicators. Its application has since been refined by deepening the interactive construction of indicators with citizens, at the level of towns, neighbourhoods, schools, enterprises, etc.[46]

To this end, the Council of Europe has drawn on different experiments, including those which have involved citizens in the processes of designing and implementing community action strategies in the United States. Nevertheless, it is taking one step further here by developing a methodology for constructing indicators for

45. See the Council of Europe's Revised Strategy for Social Cohesion (2004, 2010). See www.coe.int/t/dg3/socialpolicies/default_EN.asp?

46. This work is being carried out by the Social Cohesion Development and Research Division in co-operation with the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe in respect of towns and cities.

societal progress in the well-being of all which, by actively involving citizens, devotes special attention to the criteria defined by representatives of all social categories present in a given area and of all the roles present in a given structure. These criteria are then transformed into "variables", serving as a basis on which to draw up indicators. This is the innovative aspect of this methodology, making it possible to understand and formulate avenues for progress towards sustainable well-being, on the basis of criteria suggested by citizens. The resultant indicators are designed to flag up discrepancies between extreme situations and the respective positions of populations between these extremes.

The French city of Mulhouse has acted as a veritable laboratory for this creative process. In 2005, Mulhouse municipality, spurred on by its mayor, volunteered to try out this methodology at local level. Since then, it has constantly refined, deepened and expanded its scope, leading to the joint development of pilot shared-responsibility activities (cf. sheet FR4). The success of the operation aroused such interest that it was fully incorporated into overall municipal policy and proposed as a model for other local experiments.

Since 2006 the project has been developing and expanding thanks to the increasing number of experiments at local level in Italy, France (cf. sheet FR4) and Romania (cf. sheet RO1).[47] What is innovative about it is the approach pursued. It has been tried out in urban neighbourhoods, companies (cf. sheet FR5), secondary schools (cf. sheet FR6) and other institutional settings. The action plans drawn up to improve the conditions for well-being within the entity concerned have proved very useful in prompting dialogue among the various categories of individuals involved, who, even though they rub shoulders every day, have never previously got together to discuss the question of their well-being. All these experiments have consolidated the methodological framework and helped capitalise on the achievements which serve as a basis for the ideas put forward in this guide.

The method (now termed the "SPIRAL method" – cf. sheet INA on the CD-Rom) has inspired other projects that have been run on variable geographical scales, all of which have helped enhance it.

In Brittany, for instance, a project to create Regionalised Societal Indicators of Well-Being (ISBET) (cf. sheet FR7) is currently being conducted for the Breton Regional Council, supported by the Brittany Region, the *Département* of Ille-et-Vilaine and Rennes Metropolis, under the ASOSC projects,[48] with environmental concerns and citizen participation playing a considerable role. The ISBET project embraces three main lines of work: calculating composite indicators (such as the Human Development Index) at regional level, and then breaking them down into lower geographical levels; participatory development of local indicators of well-being and progress in experimental areas, modelled on the Council of Europe methodology, in order to influence local and regional policies, especially under the local Agenda 21, involving citizens and all interested parties; and research into procedures for the societal construction of indicators.

In Cape Verde, Africa (cf. sheet CV1), the method was applied to all rural communities in the country in co-operation with the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). This experiment, which is still unprecedented, warrants more detailed examination.

The Cape Verde islands off Senegal provide a home for a people marked by a troubled past punctuated by terrible famines and mass emigration. Since independence in 1975 and the advent of formal democracy in 1991, the country has been gradually recovering, and thanks to its good governance it is now implementing an effective policy of combating poverty and ensuring access by all to decent living conditions – particularly

47. The areas taking part in the experiment are part of a network "Territories of Co-Responsibility" led by Mulhouse municipal council.

48. The ASOSC (Appropriation sociale des Sciences) projects are geared to involving both scientific researchers and civil society in public-interest ventures.

access to water, housing and new sources of income – under a national anti-poverty programme. This is the background against which participatory methodologies for local development have been initiated based on formal local and regional partnerships, the Regional Partnership Committees (RPCs). These have been set up on each island, embracing the main public and private players on the island, with strong representation of community associations involving the inhabitants themselves. They are full members, thereby ensuring proper representation of the poorest population groups. These committees have adequate funding (provided by co-operation with IFAD and the UN) and a team of activity leaders to implement the four-year action plans, which are designed in advance with the populations within the community associations. They have a completely free hand in implementing the plans and tailoring them to the communities' needs and expectations. Under the bottom-up approach used, the community strategies are subsequently transferred to the higher levels and brought into line with local and national policies and NGO and private sector action at CRP level on each island.

In order to capitalise on the results obtained so far, systematise the approach, and refine the strategy by making it part of a long-term vision, a Participatory Monitoring and Self-Evaluation system has been designed drawing on the Council of Europe's methodology for the development of well-being criteria and indicators with the citizens, tailored to the local context and the system put in place.

While its implementation in all the communities is a pilot experiment which is still in progress, it is nevertheless already showing promise at all levels: in the communities themselves for example, it reinforces public participation in debates and decisions on improving the functioning of associations; it makes for bottom-up, cross-sectoral assessment, making it possible to have a better picture of the impact of anti-poverty measures and therefore tailor the action plans accordingly; at national level, it helps establish synergy with the national statistical system; and at international level, it has inspired other African countries, foremost among them Gabon, to adopt the same approach.

In the Belgian Walloon Region, the construction of well-being indicators began with the inauguration of a public mechanism to encourage and support Walloon municipalities in promoting social cohesion within their areas. The action plan, the Social Cohesion Plan for the Towns and Municipalities of Wallonia (cf. sheet BE3), drew on a local analysis of social cohesion carried out with the local players in consultation with regional stakeholders, based on a set of local indicators for access to fundamental rights. These indicators constitute the framework for the action strategy defined by operational goals and set out the target groups, the areas and neighbourhoods covered, operators and partners, the resources implemented, the work involved and the budget earmarked for each action, and the expected impact of the overall plan in terms of municipal social cohesion and well-being.

Different types of indicators are being drawn up under this project, the design and construction of which vary according to their specific use during the process (prior measurement of the level of social cohesion in each municipality, calculation of the regional subsidies for implementation of the Social Cohesion Plan, support for local social cohesion analysis and defining action plans, monitoring and assessing the results obtained and the impact of the mechanism at local and regional level). In this connection, the Council of Europe methodology is applied in the municipalities with citizen participation under a co-operation arrangement with the Walloon Institute of Evaluation, Forward Studies and Statistics (IWEPS) (cf. sheet BE4), providing considerable support for the implementation and evaluation of social cohesion plans by improving the relevance and quality of the indicators, citizen participation and the democratic debate. Concurrently, it should also provide extremely useful lessons on reproducing the method in a large number of local and regional authorities and communities and on the possible resultant analyses.

In this way, the process set in motion by the Council of Europe and the various initiatives which it has inspired have made it possible to institute a series of relevant indicators – to promote the concept of societal progress towards well-being for all – drawn up with citizens on the basis of their own criteria, gradually bringing in different action levels.

3. Conclusion

Our short trip around the world ends here.

As stated above, this journey was not intended to draw up an exhaustive inventory of all the schemes being implemented worldwide, for there are many others which are unknown or only vaguely familiar to us; nor was it aimed at any in-depth analysis of the experiments mentioned, because each of them would be worth going into in much more detail than would be possible here. The fairly modest aim was to mention a number of similar concerns emerging in all parts of the globe, highlighting the widespread nature of the phenomenon. It was also intended to reflect the diversity of the resultant initiatives, even if only partially.

Without wishing to anticipate the comparisons and analyses presented in the next two chapters, it is nevertheless possible to say at this stage that the various projects outlined at least have in common the strong aspiration towards improved well-being and that they all show an intense need for democratic legitimacy. However, beyond these similarities, they differ in terms of their context, particularly the factors which triggered them (problematical situation, political will, similar successful initiative, etc.), and their focus (quality of life, sustainable development, urban policy, health policy, social cohesion, the fight against poverty, new wealth indicators, social health, etc.). The similarities are opportunities for sharing and dialogue; the differences, owing to their innovative or unexpected nature, can be a source of inspiration and mutual enrichment.

Decision-making processes concerning specific public policies have an agenda which is often confined to the best possible options in the issue under consideration (security, social policies, etc.). In contrast, the debate on the elaboration of criteria, references and indicators relating to progress necessarily remain open in terms both of the pace of discussion and of the freedom to propose topics and questions for discussion. However, these two types of approach, which allow for a wide range of intermediate positions, are complementary and involve openness to new modes of action, constructing a common future and proposing forms of responsibility which citizens had more often than not previously been denied. Constructing a shared vision of well-being and societal progress without any means of putting it into practice can be a source of major frustration. Similarly, confining decision making to certain problems or policies is liable to obscure the complexity and impose excessive constraints on the creative potential of dialogue.

Chapter 2 – Differences and similarities between the initiatives

The previous chapter highlighted the great diversity of initiatives to create progress indicators with citizens and communities. In this chapter, we shall consider the implications of this diversity by endeavouring to identify and distinguish the main differences and similarities between them.

These differences may at first sight seem contradictory or, at best, completely separate approaches with no connection to each other, as they are essentially linked to the specific nature of the context in which they are put into practice. If, however, a dynamic interpretation is made of these experiments in an effort to understand the processes in play, their purpose and subject matter, a number of initially imperceptible points of convergence can be found.

1. Differences

There are several ways in which the approaches differ, depending on what aspect is being considered: their starting point, purpose, subject matter, promoter, the role of citizens and stakeholders in their relationship with public bodies, the role of the indicators and the geographical scope of their application.

On the left-hand side of Table 121, the different experiments have been categorised using a typology based on the first three criteria, offering a possible arborescent classification. Based on this, an attempt is made on the right-hand side of the table to describe, rather than categorise, the different experiments on the basis of criteria relating to their promoter, the role of citizens and stakeholders in their relationship with public bodies, the role of the indicators and the geographical scope of their application.

Table 121 – Synoptic table showing differences between initiatives to select/draw up well-being and progress indicators with citizens/communities

Typology			Characteristics				
Starting point	Purpose (What is the intention?)	Subject matter (What is to be worked on?)	Examples	Promoter (Who instigated the project?)	Role of citizens and stakeholders in the relationship with public institutions	Role of indicators	Geographical scope
Need to supplement, improve and renew public action	Supplementary approach	Specific problem situations not solved by existing public action	Community evaluation projects developed by ASR in California and the United States	Projects – instigated by citizens' organisations – managed and financed by private foundations – carried out by a social research body	Involvement of citizens and stakeholders in every stage of the process (knowledge, action, evaluation)	Indicators geared towards action and results	Communities
	Improvement approach	Quality of life and well-being in terms of their separate dimensions/ components and taken as a whole	Community indicators in Jacksonville	Projects – instigated by the community council – financed by the Chamber of Commerce – co-ordinated by a research team	A committee of citizens and voluntary organisations participate in the choice of indicators and in data collection	Informative role Objective, descriptive and non-prescriptive reference framework Policy-making aid	Communities Extension to counties and subregions
			Quality of life indicators in Canada Well-being index	Project – managed and financed by a private foundation – carried out by research networks, in co-operation with governmental representatives and public and private bodies	Public deliberative dialogue process which encourages the participation of citizens working together and with policy makers		Country

			Community indicators in Australia	Projects – initiated by political decision makers – co-ordinated by university research centres – in partnership with governmental and non-governmental institutions, including the Bureau of Statistics	Consultative process organised by a group of leaders representative of the whole community, among them persons who sometimes feel excluded. In certain projects, citizen participation is encouraged by local government (set out in the government statement)	Strong political aim: – feeding into an integrated information system – supporting local governments in measuring community well-being – planning and implementing policies – strengthening citizens' and communities' commitment throughout the process	States, communities
		Local governance	Bogotá Cómo Vamos in Colombia	Project – instigated by civil society – supported by a private foundation, the Chamber of Commerce and a publishing house – with the support of technical experts	Responsible participation of citizens in round table sessions, forums, workshops, alongside representatives of government departments and policy makers	Validating and strengthening democracy and its instruments Evaluating: – political programmes – implementation and impact of each department's action plans – citizens' perception of access to, and quality of, the goods and services delivered	Municipalities
			Sörmland Region in Sweden	Project run by the regional council, with the co-operation of political representatives of the different tiers of government (from local to European) and public institutions	Institutional process which involves political representatives	Ensuring interplay between objectives defined at supranational (European) level and at local level, with a view to strengthening and accelerating the Lisbon Strategy	Municipalities, counties

	Renewal approach	Questioning the validity of the traditional indicators of wealth and progress by contrasting them with new indicators closer to social reality	Social Health Index and Indicateurs 21 in Nord-Pas-de-Calais	Projects run in co-operation with university research centres, local or regional government, the voluntary sector and government departments	Consultative and deliberative approach with organised civil society	Initiating and fuelling discussions among citizens centring on these crucial issues, including the validation of indicators and evaluation processes	Regions
			Indicator of happiness in Tokyo (Japan) on the basis of Bhutan's Gross National Happiness model	Project initiated and supported by the local government, included on the local authority's agenda	Participation of citizens in the definition and setting-up of the social project, including the choice of indicators	– taking stock – evaluating the performance of public action	District
			Sbilanciamoci in Italy	Project run by a monitoring entity: organisations representing civil society coming together to form a lobbying network	Deliberative and participatory process of organised civil society	Making politicians aware that new social and environmental priorities are to be taken into account	Regions

Need to rethink, redefine the societal objectives (also taking into account the well-being of future generations)	Elaborative approach	Taking into account the objectives of sustainable development and their implications in lifestyle changes	Metro Outlook project Kansas City (USA)	Project supervised by a research team	The participation of citizens is requested in the latter stages of the process, when the results are announced and discussed	Showing the interrelationship between today's quality of life and the taking into account of future generations' needs Informative role	Metropolitan area
			State of Acre (Brazil)	Project initiated by policy makers, with the support of a private foundation, and carried out in co-operation with a French research team	Consultative and deliberative process with the various social groups, particularly in order to validate the indicators	Making credible the effects of a sustainable development policy already implemented: – making visible the wealth ignored by conventional human development indicators based on financial wealth – taking better account of the well-being felt by the local population	Local area
			WELLBEBE project in Belgium	Project supported by a federal scientific research programme, carried out by university research centres and co-ordinated by a private sustainable development institute	Role of legitimising criteria choices to define well-being and to judge the state of society	Informative role Identifying the concepts shared by the population so as to achieve the objectives of well-being taking account of the lifestyle changes necessitated by sustainable development	Country and regions

		Promotion of new forms of governance for more democratic and sustainable spatial development	Italian experiments in the Province of Ascoli Piceno and elsewhere (supported by the Rete Nuovo Municipio)	Projects initiated by local authorities as driving forces for change Numerous players involved in the approach	Active involvement of the population in policy-making processes Mediation role conferred on public authorities	– Defining citizens' needs, identifying their priorities – encouraging awareness of localities – ensuring democratic legitimacy for complex activities – programming budgetary policies, verifying implementation of projects and evaluating the results – restoring faith in public authorities	Municipalities, provinces, regions
			Citizens' panels in the Piedmont region	Projects initiated by the University of Turin and municipalities	Deliberative process on the substance of a specific public policy	Drawing or redrawing up sectoral public policies	Towns/cities
		Drawing up of a shared vision of the future	Territories of co-responsibility (France, Italy, Romania)	Projects developed or inspired by the Council of Europe, in partnership with public authorities or officials of institutions	Involvement of citizens at every stage of the process of defining and measuring well-being and progress, from a perspective of shared responsibility	Defining in a consultative process the criteria for well-being and the course of progress in well-being	Towns/cities
			Secondary schools, firms, etc				Institutions
			Cap Verde, Wallonia (Belgium)				Country, region

The first classification criterion corresponds to the starting point, namely the problem area to which the approaches relate. On this basis, a distinction may be made between two major groups of initiatives: (i) those relating first and foremost to the need to supplement, improve or renew existing public action, and (ii) those corresponding more to a need to rethink and redefine societal objectives.

The first group itself subdivides into three categories, according to purpose: compensating for any shortcomings in or supplementing existing public action; improving quality of life and well-being in their different dimensions or through local governance; and replacing "conventional" indicators of wealth and progress.

- In the first category (supplementary approaches), the purpose of the initiatives is to compensate for shortcomings in public policies in addressing problematic social situations. In such circumstances, it does happen that civil society and communities themselves take action to weigh up existing problems, study possible solutions, establish priorities, implement action plans and assess their results. In the United States, in particular, a large number of initiatives have been developed along these lines, their implementation based on various methods, including Results-Based Accountability (RBA), formalised some 20 years ago by Mark Friedman. These projects tend to be supported and financed by chambers of commerce, community-based organisations or other non-governmental institutions, co-ordinated by a social research body and networked by the CIC (Community Indicators Consortium),[49] an NGO. Under these approaches, the indicators are essentially indicators of expected results in relation to the defined objectives and to the projected activities for each of the problem areas identified. Citizen participation covers every stage of the process, from identification of the problems and definition of the objectives to the drawing up of indicators to measure the results, the planning of activities and their monitoring and evaluation.
- In the second category (improvement approaches), projects are focused either on improving quality of life and well-being for the population of each community or on improving local governance.
    - In the first case, the exercise consists of building a shared vision of the quality of life and well-being in the community, forging a local identity based on a process of public participatory dialogue so as to explore ideas, feelings and shared values, building up together a snapshot of quality of life cutting across all its component parts and dimensions, and establishing priorities on the issues of concern to citizens, and to which they wish to draw decision makers' attention with a view to the development of policies and the allocation of resources. In these experiments, the indicators play an information-providing role: they offer an objective, rather than prescriptive reference framework, serving as a yardstick by which community initiatives are assessed. The projects of this type are initiated and financed by community councils, local decision makers, chambers of commerce, community-based organisations or other non-governmental institutions, and have technical support from research teams which usually work with governmental representatives and public and private bodies. This approach has been particularly well developed in Jacksonville (Florida), Canada and Australia.
    - In the second case, initiatives are more targeted on the validation of political and institutional processes, both to evaluate the honouring of promises made by successful candidates during election campaigns and their fulfilment by the government (cf. Bogotá Cómo Vamos in Colombia), and to ensure that the political objectives set by various tiers of authority are pursued in local action plans (cf. the region of Sörmland in Sweden).
- The third category (renewal approaches) covers initiatives motivated mainly by the calling into question of traditional wealth and progress indicators, which are replaced by new indicators. These are closer to social reality and are more in keeping with the need for local authorities to concern them-

49. www.communityindicators.net.

selves with what really matters to citizens, namely their present and future day-to-day living conditions. These indicators are usually devised and drawn up in a co-operative effort involving university research centres, local/regional governments and the voluntary sector. In certain cases, organised civil society takes the lead role. Some of these initiatives use these indicators to encourage and fuel a thorough review and a citizens' debate on the themes of wealth and progress and, more generally, on the concept of societal value (cf. France's Social Health Index and the Indicateurs 21 in the Nord-Pas-de-Calais in France). Others make use of them to evaluate the performance of public action and to provide guidance for setting up a new local social project (cf. Tokyo's "Happiness Index"). Yet others use them to bring pressure to bear on policy makers so as to breathe radical change into policies and to bring about a different usage of public resources and a new role for public players (cf. Sbilanciamoci in Italy and the citizens' panels in Piedmont, in Italy).

The second group of initiatives, inspired by a need to rethink and redefine societal objectives, is subdivided into three categories of projects, all sharing the same purpose, namely the drawing up of a new plan for society (elaborative approaches):

- The first category comprises projects which stand out because of their explicit inclusion of sustainable development goals in the definition and measurement of well-being indicators. In this way, they prepare for the necessary transition to different lifestyles and new public policies, so as to ensure future generations' quality of life and well-being (cf. Kansas City's Metro Outlook project in the United States, and Belgium's WELLBEBE project). They also give credibility and legitimacy to the effects of a sustainable development policy already being implemented (cf. the State of Acre, in Brazil).
- The second category covers projects directed towards the promotion of new forms of governance to ensure more democratic and sustainable local and regional development. These projects are backed by local decision makers, who provide the driving force for change, and they bring many players into action in the area concerned. A central role is assigned to spatial planning, enhancement of the heritage and local knowledge, participation by all the players and the networks of mutually beneficial exchanges, in order to generate synergies capable of supporting and developing shared initiatives and projects (cf. Italy's experiments in the Province of Ascoli Piceno and, more broadly, the Rete Nuovo Municipio).
- The third category includes projects developed or inspired by the Council of Europe, centred on the creation, through consultation and interaction, of indicators of progress towards the well-being of all. The starting point of the method is a definition of well-being for all, drawn up by citizens themselves, and the aim is to create, on that basis, a process of consultation in order to link the activities of socio-economic stakeholders and public authorities in an approach based on shared responsibility. This action therefore takes place at an earlier stage of the process than the action classified in the first group of the typology.

The method is applied both to geographical areas (cities, neighbourhoods, rural communities, regions) and to institutions (firms, schools, municipal departments, etc.).

2. Points of convergence

Taking as our starting point the wide variety of experiments, we shall attempt below to analyse trends so as to identify the points of convergence, try to understand their significance and consider the most advanced forms that they take. This search for points of convergence will also make it possible to define a broader methodological framework, enriched by the specific characteristics of each experiment, and which will be able to be used

as a common reference point in order to analyse the question of "societal" progress and governance for such progress, which is the subject of this guide. Even though the concepts of well-being for all are presented in greater detail in Part 2, we shall refer to them here to show the similarities between the initiatives in question. There are nine such concepts.

2.1. Progress in the well-being of all

All the approaches have the objective of improving the well-being of all, even though this may not always be explicitly presented as such. This can be seen in the shared desire to avoid at least two pitfalls: letting some people fall by the wayside and failing to react to certain unresolved issues of public interest. This is why the demand for action from public authorities holds a central place in many of these initiatives.

2.2. Transforming the role of citizens and the rediscovery of responsibilities

Citizens become stakeholders in the great majority of the experiments described, although the form their participation takes (direct or through representation), and the extent and level of their involvement (in one or more, or indeed in all the stages of the process) may vary. The efforts made to facilitate this participation encourage ordinary citizens to co-operate with one another and with those who frame the policies.

2.3. Creating areas of shared management

It is clear from the previous point that seeking dialogue with the public authorities is often a factor granting legitimacy to the approach. Dialogue takes various forms (questioning of candidates or elected representatives on the objectives and results of public policies, joint action to define new indicators in the public domain, etc.), but there is an ever-present tendency, in the longer or the shorter term, towards the forging of a formal or informal partnership between public authorities, citizens and the organisations representing civil society. This leads to new opportunities for joint responsibility in the framing, implementation and monitoring of policies, instigated either by citizens with or without the support of researchers and/or NGOs or by the public authorities themselves.

2.4. Building shared responsibility or co-responsibility

The question of the responsibility of the players is always central to these initiatives. It may be that public authorities and elected representatives and candidates need to be urged to accept their responsibilities and commitments in defence of the public interest and/or to ensure that they include among their concerns human, social and/or environmental dimensions which are not, or not sufficiently, taken into account (improvement approaches). Another possibility is that citizens take on responsibility in response to what is seen as an abdication of responsibility by the public authorities. Yet another is that both sides engage, from the very start of the process, in a sharing of responsibilities.

However the question of responsibilities is broached, all these approaches go beyond a mindset whereby the public authorities are solely responsible for taking decisions on matters of public interest. The concept of co-responsibility is the most refined expression of this, which will be referred to throughout this guide.

2.5. In a reference and action context

These initiatives are undertaken in relation to what may be called a "reference context": a geographical area (town or city, neighbourhood, community, region, etc.), or a collective body (firm, school, public department, etc.) or a setting within which there is a specific social connection (an ethnic or immigrant community, for example). In every case, the reference context is the one for which indicators are selected or devised. It is a reference point in time and space against which changes can be measured and from which an action strategy can be drawn up to steer the path of progress and define (co-)responsibility.[50]

However, the relevance of the area in question raises numerous questions:

- Where a geographical area is concerned, is it better to keep to administrative boundaries (which offers the advantage of having clearly identified public partners), or should we move away from these to find a geographical setting which is meaningful in terms of culture, communication, social cohesion, etc? And what is the most appropriate size?
- In the case of a collective body, in a firm, for instance, should only those who work there be included, or should account also be taken of shareholders, customers, suppliers, or even the residents who live close to the firm's site, etc?

These questions hark back to those relating to determining the "stakeholders", both visible and invisible (what Dewey called "the public"),[51] and, beyond them, those relating to the process of identifying the key players.

2.6. In relation to other stakeholders

One question which arises in all these approaches concerns inter-relations with citizens and the agencies other than those directly concerned and involved. After developing well-being indicators with its employees, Stracel (cf. sheet FR5) wondered whether this had been too limited an approach and whether it should have been supplemented by consultation with other players (suppliers, etc.).

Creating a more global link raises a number of problems, which often do not immediately surface but emerge only in the implementation stage. This is why it is rarely referred to in the initiatives outlined in this guide. However, in some of them, such as Metro Outlook: Measuring the Progress of Metropolitan Kansas City (cf. sheet US7), allowing for the interests of future generations is part of the search for current societal progress; this leads to a different view being taken of, for instance, the common goods that are to be developed and preserved.

Contributing to shared knowledge …

The building up of knowledge shared by the community, citizens and relevant players is another basic feature of such schemes. The choice and creation of indicators require not only the acquisition of familiarity with the environment in question, but in addition, they must be clearly defined and their relevance to the objectives pursued must be made explicit.

50. The areas (towns and cities, neighbourhoods, communities) which apply the method proposed by the Council of Europe for creating indicators of well-being with citizens already use the concept of "territory of co-responsibility" to designate their reference context.

51. In the context of approaches to stakeholders in economic/management contexts, Freeman (1984) bases his definition of stakeholders on the definition put forward by Dewey: "Those indirectly and seriously affected for good or for evil form a group distinctive enough to require recognition and a name. The name selected is the 'Public.'"

… and to a change in behaviour …

Commitment in these processes brings about a change in individual ways of being, thinking and acting and in collective ways of coexisting, interacting and building together. This gradual change in behaviour in its turn entails changes in the "basic components of life": relationships (civic, between generations, etc.), confidence (social, in institutions, in the common future, in the rules for resolving disputes, etc.), values (solidarity, sense of the common good, pluralism, respect for diversity, etc.), feelings (of belonging, of satisfaction, of empathy, of motivation, etc.) and knowledge (perceptions, opinions, skills, etc.). These shifts themselves help to recreate a capacity for sustaining new models of coexistence.

… necessary for an improvement in the well-being of all

These changes in cultural resources and the capacity to act together lie, explicitly or implicitly, at the very heart of all the approaches presented here.

Chapter 3 – Developing a general reference framework

Developing a general reference framework means pulling together the contributions from the different experiments. This enables us to understand how they can complement and support each other in relation to a societal progress objective.

One way to develop this reference framework is to proceed as follows:

- construct a common basis for the different approaches;
- identify areas of complementarity between the approaches in order to reinforce this common basis;
- use this to develop a general reference framework.

1. A common basis

1.1. In terms of process

This common basis can be summarised as follows:

All the initiatives presented in this guide, to a greater or lesser extent, are about forging closer ties between the different players living in a particular reference area (with special emphasis, in most cases, on public authorities in view of their role as "guardians of the public interest").

- The aim of forging closer ties is to build a common vision based on an inclusive idea of well-being and quality of life.
- This common vision is reflected in the development of shared knowledge of the reference area, for example through the selection and/or creation of indicators.
- This shared knowledge leads to contemplating and defining actions and strategies.
- These actions and strategies are the subject of consultation and responsibility-taking, enabling them to be implemented in a spirit of shared responsibility.
- The action itself is agreed on and performed jointly, by developing synergies and tools to monitor and assess the results.

These five points equate to five generic phases in what we shall refer to in this guide as a process for improving the well-being of all:

- determining together the direction of progress to be followed and choosing or devising the indicators;
- observing together the situation as it stands (evaluating and building shared knowledge);
- reflecting together on possible actions and setting priorities (planning);
- deciding and then committing (that is, defining responsibilities);
- taking steps to bring about progress (and dealing with inaction).

This should be seen as an ongoing, cyclical process and not a unidirectional one. It should be flexible and open-ended so that it can be adapted to different situations. It is more akin to a collective learning process that develops gradually, based on the lessons learned from each experiment and regular evaluation of the way in which it is implemented.

Not all initiatives have reached the same stage. They differ in particular in terms of the degree of formalisation and progress in each of the five phases.

As regards the first phase, the "direction of progress" is not always formalised as such in all the approaches where the primary motivation is a desire to see more consideration given to certain situations (exclusion, marginalisation), whether by public authorities (supplementary approaches) or by civil society itself (improvement approaches). Elaborative approaches, on the other hand, which are based on the need to rethink societal goals, should determine from the outset the direction of progress as an integral part of the methodological approach. In both instances, however, the concern for the public interest is firmly embedded and shared and is what drives the whole approach.

Table 131 shows the five phases of the process of improving the well-being of all for each category of initiatives summarised in the table in the previous chapter.

Table 131 – Overview of the process common to all the approaches

	Particular forms of the different approaches														
	Need to supplement, improve or renew public action								Need to rethink, define societal goals						
	Supplementary approaches	Improvement approaches				Renewal approaches			Elaborative approaches						
Types of approach	Problem situations not solved by existing public action	Quality of life and well-being through their various dimensions/ components		Local governance		Calling into question of traditional indicators for evaluating progress by providing new indicators which are closer to social reality and offer a wider concept of wealth			Consideration of sustainable development goals and their role in lifestyle changes		Promotion of new forms of governance for more democratic and sustainable spatial development		Drawing up of indicators of progress in well-being for all based on the criteria of well-being/ill-being suggested by citizens		
Role of indicators	Remedying shortcomings in public policy	Establishing a reference framework	Supporting local government in promoting well-being and planning action	Validating and bolstering democracy and its instruments	Linking set objectives to different territorial levels	Initiating and fuelling citizen discussion and debate	Helping public authorities to meet local needs	Alerting policy makers to new social priorities	Connecting concern for quality of life today with the needs of future generations/ the lifestyle changes necessitated by sustainable development	Giving credibility to the impact of a sustainable development policy	– Fostering awareness of places and shared vision – Redefining/ assigning a central role to spatial planning – Capitalising on heritage and local knowledge as a basis for development	Framing or reframing sectoral public policies	Local level	Institution-al level	Regional and national level
Relevant examples	ASR/RBA (USA)	Jacksonville Canada	Australia	Bogotá Cómo Vamos (Colombia)	Sörmland (Sweden)	NPC France	Japan	Sbilan-ciamoci (Italy)	Kansas City (USA), WELLBEBE (Belgium)	State of Acre (Brazil)	Ascoli Piceno (Italy)	Citizen panels (Italy)	Towns and cities of co-responsibility (Europe)	High schools, enterprises (France)	Walloon Region, Cape Verde, Gabon

The five generic phases of redefining well-being														
1. Determine the direction of progress	Remedy the shortcomings of public policy. Choose the indicators	Improve the quality of life	Develop sustainable local well-being	Ensure that elected representatives adhere to their election programmes	Co-ordinate global and local objectives	Provide indicators that complement existing ones, and are closer to social reality	Improve residents' well-being and develop an indicator of happiness	Identify new social priorities and a composite indicator that reflects them	Give consid-eration to the well-being of future genera-tions	Give more weight to well-being related to sustainable development policy	Build the promotion of local heritage and knowledge into public policy on sustainable development	Canvas citizens' views in order to improve sectoral policy	Develop a shared vision of well-being for all using the criteria suggested by citizens for drawing up indicators of progress in well-being	
2. Observe (evaluate)	Take stock of the situation, observe and understand the problems experienced	Create a picture of the situation, describe and inform	Create an integrated information system to support policy making and public action	Monitor implementation of the programmes and observe the results of action plans	1. Identify the problems and set goals at local level 2. Compare with goals set at other levels	Highlight the differences between the two visions ("traditional" and renewed)		Assess the regional quality of development	Highlight the interconnec-tions between the needs of present and future genera-tions	Report on sustainable human development	Establish a common vision of players across the territory	Create a shared vision	1. Evaluate people's situations according to the indicators of progress in well-being 2. Evaluate the impact of existing action vis-à-vis the well-being/ill-being criteria suggested by citizens	Same approach + review at regional and/or national level
3. Plan (think about what can be done)	Set priorities for action and target objectives to support the action plans	Set priorities for policy making and resource allocation	Set priorities for action and target objectives endorsed by citizens in order to support the action plans	Ask elected representatives and public institutions to take them into account	Plan the actions, drawing on existing activities and providing links to other territorial levels	Think about ways of adjusting public policy in the light of the measurements obtained using the new indicators		Focus and set the priorities for action	Help policy makers to find effective ways of bringing about significant changes in public policy, so as to ensure quality of life and well-being for future generations		Support and give political impetus to the local self-sustainable development project	Develop a concerted strategy for sectoral policy	Identify possible improvements to current action and devise pilot co-responsibility activities for the well-being of all.	

The five generic phases of redefining well-being												
4. Decide/ commit	Share out responsibilities for implementing the action plans	Publicise the project and its potential benefits in order to give it more political impact and ensure that it is used in local governance	Involve citizens and communities in the implementation of the action plans	Obtain undertakings from elected representatives and the authorities	Ensure that local politicians have a sense of ownership of the process and that there are links with existing development processes	Start making the feasible adjustments while encouraging civil society to participate in the design and setting-up of the social project	Put pressure on public authorities to recognise the new priorities for action	Define and share out the responsibilities for implementing the activities	Activate the participatory processes to forge local identities and encourage them to interact, create an area of public responsibility and design new legitimisation procedures	Redefine the substance of responsibilities	Define and share out the responsibilities for implementing the pilot projects, and drawing up an action plan	Same approach + sharing of responsibilities between territorial levels
5. Act	Implementation Evaluation Dissemination of results	Implementation Monitoring	Implementation Gauging of progress made Dissemination of results	Honouring of commitments given and monitoring	Implementation and monitoring	Honouring of commitments given and monitoring	Implementation and monitoring	Implementation and monitoring	Implementation and monitoring	Action based on joint objectives	Implementation and monitoring	

1.2. In terms of a common goal

The existence of points of convergence implies that the initiatives are driven, formally or otherwise, by the same goal, which is to move towards a more caring, co-responsible society:

- more caring in the sense that the concern is for the well-being of all without any exceptions, including future generations;
- co-responsible in the sense that the various players involved share this concern.

However, none of these initiatives offers a complete answer. Rather, it is by sharing experiments and pooling the know-how acquired as a result that it will be possible to establish a common goal and gain greater insight into what this knowledge can contribute.

1.3. In terms of development pathways

Nonetheless, the goal is but the final stage. First, thought needs to be given to the type of development we wish to see in the five phases of the process described above. We suggest that this development be understood as moving from a model of society regulated by the state/market pairing (where progress is equated with GDP growth) to a model of a caring and co-responsible society (where progress is equated with the well-being of all).

Table 132 describes in greater detail these pathways for each of these five phases. It shows the direction taken by existing initiatives and draws a sort of common road map, into which these initiatives fit, slotted between the two models.

Table 132 – Pathways towards progress shared by citizens/communities

PROCESSES towards well-being for all	**Starting point: states/ markets**	**Some reference points along the way**			**Common goal: a caring, co-responsible society**
1. Determining together the direction progress is to take	Progress confined to GDP and regulating role of states in ensuring growth and distribution of wealth	Civil society formally establishes objectives that complement GDP and/or act as a corrective to public policy		Progress is formalised and shared around the concept of well-being for all within reference areas	Progress is formalised and shared around the concept of well-being for all from a universal perspective (including future generations)
2. Observing together the situation as it stands (evaluating and developing shared knowledge)	Knowledge building is a matter for specialised institutions (statistical institutes, research institutes, universities)	Certain sections of civil society develop their own knowledge with little or no direct contact with the public authorities	Knowledge for progress develops with the participation of citizens/ civil society but remains the province of the public authorities (public policy indicators)	Knowledge for progress is developed jointly and shared as a common reference point	Knowledge for progress is developed jointly by all the stakeholders in society
3. Planning (reflecting together on possible action and setting priorities)	Progress planning is carried out only within public entities	Certain sections of civil society plan progress but without any contact with the public authorities	Dialogue is established with the public authorities in an effort to improve public policies, e.g. in terms of indicators	Dialogue is established to improve public policy and civil society projects and ensure better co-ordination	Progress planning is done in a concerted manner, between the various stakeholders in society
4. Deciding and committing Defining responsibilities	Responsibility for well-being viewed in terms of access to rights lies with the state and the public authorities	Certain sections of civil society exercise responsibility on their own initiative, alongside public policies	There is some recognition of responsibility sharing but it is not formalised	The division of responsibilities is clearly defined but there is no real consultation on an equal footing or transparency in the way responsibilities are allocated	Shared responsibility (responsibilities divided up by mutual agreement, in a transparent manner). The public authorities act as facilitators
5. Taking active steps to bring about progress	Civil society plays no part in progress; it is a matter for the public authorities alone	Certain sections of civil society engage in the process on their own initiative but without any contact or partnership with public authorities	Public authorities and civil society begin to communicate in order to co-ordinate their action	A de facto partnership exists for implementing action to bring about progress but it has not been formally recognised	There is both a de facto and a formally recognised partnership for taking action to bring about progress

The stages shown in this table are interlinked and correlated to varying degrees. They may be embarked upon quite independently of each other, as the diversity of the initiatives shows.

Nonetheless, the various stages have a number of complementary features, which is why we suggest looking at the possible links between them in order to put forward methods for achieving progress towards a responsible society based on the principle of solidarity.

2. Linkages and areas of complementarity

The next step is to determine how these areas of complementarity can be capitalised on as developmental driving forces in each initiative by means of a cross-fertilisation process. This is a theoretical exercise but is essential in order to devise an action methodology to bring these initiatives out of isolation and place them in the more global context of understanding their role in a process of moving towards a caring and co-responsible society. In accordance with tables 131 and 132, these areas of complementarity can be categorised in terms of phasing, participants and levels of intervention.

2.1. Areas of complementarity in terms of phasing

A first area of complementarity concerns the starting points of the different experiments. Those that are concerned with supplementing or improving the action taken by the public authorities enter further down the process, whereas those that are more concerned with establishing a shared vision of the future and defining progress objectives (elaborative approaches) enter at an earlier stage.

Redefining societal objectives is therefore often an unexplored phase or is simply passed over in silence. Formalising this aspect so that it is itself the subject of special consideration under a methodological approach will, for example, make it possible to address public policies no longer in a purely reactive way, with an emphasis on modifying or improving them, but rather proactively, by focusing on the principles that underlie them, and how they contribute to the public interest and well-being for all.

Making a link between an approach to define a vision of society and one to adjust public policies could therefore be of particular relevance, in terms of both governance and strengthening the relationship between public authorities and society.

2.2. Areas of complementarity in terms of stakeholders

A second area of complementarity concerns the players involved. Clear differences emerge between approaches that:

- mainly mobilise citizens or organised civil society, without any real involvement of the authorities;
- are initiated and supported by policy makers;
- are initiated by academics or specialist institutes;
- emerge from the world of business or other collective bodies.

Since any process to foster shared responsibility should make it possible to involve a complete range of stakeholders, clearly, there is a need to strengthen the areas of complementarity between them.

2.3. Areas of complementarity in terms of levels of intervention

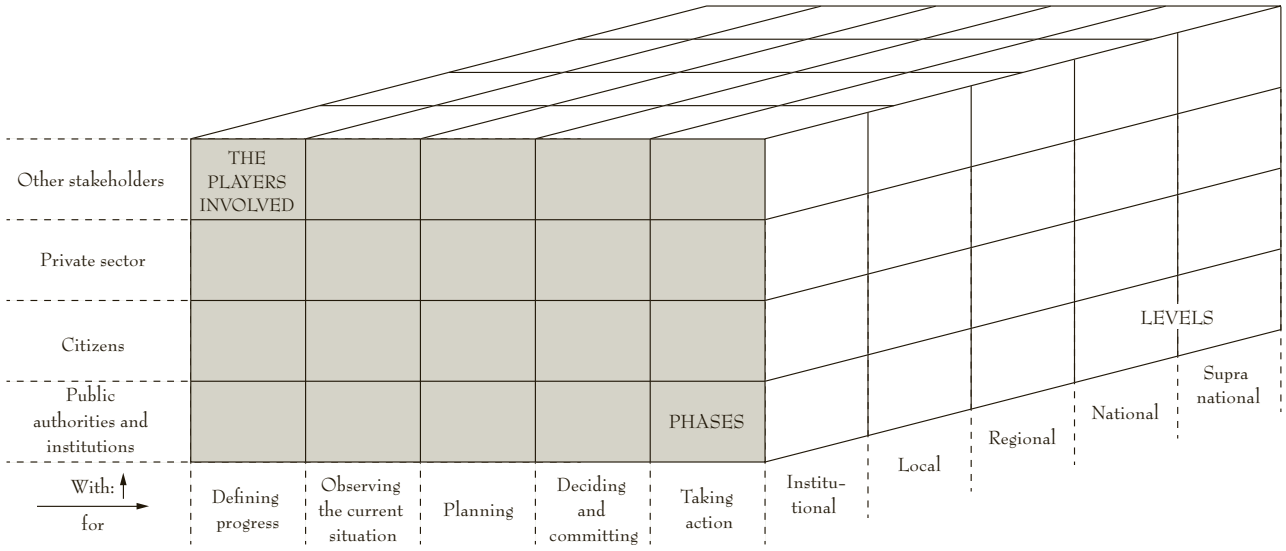
Finally, a third area of complementarity concerns the different geographical and institutional levels of action. As already noted, some initiatives emanate from a company, neighbourhood or community, whereas others take place on a larger scale, which may be regional or national. Establishing the link between these different levels is vital if, in pursuit of a common goal, we are to establish a method incorporating these different levels according to their responsibilities. This will be looked at in the following parts.

3. The general reference framework: summary of areas of complementarity and the challenges inherent in linking different approaches

From the above, there emerges what we shall term a "general reference framework" for determining how these elements relate to each other and identifying how they might interlink, and how they fit into a more general process of "societal" progress.

The areas of complementarity in phasing, stakeholders and levels of intervention may be presented as a three-dimensional graph, in the form of a cube as shown in Figure 133:

Figure 133 – The cube of potential complementarities for societal progress



The cube shows how various types of situation, represented by a combination of different cells, can evolve. For example, an approach in which government statistical services attempt to develop and measure local indicators corresponds to the cell "observing the current situation", at the base of the cube. If this approach is carried out simultaneously at local, regional, national and supranational levels it will cover this cell and all those behind it. If it involves citizens at local level, the approach will also cover the cell immediately above it. In this way, we can identify an evolving process in which the number of stakeholders, phases and levels becomes increasingly broad.

Each initiative presented in Chapter 1 of Part 1 of this guide covers one or more elements of this cube, according to who is involved, the phases of the process concerned and the levels at which it takes place.

Interactions are therefore possible between initiatives covering different elements of the cube. Alternatively, a particular initiative may be extended by drawing on what has been done elsewhere. For example, a researcher-instigated project to introduce new indicators into public services at regional level – to provide better information on the current situation for forecasting and decision-making purposes – might subsequently bring in citizen participation. It may also be extended by creating links with the activities carried out by different types of player by finding links, for example, with the local level on the one hand, and the national level on the other.

Taken as a whole, the cube might in theory be interpreted to represent the ideal situation of a society in which progress was borne by the whole of society, in other words a caring and co-responsible society. This, to a certain extent, is what we referred to earlier as the common goal.

This raises the question of whether entire coverage of the cube is necessarily the goal to be aimed at. For the time being, the experiments that have been carried out suggest that we should remain pragmatic and make the most of all the advances made.

Conclusion

The first part of the guide has introduced initiatives involving citizens and communities and given an idea of the great diversity to be found. It has also highlighted the similarities between them, forming the basis of a common reference framework. We have seen that all these approaches appear to go beyond a paradigm of well-being for all in which only the state and the market have a role. And, to varying degrees, they all contribute to the emergence of a caring and co-responsible society in which the other stakeholders of society are all involved. The reference framework that has emerged, with its three dimensions of phases, stakeholders and geographical levels, could be representative of the ideal situation in a caring and co-responsible society, all the components of which had a commitment to the different stages of progress – from design to implementation – and at the different institutional and geographical levels.

These initiatives have been prompted by the fact that there are major problems that have been left unresolved in conventional approaches. Accordingly, they raise, to varying degrees, the issue of moving from a model of responsibility based largely on the market and the state, and therefore the need to move towards more shared responsibility. As such, they tie in with other reflections on what form progress should take, in particular the international debate on sustainable development and the fight against poverty. Here again, the issue concerns greater acceptance of responsibility by different sections of society and greater solidarity with the most disadvantaged and with future generations (Agenda 21 approaches for example).

On the basis of these initiatives, the next four parts of this guide will look at the following questions:

1. How are we to understand and move towards societal progress today?
2. How can we create the conditions to make this possible and sustainable in the long term?
3. What relevant tools need to be developed, especially in terms of indicators?
4. How is this to be achieved (in other words using what methods, particularly in the light of existing experience)?

Part 2

Rethinking progress

Social cohesion

Introduction

Moving beyond a situation in which social progress and well-being depend solely on the state or are left to the mercy of the market or individuals' own capacity to create and accumulate wealth is the idea that is emerging more or less worldwide through initiatives aimed at developing new references for human communities. They seek to move to a form of progress which is thought out, planned and implemented by and with all institutional players and citizens in accordance with the shared objective of ensuring the well-being of all. That is what was shown in Part 1 of this guide.

It remains to be seen whether this shift is relevant today and whether it is a suitable response to the challenges which our societies must address. This second part of the guide sets out to answer this question. Its aim is to explain the significance of the various initiatives and how they can help us find ways of countering detached, statistical definitions of growth, often confused with progress, or individual, psychological definitions, often confused with a sense of well-being. These initiatives are based on a concept of "societal" progress that takes into account the interdependent relationships between the determining factors of well-being, including inter-generational interdependence, and the dominant disparities observed in modern society. This second part is divided into three chapters:

- Chapter 1 seeks to understand the meaning of progress in the early 21st-century context;
- Chapter 2 goes on to rethink strategies for progress;
- Chapter 3 analyses the relevance and limitations of the choices and of developing indicators in conjunction with citizens.

Chapter 1 – Understanding the meaning of progress today

We should begin by making a distinction between the concepts of social and societal progress.

Social progress refers to improvements in living conditions which are the result of processes involving institutional recognition of forms of protection of both human dignity (including social, economic and environmental rights) and democracy (civil, political and cultural rights), along with the use of dialogue to manage differing interests.

Societal progress, for its part, involves improving the ability of each human community to use its knowledge, skills and social and institutional connections to bring about a creative, co-ordinated transformation for the well-being of all. Each community ensures that its assets – both material and non-material – are optimised in a way that is both equitable for present and future generations, and enables them to flourish. Societal progress fosters confidence in the future, since it is an approach that incorporates the preservation of human life and nature.

On the basis of these definitions, we shall endeavour to ascertain what the issue of societal progress involves today.

To this end, we shall proceed as follows:

- examine the concept of progress;
- then look in greater depth at societal progress;
- lastly, attempt to understand the challenges it raises in the 21st-century context.

The practical purpose of the more abstract arguments introduced in this chapter is to address more effectively the following questions:

- How can we live together in harmony?
- What kind of societal progress is needed in order to ensure the well-being of all?
- And, above all, how can we move from a "rational" approach to individual choices and aspirations – mostly focusing on maximising personal benefit – towards a "reasoned" approach to community living, established by means of collective deliberation and commitment?

1. Progress: a key question today

Examining the concept of progress leads us to explore the human processes necessary for progress to come about. This is particularly important insofar as in the absence of any debate of this kind, there would merely be an inherently mechanistic, automated definition of the concept, conveying the impression that there is no need to give it much thought since all that is required is to provide the necessary ingredients for it to operate smoothly.

The mechanistic view of progress really took hold in the latter decades of the 20th century, when market deregulation uncoupled economic growth from its national and local roots, resulting in a weakening of the state–market relationship. This uncoupling constituted a danger for democratic values, destabilising wealth-redistribution measures, tax obligations and worker protection. The impact was particularly notable in western Europe, where the state–market relationship had brought about social progress by institutionalising the ben-

efits of growth in the form of the welfare state. As a result of this shift, the concept of public interest lost some of its meaning; public and common goods began to be devalued, instead being exploited by private market operators, this also applying to those goods that were part of humanity's inheritance, such as water, energy sources, etc. The process of undermining social progress and diminishing the state's role in upholding the public interest, coupled with a kind of ideological promotion of individualised solutions to social problems, also resulted in the weakening of a collective sense of progress and well-being, a reduction in societal reference points and a decline in confidence in the future. This gave rise to greater material disparities between rich and poor, along with the emergence of tensions between growth, wealth concentration and the perception of well-being. Furthermore, the perception of individual well-being moved further away from that of national well-being, while no account was taken of the gap between growing consumption needs and the reduction in available resources (Glatzer, 2008).

Given the gap between growth and the perception of well-being in the 1970s (the Easterlin paradox,[52] revisited today),[53] the happiness theories that emerged to compensate for this lack of symmetry emphasised the importance of interpersonal relationships. They highlighted the dimension of positive/negative perceptions and feelings (Layard, 2005), also placing value on the "disinterested" sphere of trust/belonging and adding, in certain cases, a dimension of harmony with the environment (Becchetti, 2005). In this framework – in contrast to that of the economy of well-being – the individual could act in response to considerations that were not entirely or not at all bound up with utilitarian striving for their own well-being (Sen, 1987).

In this guide we shall define well-being as "well-being for all". It is the product of a complex inter-relationship. We shall first of all take the view that personal balance is contingent upon social balance, whence the need to reconsider socio-economic disparities and the interdependence between individual well-being and common goods, and to introduce regard for the rights of future generations as a key factor in well-being for all. We shall therefore take the view that the "timescale" in well-being is not confined to the present generation alone.

This guide will therefore seek to put forward a concept of societal progress in well-being, offering a way out of the deadlock resulting from, at least in Europe, the weakening of the welfare state model, going beyond the concept of well-being (or happiness) viewed independently of social balances (equity, mobility, social mix, etc.). We need to be able to engage in this reflection without being hostage to psychological options which claim to link well-being/happiness to a subjective perception at a given moment. This will make it possible to restore to its legitimate place the well-being of the individual as a member of a community in which responsibilities are shared, including as regards future generations.

Without wishing to go into such controversial subjects in depth and cite the many researchers more or less worldwide focusing on questions of well-being/happiness and quality of life, we would simply like to make two observations:

- if progress in well-being is made contingent upon the purely individual search for satisfaction, we enter into an endless debate between objective and subjective measurements of well-being. This is meaningless. Well-being is the product of complex inter-relationships between tangible and intangible goods, between private and public goods, between private and community lives/spaces and between personal and social balances;
- singling out a certain aspect of well-being in order to measure it (or confining it within methods that are specific to a particular field such as psychology) leads to epistemological biases. This

52. Easterlin, 1974.

53. See Veenhoven and Hagerty, 2003.

is especially true when individual introspection, cut off from any possibility of discussion and relativisation, becomes the gauge of well-being. Once subjectivity takes hold as a value, it not only gives the impression that psychologists can sort out the imbalances in coexistence, but it also leads to a denial of the value of "active life" as understood by Hannah Arendt (1958) as a factor of well-being and to the concealing of an obvious but constantly suppressed fact, that individual well-being, in the sense of the ability to develop and be fulfilled, depends to a very large extent on the context and institutional arrangements. The theories of subjective happiness/well-being implicitly place a high value on retrospective thinking (past experience). However, they do not challenge perceptions – or behaviour – that ought actually to be modified through a dawning awareness that past choices are not viable in either social or environmental terms. Moreover, the growing weight given to the "security" indicator in certain current measurements of quality of life and well-being signals the urgent need to come up with more forward-looking definitions, focusing on responsibility and risk-taking, as key ingredients of human fulfilment.

It may be inferred from these observations that it is imperative and urgent to move towards a situation in which progress in well-being is rethought at societal level, especially as ecological constraints and social inequality pose a threat to our planet. Progress in well-being should also not be regarded as the result of the exogenous, unco-ordinated action of the players and/or reduced to various subsidiary variables such as economic growth or individual happiness.

However, the predominance of laissez-faire ideology and all that it has entailed – in terms of culture, values, the conception of individual well-being, habits and modi operandi – constitute a major obstacle to reopening discussion of the "meaning" of progress in well-being. This is why a debate at societal level is the only way to change the situation, provided that it goes beyond ideological stances to examine societal choices and values, by means of interactive, in-depth analysis.

2. Qualifying progress: moving towards societal progress in the well-being of all

Societal progress is now emerging as a key issue. We therefore need to understand what it means and what the objectives are. A good insight into these two points is set out below.

2.1. The meaning of progress

As Hannah Arendt (1978, pp. 54-55) points out, "the very concept of an unlimited progress, which accompanied the rise of modern science, and has remained its dominant principle, is … subject to corrigible error and deception. When the experience of constant correction in scientific research is generalised, it leads into the curious 'better and better', 'truer and truer', that is, into the boundlessness of progress with its inherent admission that the good and the true are unattainable. If they were ever attained, the thirst for knowledge would … come to an end. … it is quite likely that particular sciences may reach definite limits of what is knowable to man. Yet the point is that the modern idea of progress implicitly denies such limitations. Unquestionably, the notion of progress was born as the result of the tremendous advances of scientific knowledge, a veritable avalanche of discoveries in the 16th and 17th centuries, and I think it quite possible that it was the relentlessness inherent in sheer thinking, whose need can never be assuaged, that, once it had invaded the sciences, drove the

scientists to ever-new discoveries, each one giving rise to a new theory, so that those caught in the movement were subject to the illusion of a never-ending process – the process of progress." She goes on to say that one consequence of this development was a decisive change in the very concept of truth, which was transformed into a string of verities, each one in its time claiming general validity.

Reviewing this analysis in the context of this guide, we can agree that it is not progress itself that is problematic, but rather the mechanical assertion of its unlimited, inexorable nature, substantiated by dominant economic thinking. In addition, "beliefs" expressed as truths (such as the belief that individuals acting solely in their own interests help to improve overall efficiency) have had the effect of depriving human beings of any responsibility for choices about how they give meaning to their lives (Salvadori, 2006, 2008).

By denying clear evidence of destruction, injustice and non-sustainability, belief in unlimited progress leads not only to the unremitting reproduction of material needs but also to the creation of new needs, particularly for those having already attained a certain level of well-being. Comparison of the quantity of individual goods owned – especially among the wealthiest – becomes a factor influencing the feeling of well-being, showing the extent to which subjective measurements make it impossible to relativise, particularly in relation to the situations of those deprived of everything. Such comparisons are of little relevance to the deprived. In any event, they "lack the courage to desire much and their deprivations are muted and deadened in the scale of desire-fulfilment" (Sen, 1987, p. 46). If progress is to become meaningful again, as a society we must give some consideration to its limits, its "potential" and the efforts needed in order to attain it. According to Massimo Salvadori (2006, 2008), the progress we may hope for in order to preserve our lives and our civilisations will inevitably be difficult. As the Enlightenment philosophers understood, we ourselves will be able to switch it on and off: progress will therefore take whatever form human communities wish to give it (ibid.). And that form presupposes making the reflection endogenous and recreating the meaning of progress together with citizens and communities.

2.2. The objective of progress: the well-being of all

The idea of unlimited progress has the effect that no consideration is given to the need for the conscious setting of objectives, particularly in relation to the quality of life of present and future generations. Any definition of progress must depend on the wishes of human communities themselves; this must be understood not as a paean to unbridled voluntarism, but as an acknowledgement of the fact that human beings do what they empower themselves to do in practice, and themselves fashion their successes and failures, their progress and retrogression, with their own hands (Salvadori, 2006, 2008). Human communities' wishes can be ascertained only by means of democratic debates involving their residents, as noted in the conclusions of the meeting held by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in Istanbul in 2007.[54]

To this end, this guide puts forward the well-being of all as a societal progress objective to be achieved. The reasons for this choice are explained below, with a distinction being drawn between the concepts of well-being and of well-being of all.

Well-being is currently often defined and measured by methods relating individually to feelings, perceptions and frustrations such as the Day Reconstruction method resulting in the U-Index (proportion of time an individual spends in an unpleasant emotional state) (Kahneman and Krueger, 2006, pp. 18-21). We maintain in this guide that the methods predetermine the results. Accordingly, a personalised, pre-established interview on

54. The Istanbul Declaration was adopted by representatives of the European Commission, the OECD, the Organisation of the Islamic Conference, the United Nations, the UN Development Programme and the World Bank at the 2nd OECD World Forum on Measuring and Fostering the Progress of Societies in June 2007.

well-being, focusing on concepts such as emotions, satisfaction, vitality, resilience and self-esteem, positive functioning of personal relationships, trust and belonging,[55] leads to a definition of well-being by means of a process of individual introspection. It is therefore totally divorced from the structuring of collective and institutional processes (over and above the simple circle of personal acquaintances). Furthermore, the approach measuring periods of optimism or depression prevents any reflection on the aspirations of an individual as an active member of a human community and the construction of a forward-looking vision. Well-being defined subjectively also leaves the door wide open to the expression of frustration (particularly among wealthier groups) deriving from use of a method unable to foster relativisation and lucidity on interdependence. And this although common sense dictates that relativisation – especially by the better-off – is an essential factor in well-being. Neurobiologists and philosophers say the same thing. Stephan Klein in his book, *The science of happiness: how our brains make us happy – And what we can do to get happier* states that "people who compare, lose. Casting sideways glances not only makes us dependent on others but leads to bad decisions" (Klein, 2006, p. 206). The Buddhist monk, Mathieu Ricard, said that, in his view, "dissatisfaction arises from the habit of seeing what is superfluous as being necessary. This isn't just a question of wealth, but also of comfort, of pleasures, of useless knowledge. The only thing that one should never be satisfied with is one's wisdom" (Revel and Ricard, 1998, p. 277).

"Well-being for all", which lies at the heart of the Council of Europe's definition of social cohesion, is a concept which promotes the interdependence between individual well-being and social integrity from a sustainable perspective. The well-being of all can be defined and measured only by means of deliberative and interactive methodological approaches that identify disparities between situations of well-being and ill-being within a society. These approaches reveal the road still to be travelled for everyone to be in a situation of sustainable well-being, sustainability being understood from the viewpoint of available resources and the irreversibility of social advances. By highlighting the interdependence between situations of well-being and ill-being, the well-being of all requires a reasoned definition of how to ensure this sustainability, in particular by reducing disparities. It is a "proactive" and forward-looking concept which makes it possible to explore the dimensions of well-being which individuals in society can construct and develop together. Since it involves mediation, an understanding of interdependence, awareness of the changes to be made and the injustices to be rectified, and respect for common goods, the well-being of all can be defined only within and by human communities themselves, taking account of the diversity of the people who make them up and of their roles. The definition of well-being for all – in contrast to that of subjective and psychological well-being – is a forward-looking exercise of lucidity on interdependence and the extent of the gap between the two extremes. Well-being for all is a concept relating to how we can work together, attaching the same importance to individual and common goods, to material and non-material goods, to private and public spaces, to private and public relationships and to the links between personal and social balances. By way of example, the following are some of the "criteria" for well-being indicated by citizens during the experiments conducted by the Council of Europe: being able to cope with change; not being sidelined from taking responsibility; being placed in a position where responsibility can be shouldered; having plans, dreams; imagining the future; being listened to in the public arena; having one's own skills recognised; having parks and greenery and places to meet close at hand, etc.

These criteria show the extent to which individual well-being is intimately related to collective relationships, the structuring of community life and the possibility for everyone to achieve, in this way, personal maturity: "… for relationships with others not to be mainly motivated by selfishness which only creates tension and

55. See Nef, 2009.

disagreement, each person has to give meaning to their life and attain a degree of inner development" (Revel and Ricard, 1998, p. 277). The voice of citizens shows quite effectively what needs to be done.

In conclusion, focusing on the well-being of all as the objective of progress has the fourfold advantage of being appropriate, open, dynamic and clear:

- appropriate, since it ties in with the ultimate societal objective. Its comprehensive, inclusive nature prevents progress from being "held hostage" by partial objectives or objectives which are of interest to only part of society;
- open, since it is not an externally predefined objective, but one based on an interactive and regularly renewed definition;
- dynamic, since it presupposes that it is laid down in a democratic way, through consultation between groups of citizens having different positions in society;
- clear, since it places progress in a societal context, providing a benchmark against which to evaluate both processes (the approach to be adopted) and outcomes (fewer disparities).

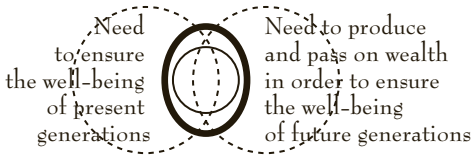
3. The challenges of progress in the 21st-century context

3.1. Historical trends and current challenges

Having established the definition and objectives of societal progress, we may now look at the challenges it throws up in the early 21st century. To this end, we shall give an overview of the historical process of progress set in motion by the scientific, technical and industrial revolution that shaped contemporary history.

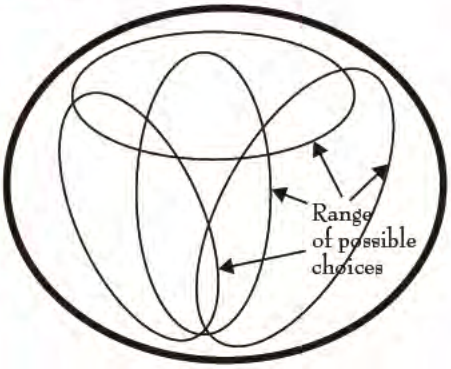
Figure 211 (a "slide show" of progress) offers a clearer picture of the dominant trends in the development of the process than would be obtained from a detailed overview of its extremely complex history.

Figure 211 – "Slide-show" of progress in recent centuries

Situation prior to the Industrial Revolution	1 **Limited capacity and scope for action**  Although society's scientific, technical and economic capacity has increased over the centuries, it is still limited, leaving very little room for manoeuvre.	2 **Needs exceed capacity**  While it is true that society appears to be unable to satisfy all the material needs of present and future generations, resources grow and are passed on without being in any apparent danger of running out.

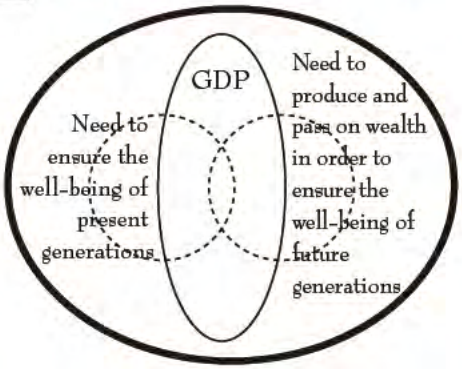
Scientific, technical and industrial revolution

3 Expanded capacity



The scientific, technical and industrial revolution brings about a spectacular, almost continuous increase in productivity: more is produced with fewer resources. Capacity is expanded, with a wider range of choices making various development models possible.

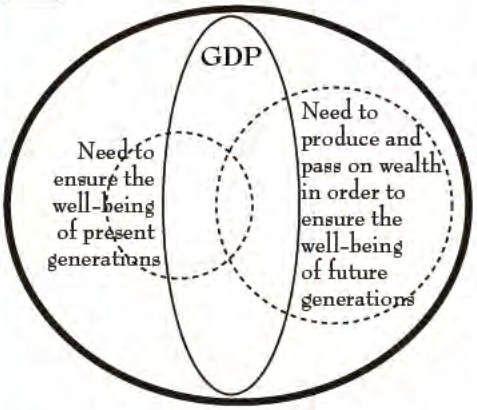
4 Production as the main priority



The economy is uncoupled from ethics, with the main focus on production and subsequently market consumption (measured subsequently by GDP); material well-being is overemphasised, and the importance of non-material well-being underestimated, while the well-being of a significant population segment not integrated into the market is ignored, particularly in the countries of the South. Natural resources are overexploited without any means of renewing them (to the point of exhaustion) and hence of passing them on to future generations.

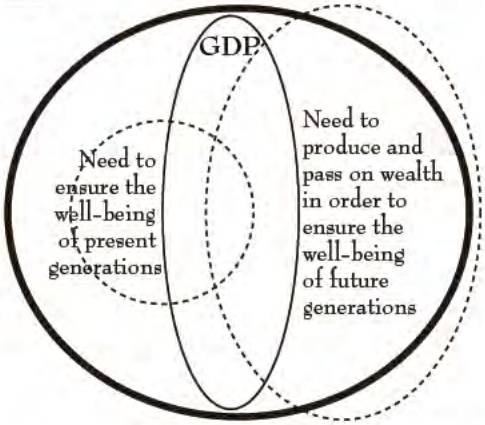
Repercussions and risks associated with the aftermath of the scientific, technical and industrial revolution

5 Deferring the burden to the future



The depletion of natural resources to the point of exhaustion and the fact that they cannot be passed on to future generations means the latter will have to invest more in order to ensure their well-being. At the same time, capacity is expanded and GDP continues to increase.

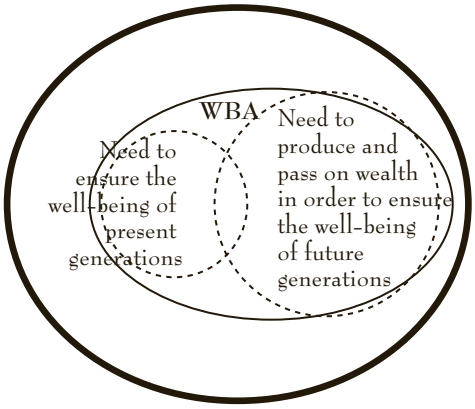
6 An uncertain, insecure future



The danger is that the investment required of future generations will exceed society's capacity, irrespective of whatever technical progress may be made. In addition, the exhaustion of resources is starting to affect present generations themselves, thereby increasing their needs.

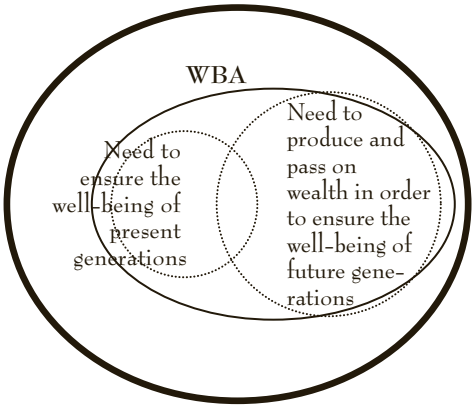
What is needed in order to guard against such risks: societal progress towards sustainable development

7 **Moving towards well-being for all …**



In order to guard against these risks, the economic model must be radically overhauled so as to ensure all aspects of the well-being of both present and future generations (i.e., the well-being of all). The one-dimensional GDP indicator is replaced by the multidimensional Well-Being for All (WBA) indicator.

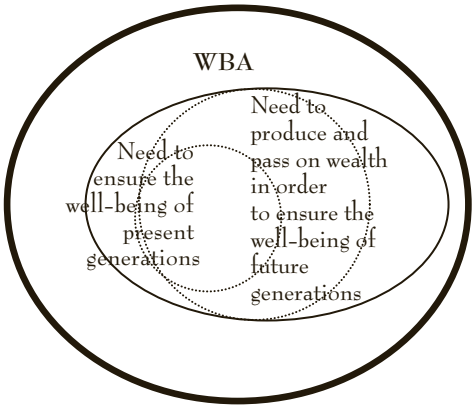
8 **… defined, formalised, delimited**



The most urgent step is to redefine the well-being of all. It is therefore a matter of moving from a mechanical approach to the well-being of all to an individual and collective understanding of the concept, which is consequently clearly defined, formalised and delimited.

Consolidation of sustainable development

9 **… and consolidated.**



Catering for the needs of future generations makes life more meaningful for present generations, thereby enhancing their well-being; the two eventually blend into one.

Conclusion

The start of the 21st century finds humanity at a critical point in its history (moving from scenario 5 to scenario 6).
In order to prevent this transition to an irreversible situation, which would jeopardise the future of humanity, societal progress must be radically reinterpreted on the basis of a joint definition of the well-being of all and of the wealth we need to be able to pass on to future generations.

The sets drawn in thick lines represent society's scientific, technical and economic capacity.

The sets drawn in dashed lines represent the need to ensure the well-being of present and future generations.

Where the dashed lines are replaced by dotted lines (.....), this indicates a transition from needs that are not thought out collectively to needs that are thought out and clearly identified.

The sets drawn in fine lines represent society's possible/actual choices in order to meet the need for well-being.

3.2. The challenges for present-day generations

The shift from progress led by GDP (or by increased consumption capacity, including where corrected by the measurement of subjective and psychological well-being) to progress guided by the search for the well-being of present-day generations necessarily involves reducing the social disparities which are a feature of our society, including:

a. disparities in socio-economic situations, namely the distribution between the two ends of a scale of well-being (from the most unfavourable to the most favourable);
b. disparities in perception, first between material conditions (changes in standard of living) and individual satisfaction and collective development levels and, second, between the appreciation of private and common goods;
c. disparities in satisfaction or utility, between private consumption (individual utility) and the collective impact it generates (collective disutility or collective ill-effects of individual satisfaction).

a. Disparities in economic situations

The first disparity throws up the need to take account, for the well-being of all, of the wide variety of situations between the two ends of a scale of well-being. There is no clear boundary between the two extremes, but rather a kind of interface and/or overlay. Unless consideration is given to this interdependence, the material progress obtained through growth becomes a harmful concept; in a world with limited resources, unchecked improvements in the well-being of the best-off are achieved to the detriment of the worst-off. This entails huge costs for human communities in terms of insecurity, the erosion of solidarity, knowledge and the environment, and conflict.

What is at stake is equity and social justice, essential components of well-being. Ignoring them is tantamount to enabling certain mechanisms (uneven information, restricting the aspirations of the poorest, etc.) to put in place well-being measurements, while overlooking the effects of the distribution of resources and profits in the population. These well-being measurements (disregarding disparities in social justice) can come about only by means of individual interviews carried out by making a clear distinction between the living spaces of those at the bottom of the scale and those at the top. By avoiding a comparison of situations within the same indicator, no idea is obtained of the extent of the gap between the two extremes.

Restricting the aspirations of the poorest would – as Amartya Sen (1987) points out – sustain if not increase inequalities and social polarity without social violence. However, since the latter decades of the 20th century, growing household debt has maintained the illusion that the gaps have not widened in the rich countries. The increase in indebtedness due to wage stagnation is possible because of the ease in obtaining credit. In order to maintain their living standard, a growing percentage of people – especially among the middle classes – are obliged to get into debt. Individual debt combined with collective debt has an adverse effect on social cover and solidarity. The human consequences of this trend towards concealed social polarisation are an increasing loss of security and freedom to experiment and take risks. Social cohesion suffers as a result and societies become more inflexible and bureaucratic. In France, for example, data from the National Statistics and Economic Research Institute (INSEE) reveal that both households and businesses are continuing to become indebted (with the indebtedness rate rising from 65.6% in early 2006 to 74.6% in late 2008); household indebtedness is also growing faster than income levels.

In the many battles they wage, organisations tackling poverty and discrimination highlight the deteriorating living conditions of the poorest and try to instil within society a consciousness that such injustices are unacceptable. However, such action is tending to focus less and less on the widening gaps. On the contrary, in a context of extreme liberalism, there is an attempt to lay the burden of their failure to achieve material well-

being on the least well-off themselves, overlooking all the tax and other mechanisms which are conducive to the concentration of wealth.

Can progress be measured without taking account of these phenomena? Can the effects of disparities be ignored when measuring well-being? Despite the perplexity to which these questions give rise, current research and publications are seeking to show the lack of any real relationship between income distribution and perception of well-being, when in measuring the latter, factors such as friendship and community participation are included. It is also possible to reach the same conclusions by measuring the impact on well-being obtained from a redistribution of wealth (winning the lottery, for instance) by using indicators such as alcohol and cigarette consumption (taken as an indicator of well-being in health).[56] Clearly, the result will be negative. This guide does not set out to debate the research methods leading to such conclusions, which raise questions relating to ethics based on social justice. Rather, it asks how one can define meaningful scales of well-being within one and the same indicator.

The work of the Council of Europe offers an initial response to this question. Using criteria expressed by citizens – representative of social diversity – it puts forward scales for each well-being indicator. This will be dealt with in greater detail in Part 4. Here we shall give just one example: the lower scale of the food indicator should refer to a denial of the conditions for access (scavenging for food in dustbins) and the upper scale, conditions for the sustainability or non-reversibility of well-being (having production and exchange systems ensuring healthy, organic and locally available food).[57] Between these two extremes, a "path of progress" is drawn by the indicator itself: in this specific case, it is a question of making sure that no one ever again has to look for food in a dustbin and gradually everyone can sustainably have access to healthy food.

It is essential to take into account socio-economic disparities in order to build a vision of progress towards well-being (for all), bearing in mind that the upper scale must reflect a social consensus of sustainability.

b. Perception disparities

The most well-known perception disparities are expressed in the analyses of the effects of growth. The first, between material growth and subjective satisfaction, is currently the subject of considerable controversy. It refers to the paradox between the increase in average income and the decrease in the number of satisfied people and even an increase in the number of dissatisfied people, resulting in stagnation in perceived levels of overall well-being. This disparity is the result of a combination of a national quantitative measure (increase in tradable per capita wealth as measured by price: income) and a subjective individual measure (satisfaction through private consumption). Without going into the details of the debate on this paradox, we would like nevertheless to draw attention to the fact that satisfaction and aspirations to satisfaction refer almost exclusively to consumption. Apart from comparisons between countries as to the extent of the paradox, a number of studies are also engaged in comparisons within each country, putting forward the hypothesis that satisfaction is no longer solely dependent on individual income, but on the income level of others (close by). Studies which show the level of satisfaction for dimensions other than consumption assess the impact of the quality of public institutions (the type of institutional processes to satisfy the needs of autonomy, a sense of community and skills) and the effects of culture and collective behaviour. Even on the significance of these aspects of individual satisfaction, however, there is no agreement among researchers (Lora and Chaparro, 2008). Nonetheless, it must be pointed out that most of these analyses are based on data obtained from individual satisfaction surveys: where

56. See, in this connection, Clark and Apouey, 2010.

57. These well-being criteria were expressed during a trial conducted in Timișoara (Romania). The first corresponds to the perception of a Roma woman and the second to that of an entrepreneur.

these approaches take into account the more collective dimension, a competitive (comparative) or empathy dimension is introduced solely with the group to which the interviewees belong.

These methods of individualising perception – which produce results having considerable ideological and political consequences – leave no room for any forward-looking approach to "well-being for all" by the members of a community. A concept of societal progress offering a way forward cannot, however, overlook the question of the perception of the well-being of all: how can we create happy, caring, welcoming communities able to support creative endeavour, communities that generate meaning and aspirations (especially for young people), communities in which a second chance is possible, whose residents are not deprived of their right to exercise responsibility, together managing to envisage their future? Alberto Magnaghi's work on restoring "a place's soul", by actively involving residents "not only in showing others [politicians, business leaders and so on] what they need to do, but also in making a direct contribution to the development of their own living environment and relationships, by linking individual activities [and perceptions] with societal goals" (2006, p. 4), may serve as a source of inspiration for giving up sterile debates and re-establishing what societies have greater need of today: a vision of the future.

The second perception disparity, influenced by the first, is to be found between satisfaction through private goods and through common goods. Research on well-being and quality of life carried out in the United States since the 1970s (Andrews and Withey, 1976; Campbell, Converse and Rogers, 1976) and more recently in Europe (Clark and Senik, 2008; Clark, Frijters and Shields, 2008) shows a lower degree of satisfaction with goods and services supplied by public authorities. In the United States, people complain bitterly about their society whereas in Europe there is moderate satisfaction with public goods, in their various forms (Glatzer, 2008): private goods tend to be rated more highly. In Germany, for example, the satisfaction gap between the most valued goods (marriage, family, neighbourhood, workplace, standard of living, housing, personal health and household income) and the least valued goods (social security, democracy, political participation, environmental protection and public safety) has remained stable over time (ibid.).

In this guide, it is imperative to discuss the political consequence of these results. They may indeed reflect genuine differences in the quality of the goods supplied (private wealth versus public poverty). They also signal the risk of disaffection with the public arena and common goods, which may result in retreat from shared responsibility and a search for private (for those who can afford it) rather than collective solutions to problems of society. Narrowing this gap is a political challenge which requires working methods and the creation of references capable of reactivating a sense of citizen responsibility for maintaining public goods. What kind of societies are we talking about if individual well-being is allowed to flourish while common goods deteriorate? Galbraith in *The economics of innocent fraud: truth for our time* (2004) asked how it was that we think more highly of our personal vacuum cleaner than the work of the street cleaners who keep our public areas neat and tidy.

c. Satisfaction and utility disparities

The last type of disparity concerns the difference between the maximisation of private utility (or satisfaction) by consumption and the minimisation of the importance attached to disutility or collective damage. This disparity in perception (and vision) jeopardises collective living conditions and the future of any civilisation (Brown, 2006).

The issue here is one of choices and freedoms, and is intrinsically related to that of the ensuing ideologies, systems of socio-economic governance and consumption models. Finding ways of narrowing this gap is one of the major challenges of the 21st century and highlights the need for fairly radical transformation, in particular in the conception of freedom of choice, and consequently in behaviour aimed at satisfaction, with implications at various levels. We need to "rethink" our capacity for overall judgments on choices so as to take account of the invisible components and costs of material goods. The fact that individual preferences have become aligned on such goods disguises the fairly serious issue of the differential between private and social costs. We

need to explore together other areas of satisfaction, which are independent of material consumption alone. We also have to identify these non-material goods that society is capable of producing infinitely because they flow from the relationships both between individuals and between individuals and institutions. Lastly, we need to examine one by one well-being criteria expandable to everyone and analyse how they can be achieved.

Regarding societal progress as an urgent imperative and rule of life is essential for the long-term survival of civilisations.

3.3. The progress which present-day generations can offer to future generations

As Edward Burtynsky, a contemporary artist-photographer, said, "our legacy to the future is the choices we make today".[58] By narrowing gaps and disparities today we are choosing to act for future generations. Making other choices presupposes an awareness of the risk of irreversibility, the deadlines for change and the multi-faceted nature of the disparities to be reduced: we need to act against injustice, the ideological contempt of common and public goods, the configuration and satisfaction of aspirations by the constant increase of material consumption (particularly by the most well-off).

This has become all the more relevant given the urgent need to make the right choices to preserve resources, repair the damage already caused and build new common goods. Present-day generations can still perhaps offer this to future generations, subject, however, to at least two conditions: reviewing the temporal dimension of the conception of well-being by incorporating concern for future generations in current assessments, and adopting the idea of complex performance in well-being, taking account of the material and non-material, public and private, individual and collective spheres.

How much time does the present-day generation have left to avoid the irreversibility towards which the disparities analysed above (see the transition from scenario 5 to 6 in Figure 211) are leading? It is particularly difficult to answer this question given that the "exogenous" nature of what is termed progress means that human communities have little control over the repercussions of this for the future. Nonetheless, in a key sector such as the environment, scientific knowledge and measurements of the impact of human activity on the depletion of resources provide us with an idea of the level of urgency:

a. the critical point of irreversibility has already been passed in some areas of natural life, for example in the preservation of biodiversity on earth: it has, it is claimed, entered the sixth major extinction phase in its history. Little is known about the impact of the mass extinction of animal and plant species or how long it will take to restore the Earth's biodiversity;
b. there is perhaps still time to avoid irreversibility by seeking alternatives to industrial and agricultural development based on the use of fossil fuels accumulated underground over hundreds of millions of years (coal, oil and natural gas). However, we would have to go back 55 million years – to a time when the Earth was a tropical planet with a sea-level 80 m higher than at present – to find the same CO_2 levels as we are seeing today, which highlights the urgent need to reverse the trend, by means of production models which do not rely on fossil energy;
c. there may be more room for manoeuvre in other cases. However, activities whose long-term impact is not yet known are often included in this category, for instance, we do not yet know the effects of burying waste from nuclear energy production, which is often thought preferable to the use of fossil energy.[59]

58. See www.edwardburtynsky.com.

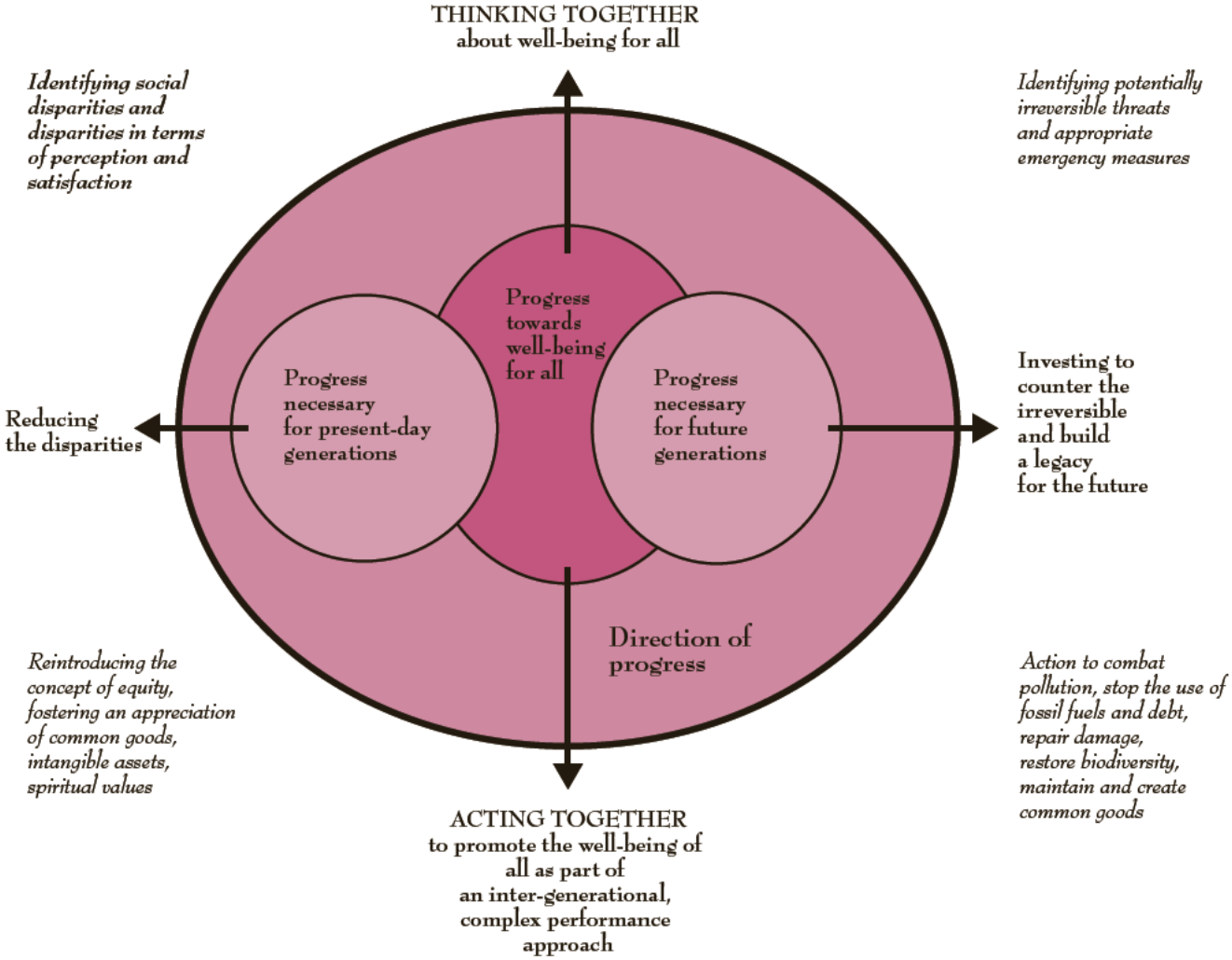
59. See, in this connection, Brown, 2006.

The same exercise could be repeated for human civilisations, the increasing movement of populations, etc. Over and above the risks of environmental irreversibility, social and political conflicts, wars and the rise in violence to control ever more limited resources, for example, the over-consumption of water for food production, may thwart any attempt to work towards sustainable well-being. And then there is the debt issue.

The need to "reverse" choices is all the more urgent given the fact that irreversibility is the issue at stake. Yet in the present context, ideological curbs, ways of institutionalising progress and the emphasis on an individual concept of well-being linked in particular to consumption levels are hardly conducive to taking on board the need to address well-being in an approach which includes future generations, adopting complex performance criteria.

In the light of deadlines and the reduced room for manoeuvre, the question needs to be asked whether it is still possible to secure the well-being of future generations or, in other words, whether it is possible to include among the well-being criteria of today "satisfaction" at having been able to ensure a future for human life. The answer is not a matter for specialists alone – clearly, this is a question addressed to everyone. Only reflection at society level, involving all citizens, can make it possible to reconcile the "reassessed" well-being of present-day generations and that of the generations to come. Moreover, today this reflection must give rise to genuine action plans: we must once again plan, but in a bottom-up way, involving the stakeholders and the citizens themselves. This is the only way that it might be possible to give ourselves the necessary room for manoeuvre to once again contemplate the future.

Figure 212 – Societal progress today



4. Conclusion

In a relatively summarised way, the preceding paragraphs have highlighted the urgent need to devise definition and assessment methods that are able to commit society to an endogenous and responsible approach to progress in achieving well-being for all, including that of future generations. The concept of well-being based on the satisfaction of individual needs through consumption has a price: ever more disparities (in situations, perception and satisfaction) which reduce the ability of present-day generations to preserve and transmit to future generations a heritage in terms of the environment, good governance and culture. What was viewed until recently as a challenge that could be put off until later (once fossil fuels had been exhausted, for example) – finding an operating mode at a constant level of use of natural resources, while at the same time reducing inequalities – has in practice become a challenge for present-day generations.

Getting back, by means of appropriate methods, to the essence of the spirit of humanity – which is to ensure that the greatest number of people, and ideally everyone, can have a sufficient level of spiritual and material goods – means seeking out shared solutions, which requires greater effort by human communities. One of the difficulties which present-day generations have in coping with complexity has been caused by the prevalence of "mechanistic" ways of thinking devised by modern economic theories of well-being, which are far removed from any ethical consideration. In analysing this question, Amartya Sen (1987, p. 6) acknowledges that the mechanistic approach also leads one to describe human motivations in fairly simple terms. Under this approach, ethical considerations, in any deep sense, have scarcely any place in the analysis of human behaviour (ibid.). The separation of ethics and economics has had a profound influence on the simplification of the answer to the Socratic question "How should we live" (together) at all levels: setting of political objectives, methods of data collection, measuring and evaluating progress, etc. Furthermore, in tandem with simplification, we are also faced with questions of power and pressure on the political scene. Simplification thus gives rise to the creation of a certain type of information: individualised, partial, compartmentalised, non-transparent or transformed into a sterile, that is ideological, overload of information. The ideology of simplification deprives society of a debate which sooner or later cannot be avoided.

Any conception of well-being and progress limited by ideology (or ideologies) is unsustainable and will inevitably result in crises, that is, it will be impossible to sustain its momentum in the long term as its negative effects on the future make their presence felt to such an extent that they outweigh the positive effects.

In this context, initiatives, spontaneous or planned, that enable citizens to think about harmonious coexistence lead – as Alberto Magnaghi (2006) has said – to a vision of participatory democracy which is a means not only of revitalising democracy to address the crisis of representative democracy, but also of liberating individual and collective daily life from the overdetermination and coercive imposition of the market, towards self-determination of the multiple styles of production, exchange and consumption. These forms of participation are reproduced on a daily basis as the cement of social and local interests relating to quality of life in contrast to economic, territorial, environmental and infrastructure choices which are no longer acknowledged as favourable to well-being (ibid.).

Although these initiatives represent a hope for reactivating complexity in the public arena, in practice they come up against institutional inertia and resistance. As Alberto Magnaghi (ibid.) further points out, in the light of the considerable reluctance on the part of local and regional authorities to provide opportunities for participatory democracy able to address conflictual models of participation, there is an overwhelming feeling that being open to participation means exposing the ideologies and interests which have now become far removed from the "common feelings" of population groups.

We now need to consider how such opportunities for participatory democracy can be given legitimacy so that they can help open up other prospects and give rise to other hopes.

Chapter 2 – Rethinking strategies for progress

As we have seen, the range of issues related to progress is huge and the challenges facing our societies in the 21st century are just as vast. A radical overhaul is imperative in order to build a model that ensures present generations' well-being while safeguarding future generations' right to progress.

Looking at the current situation and the prevailing strategies in today's society, those challenges are a tough proposition. Yet if we consider the technical and scientific progress that has substantially pushed back the limits of what was previously thought possible for human well-being, we might well wonder why humankind has not been able to secure the possibility of a dignified life for all its members? Why, despite all this "progress", do almost three quarters of humankind live below the poverty line (less than one euro per head per day)? Why does one person in six go hungry?[60] And why are the Millennium Development Goals,[61] which are relatively modest when set against the challenges of the 21st century, proving impossible to fulfil in the short or medium term in many countries?

More than a question of technical or economic capability, the central issue of progress is a political one, which boils down to creating the capability to ensure the well-being of all. It calls for a revitalisation of our democratic culture, leading to a culture of proactiveness, joint endeavour and shared responsibilities. It is also a matter of developing epistemological approaches focusing on the ability of individuals to act/think within their life environment, and not solely their ability to react to proposals (to principles/ideologies advocated elsewhere). This approach must be pursued over time, using new tools for measuring and evaluating results. This is what we shall be looking at in this chapter, in a four-step approach:

- formulating new reference points for evaluating progress;
- mobilising all available potential, including the intangible resources of women and men in human communities (moral resources, time, know-how, culture, desire for involvement, civic mindedness and sense of responsibility, etc.);
- identifying the changes to be made, including the shift from practices of delegating/outsourcing responsibilities to practices entailing co-responsibility, and also identifying what this implies in terms of organisation;
- placing the values of "community life" at the centre of the democratic debate.

1. Evaluating progress in the light of new reference points

1.1. Defining well-being for all

Well-being for all, although determined by present generations, must also incorporate a timescale encompassing future generations. It commits every human community when interactive processes are consciously established, for at least three reasons:

- interactivity opens the way to an approach based on co-responsibility. Well-being defined individually, in the absence of any inter-relation, is not reasoned and gives free rein to subjective sentiment at a specific moment in time, which can bring out incompatibilities between personal wishes

60. See, for example, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) reports on the possibilities of covering world food needs, World Health Organization (WHO) reports on health, etc.

61. See www.un.org/millenniumgoals.

and the social and environmental capability to ensure the well-being of all. An interactive definition makes it possible to reason beyond individual rights and desires and take into account the responsibilities to be shared in a vision of social "sustainability";

– an interactive definition of well-being is itself a generator of well-being: by gradually breaking down the obstacles, it leads players to put forward consensual viewpoints;

– such an approach lays bare the multidimensional nature of well-being and makes it easier to relate each dimension to the others.

Accordingly, the interactive definition of well-being (for all) plays a decisive role in formulating new reference points: first, for resetting the objectives of a human community and refocusing the democratic debate in relation to the objectives; second, for encouraging closer links between the players so that they learn together to set priorities in the realisation that individual well-being and the well-being of all are inseparable parts of a whole. To ensure the long-term integration of outcomes of interactive approaches, the "well-being of all" must become a component of the political and institutional system or, at least, influence it through political principles geared to "community life". As this guide's interest is precisely in the long term, identifying criteria for and indicators of well-being must open the way for processes in which society learns what common interest is about and we become aware that we belong to a living community, so that institutions can tailor their commitment and make it more relevant, while drawing on the potential of citizens themselves. There are numerous examples demonstrating the benefits of making the exploration of criteria for the well-being of all part of a long-term political framework.[62]

1.2. Reducing disparities

Given the context of the 21st century, it is more apparent than ever that striking an intergenerational balance in the objective of progress towards the well-being of all may be envisaged only if we reduce disparities relating to situation, perception and satisfaction, as mentioned in the previous chapter.

a. Reducing disparities of situation

In times when natural resources were regarded as inexhaustible, disparities between the situations of people, regions or countries could be seen as differences in the rate of development. Indeed, economic theory advocated the idea that a situation in which some gained while others stayed at the same level was always better than a status quo with no one gaining, regardless of the disparity it created. In the theory of unbalanced growth he put forward in 1958, the American economist Albert Hirschman proposed that growth be seen as a chain of disequilibria, beginning in certain sectors or regions before spreading to others. On the assumption of linkages between industrial sectors (backward and forward-linked), Hirschman advocated focusing investment efforts on a limited number of sectors (particularly heavy industry) selected for their domino effects.

In the context of the 21st century, the idea of stimulating development by creating poles of growth using non-renewable resources is outmoded, as the massive draining of resources by some deprives others, limiting prospects for future progress. We can see this with the developing countries, which currently face restrictions on natural resources in contrast to the countries which exploited the available fossil energy reserves and raw materials for their industrial development. At a time when it is becoming a matter of urgency to reduce or even

62. See, in this connection, the example from Australia presented in Part 1. The interactive definition of well-being within different cultural and linguistic groups enabled the authorities of Melbourne's suburban districts to review their health strategy while substantially increasing the understanding of citizens themselves of the issues at stake.

halt the extraction of those resources, the poorest countries are refusing to accept this logic, which in practice could be acceptable only if a radically new concept of progress and development is promoted globally. But that is a responsibility to be shouldered primarily by those who have benefited from abundant resources until now. For even if the wealthy countries develop new "green" technologies to cut fossil energy consumption and gear their efforts to sustainable development, how could the developing countries agree to do so if exploiting that know-how reproduced the same old logic that there are the pioneers and then those who will be "naturally" drawn along by the movement?

In such a delicate sphere of global balances, the response through technical progress and its domino effects is no longer enough. Narrowing the gaps at global level requires another capability: that of forging equitable interdependent relationships. Otherwise, we will be caught up in an irreversible situation here: despite the threats hanging over the planet, the emerging countries (China, India, Brazil, etc.) are tending to reproduce the same development model based on the concentration of wealth and the use of non-renewable energy and resources, while those who have not reached this stage, notably in Africa, remain in a state of poverty and material discomfort, which makes them even more inclined towards a model which must now be abandoned as a matter of urgency.

At local level, narrowing the gaps between social groups living in a given area is also essential as a means of redefining the model for progress and the underlying aspirations. Widening the gaps creates fragmented societies where there is no possibility of any shared vision of a sustainable future. Apart from the use of fiscal and distributive policies, if the gaps are to be narrowed, it is essential to aim for sustainability in the interest of social justice.

It has become crucial, therefore, to replace the inertia of linkage (which, in any case, is subject to power patterns) with activation of responsibilities as a principle of progress. Switching from progress through pull effects or linkage to progress through synchronous activation, where knowledge and desires are all mobilised to the same end, implies that the very manner in which progress is measured must change: measurements based on averages (yielding comparisons) must be replaced with measurements gauging the reduction of disparities (yielding a multidimensional view). It is only in these terms that progress may now be considered as such.

b. Reducing disparities of perception and satisfaction

Seeking to reduce disparities of situation raises questions of global values and ethics, which means that disparities of perception and satisfaction must also be tackled. These different aspects are related: it is only by achieving progress in reducing the latter that we can envisage making headway with the former.

Some initiatives mentioned in the first part of this guide suggest the kind of routes that might be taken in terms of reducing disparities of perception and satisfaction. This applies in particular to those carried out in Italy by the Rete Nuovo Municipio. The residents of the municipalities concerned are learning afresh to identify the landscape elements, architectural and cultural heritage components, public services, local traditions and know-how that contribute to their well-being and satisfaction. In this way, they discover a much broader scope of causes for satisfaction than the one restricted sphere dependent on individual income and consumption. They find these sources of satisfaction in the richness and beauty of their local area, their culture and community life. The case of Minamata in Japan also shows how people have taken back possession of their collective "assets": in 2001 this village, devastated by chemical pollution, drew up a local decree for the "creation of an active village" focusing on three key strands:

- creation of a refined view/active scenario building;
- interaction between towns and villages/interaction between different viewpoints;

– creation of wealthy villages through the interaction of three economies (monetary economy, co-operative economy and self-sufficiency economy).

These examples show the scale of political work needed to get citizens to appreciate common goods and home-grown know-how, increase their civic involvement and seek to master their own destiny in a movement of solidarity.

Reducing disparities of perception and satisfaction also requires wide-ranging democratic debate which, by drawing on existing experience, enables common goods to be associated with satisfaction gained from living together. A fresh take on common goods also means activating new energies geared to preserving and building on them. It is a matter of ensuring that human communities can devise and build new common goods, amongst other things by combining material and non-material goods and using powers of imagination, as the residents of Minamata village suggest.

c. Defining "untenable levels" and "appropriate levels"

If we set the reduction of disparities as an objective of progress, a next step would be to identify what may be called "untenable levels", namely where reducing disparities becomes impossible. If a minority takes possession of most of the available resources, it will be impossible for the majority to arrive at the same level of well-being.

On the other hand, we could define the "appropriate levels" as those required to achieve progress towards reducing disparities.

This distinction concerns all the types of disparities referred to previously, namely disparities in situation, perception and satisfaction. It has a particularly major role to play in reconciling different objectives. To take goods manufacturing and services as an example, beyond a certain level, maximising profitability cannot be reconciled with other objectives, such as well-being in the workplace.

1.3. From single-criterion progress to multidimensional societal progress

Reducing disparities as a central part of societal progress prompts us to think again about the multidimensional nature of well-being. First, as previously pointed out, this involves taking into account, simultaneously, the well-being of present and future generations, and then acknowledging, where the well-being of current generations is concerned, the multiple dimensions of which it consists (material, non-material, public and private, individual and collective). This relearning process is picking up pace more or less everywhere. Numerous proposals for measuring well-being and societal progress, put forward both by different countries and by international institutions, incorporate a multiplicity of spheres, and they all cater for future generations, through environmental measures. The latter appear in **bold** in the comparative table drawn up by the OECD[63] under its Global Project to Measure the Progress of Societies (Table 221).

63. OECD, "A framework to measure the progress of societies. Global Project to Measure the Progress of Societies", 2009.

Table 221 – Various types of measures of "progress" and "well-being" according to the OECD

Outcomes

Taxonomy proposed by the OECD	Measures of Australia's progress	Canadian Index of Well-Being	Measuring Ireland's progress	Indicators of social progress, Hungary
Physical and mental health	Health	Healthy populations	Life expectancy; health care expenditure; fertility; age of population; population distribution	Health
Knowledge and understanding	Education and training	Educated populace	Science and technology graduates; research and development expenditure; early school-leavers; literacy; third-level education; pupil–teacher ratio; patent application	Education
Work and leisure	Work	Time use	Labour productivity; older workers; unemployment rate; migration	Labour market
Material well-being	Housing: financial hardship		Risk of poverty; jobless households; lone-parent families; dwelling completions	Situation of young people; situation of older people; financial situation, consumption, poverty; housing
Interpersonal relationships	Family, community and social cohesion	Community vitality	Living alone	
Freedom and self-determination				
Land	**The natural landscape**	**Ecosystem health**		**Natural resources**
Freshwater	**The natural landscape**		**River water quality; acid rain precursors**	
Oceans and seas	**Oceans and estuaries**			
Biodiversity	**The natural landscape/ air and atmosphere**			
Atmosphere			**Urban air quality**	

Inputs

Taxonomy proposed by the OECD	Measures of Australia's progress	Canadian Index of Well-Being	Measuring Ireland's progress	Indicators of social progress, Hungary
National income	National income; productivity; competitiveness and openness; inflation		Gross domestic product; international transactions; international trade; exchange rates; interest rates; harmonised consumer price index; price levels; regional income	Level of development and growth; efficiency, competitiveness, stability; knowledge-based economy
National wealth	National wealth		Gross fixed capital formation	
Human rights and civic engagement	Democracy, governance and citizenship	Civic engagement	Voter turnout; official development assistance; gender pay gap	
Security and crime	Crime		Government debt; public balance; murders; headline offences; social protection expenditure	Social protection net
Access to services	Communication, transport		Transport; education expenditure; mortgages; household Internet access	
Cultural heritage, arts and leisure	Culture and leisure	Arts and culture		Culture
Resource extraction and consumption	**The human environment; international environmental concerns**		**Greenhouse gases; energy intensity of economy; waste management**	**Sustainable production and consumption; climate change and energy**
Pollution				

Although they are useful, the indicators in this table do not link the question of the inter-relations between them to that of their development in relation to one another. The question here is: what impact can a policy conducted in a given field have on the other dimensions?

1.4. Evaluating the impact of policies in the light of multidimensional progress

Progress and well-being cannot therefore be reduced to a single variable or a list of variables, as if the different dimensions were interchangeable or contingent upon a single list of quantifiable factors. Multidimensional evaluation of the impact of policies accordingly leads us to reconsider public action. In standard approaches,

policies are evaluated in relation to specific targets – mostly quantitative or semi-quantitative. Evaluating a policy in relation to the multiple dimensions of well-being makes it possible to assess not only the immediate objective but also the impact on dimensions which would otherwise go unnoticed. So, evaluation of this kind entails discovering the positive and negative implications for well-being of an initiative, an activity or a policy. For example, policy on access to a service such as social housing could be evaluated in terms of social mix, security, leisure activities, access to transport, social balance and social cohesion, living environment, privacy, possibility of exercising responsibilities and autonomy, etc.

A multidimensional grid should lead us to evaluate the diversity of objectives which any initiative ought to further, by revisiting the very nature of a shift from single-criterion progress evaluation to a multidimensional approach. Accordingly, since the performance of an activity or policy is assessed in the light of a number of non-interchangeable criteria, multifunctionality (of any initiative, institution, sector, etc.) de facto becomes its primary benchmark. In this way, multiple links of multifunctionality may be identified and serve as a common thread within an innovative approach to societal progress.[64]

The diverse and non-interchangeable nature of the objectives means having to rethink progress. Composite measurement of impact performance based on multiple criteria must prevail over a single or isolated measurement. In the final analysis, the aim is to achieve a number of positive results and not just one positive result, however high-scoring. The conventional approach is turned on its head insofar as just one very good result would be considered as poor performance if the other objectives are not obtained or even ignored. Composite performance stems from the ability to fulfil several objectives, not simply out of necessity but also because the more such an approach is embraced, the more feasible links of multifunctionality will become.

Efforts to achieve multidimensional progress, like those to reduce disparities, lead to a similar conclusion: true societal progress calls for a holistic, global and inclusive approach rather than one that is partial, specialised and exclusive.

2. Identifying and mobilising new potential

Identifying and mobilising new potential is also fundamental to meeting the challenges of progress today. There are two ideas to be explored:

- the potential which has been neglected for reasons linked to the functioning of the market economy;
- the resources which have been underestimated or even stifled, particularly the moral potential or resources of the men and women who make up society.

2.1. Unleashing neglected potential

Progress towards well-being is conducive to new potential that has hitherto been barely exploited if not forgotten, left by the wayside or rejected outright. The fact that efforts to achieve effectiveness and efficiency are restricted to the market economy sphere alone,[65] while many other areas of life completely slip through the net, opens up various prospects. This lack of proportion often verges on the absurd: on the one hand, pressure is

64. An exercise of this kind was carried out in experimental form on 70 social initiatives by the Mayor of Mulhouse in France, with the participation of operators and beneficiaries. It made it possible to incorporate a more analytical dimension into evaluation while providing a dual perspective: the positive effects in fields other than those originally targeted and the shortcomings or oversights in relation to a multidimensional approach to well-being.

65. Effectiveness is the ability to achieve the targeted result and efficiency is effectiveness in relation to cost.

pushed up to extreme and unbearable levels to the point of generating truly distressing situations, particularly in the sphere of work, whereas other spheres, in particular consumption and the disposal of private wealth, are allowed to drift unchecked in the direction of ineffectiveness and wastefulness or even encouraged to do so. This tragedy of today's society has reached such a height that it is becoming impossible to tackle issues of effectiveness without mentioning in the same breath the pressures inherent in economic dynamics.

Nevertheless there are individual or collective initiatives which counteract this pattern and show possible routes to an improved life balance where well-being, responsibility and effectiveness go hand in hand, as much in production as in consumption. Gains in effectiveness can be made by linking consumption and responsibility. This requires a degree of discernment in choices as regards avoiding wastage. However, in addition to serving as a means of exercising social and environmental responsibility, an approach of this kind opens up a whole range of experimentation, creativity, exchanges, partnership-based and social cohesion-oriented initiatives and job creation. Consideration of more private spheres (spiritual, personal) shows that it is possible to be happy by regulating one's level of satisfaction.[66]

2.2. Revealing human potential

In a world where progress has become an exogenous variable, assimilated to mercantile production and consumption, the resources of creativity, participation, commitment, effort, solidarity and the like are often neglected.

Refocusing on endogenous resources, derived from individuals themselves, is vital for ensuring a thrust of progress meeting the objectives of the new approach required. Harnessing these resources is also vital because they are the very aspects of well-being that are missing from the modern world. Bringing back a meaning to life, a hope, recognising the contribution and creativity of everyone, securing personal development in a spirit of solidarity are all features that allow the emergence of a virtuous circle of well-being, by reducing disparities of perception and satisfaction. Such individual and collective moral resources,[67] know-how and imaginative and creative skills are also essential for a model of progress and well-being in the context of limited material resources.

3. Identifying change

3.1. From compartmentalisation of responsibilities to co-responsibility[68]

Co-responsibility is the challenge for our societies which are faced with the need to relearn the complexity and interdependence of roles and decisions … societies destined to evolve towards systematic ethical evaluations, as Amartya Sen (1987) suggests. Faced with the complexity of solutions required to ensure societal progress, co-responsibility is needed at all levels. But how is it to be achieved?

66. See Revel and Ricard, 1998.

67. An example of mobilising moral resources is provided by the city of Bogotá in Colombia, where Antanas Mockus, former mayor and Green Party candidate in the May 2010 presidential election, succeeded in cutting consumption by 40% by appealing to the sense of responsibility of everyone, citizens, companies, local authorities, etc., through a very well orchestrated awareness-raising campaign.

68. Many of the ideas put forward in this section were expressed by Sabine Urban, professor emeritus at Strasbourg University, in an interview with Gilda Farrell; see Farrell, 2009.

Let us first explain what we mean by responsibility. Responsibility can have varying interpretations. It carries an element of risk, particularly when it runs counter to imposed frameworks or choices that are considered unacceptable. In the classic meaning of the term, responsibility fits into institutional and legal frameworks which demarcate spheres of communal life and lay down the relevant rules. It is difficult to imagine otherness and the margins of manoeuvre granted to others without an established modus operandi of the social (or political) system. Therefore, it is within a framework of the rule of law – where the social balance is the starting point of human interdependence – that compliance with the applicable rules, whether institutional or contractual, makes it possible to live harmoniously in society, where otherness takes form. But responsibility is also about seeking the truth by free, even adversarial debate, and above all one that is not distorted by an ideology that compels humans to reach agreement in fear. It implies the sharing of power; being capable of responding is having the power to do so. Responsibility without capabilities is a kind of moral alienation, of condemnation: it terrifies people and plays on feelings of guilt.

From an individual point of view, responsibility sometimes emerges as an expression of self-determination in the face of social control procedures to which some refuse to bow down.

However, co-responsibility or interdependence in responsibility is something else. First, it implies the possibility of combining short-term and long-term perspectives. The long term is social justice, including the possibility for the next generations to decide on their future. At present, short-term excesses are signing away the future by burdening states, corporations and citizens with debt and destroying our physical and moral landscape. Against this background of undermined confidence and hope, co-responsibility opens the way for forward-looking responsibility, which shares concern over the future by mediating between the attraction of immediate gain and the harmful social and environmental consequences in the long term.

Since responsibility is linked to values matured by historical experience and in relation to specific roles, how are different conceptions of responsibility to be compared and reconciled? How can we make the forces at work converge towards an acceptable consensus of joint social responsibility on a given topic? How are the different players in society to be encouraged to agree on complex challenges to be tackled at several hierarchical levels and with spatial/territorial references that are not the same?

Speaking of "convergence of responsibilities" leads us to consider political responsibility. Like the common assets of humankind, co-responsibility is not something that can be privatised. Co-responsibility needs principles and rules based on a common vision, such as those devised, still on a very modest scale, for the Kyoto Protocol.

"Objectively speaking, we are in a situation of co-responsibility at all levels today, with regard to the state of the planet and the rights of future generations, reducing disparities, sharing wealth and many other aspects. But the joint decision-making, at all levels underpinning this co-responsibility, is far from easy to achieve. It cannot be said that the responsibility of multinational corporations, powerfully organised, for better or for worse, matches that of the countless small and medium-sized businesses scattered throughout the world, which are politically impotent to varying degrees but which provide the bulk of the world's jobs and create its wealth" (Farrell, 2009). Powers are significantly unequal, but what about the responsibilities? Is it imaginable that a union or association (even a worldwide one) of fishermen would wield the equivalent influence and therefore (joint) decision-making power to one that represented the world's oil companies?

And then there is inertia to overcome. Even in a context where responsibilities and roles are becoming increasingly permeable, crossing the boundaries of conventional conceptions of responsibility generates conflicts.

Learning co-responsibility will take time. Co-responsibility implies a culture of sharing. Such a culture is linked to the ability to take risks. But when the context instils a fear of what tomorrow might bring, that paralysing existential fear, it is psychologists who take over from political and social exchange and "active life" is sacrificed, as it can be led only in a spirit of encounter and dialogue with others. Fear paralyses social intelligence, as Antonio Negri (2007) shows. Fear as an instrument of social control is contrary to the idea of a society that develops through knowledge and interdependent, systemic (therefore complex) and global responsibility. A society which needs thought cannot be forged in a world dominated by fear. It needs room for risk and must recognise that people have the right to make mistakes.

Since such a society hinges on the concepts of reciprocity and influence,[69] reappropriating a culture of co-responsibility needs renewed methods of deliberation, negotiation, recognition of the deep-lying interdependence of the roles, choices and decisions of the different players. Co-responsibility is a real process of learning how to resolve the dilemmas of modern-day society. It must involve the idea of multilateral obligations and acceptance of a change in the definition of specific responsibilities. If we focus on the responsibilities of the different players, we can see that each of them has a legally defined main or dominant responsibility: companies have a responsibility to create value; the public authorities to regulate and distribute wealth and protect citizens; citizens to comply with rules, etc. Co-responsibility requires the definition of complementary responsibilities and acceptance of the influence of others, notably citizens, by powerful authorities (public authorities, corporations and private entities). Yet the latter have legal "prerogatives" which sometimes enable them to evade having to repair the damage caused to the community.

Generally speaking, since "complementary" responsibilities are not yet laid down in norms, they leave greater latitude for the idea of sharing, the configuration of new areas of reciprocity and encounters between players. Each of them is able to broaden the defined scope of their own responsibility without being restricted by the inertia inherent in conventional conceptions. Complementary responsibilities are often based on ethical considerations and the need to create alternatives to cope with change. Nevertheless, their main benefit is that they change the normative reference frameworks. Otherwise, the risk that goodwill cannot be sustained may result in the status quo being maintained.

3.2. The prerequisites for co-responsibility

To achieve genuine co-responsibility, it is vital to overcome the conventional models of specific responsibility, under which, for instance, the citizen is regarded by the public authorities and corporations as a consumer, investor, voter, customer, lobbyist, user, member of the public, etc. In a model of co-responsibility, citizens become co-decision makers, co-producers, co-operators, innovators, experimenters, partners, risk-takers and entrepreneurs in areas of common interest, etc. Co-responsibility should also enable citizens to perceive their capability to co-manage their own future.

69. The following ideas were generated by discussion within the advisory group working on "A Europe of shared social responsibilities" set up by the Council of Europe in partnership with the European Union to look into this subject.

Diagram 222 – Example of a model of responsibility and of co-responsibility in relation to citizens

Model of "specific" responsibility (powers that do not change)	Model of co-responsibility (redistribution of powers)
Players:	**Players:**
Public authorities: administration and services Private bodies: enterprises and services Citizens complying with norms/rules, with moral obligations	Public authorities: administration and services Private bodies: enterprises and services Citizens given legitimacy in their power of choice, influence and action
Role of citizens:	**Role of citizens:**
Customer, user, member of the public, voter, consumer, lobbyist, investor, etc.	Co-decision maker, co-operator, partner, co-producer, risk-taker and entrepreneur in areas of common interest, creators of goods and resources of common interest (material and non-material), etc.

The first model – with little or no shared responsibility – does not require any positive interaction between powerful authorities and citizens. The second model – the co-responsibility model – may be put into practice by interaction between authorities and citizens, both in the devising of policies and in their implementation or by the granting of areas for deliberation, encounters and expression.

It is within the latter model that citizens can be asked to feel co-responsible, because their action is given legitimacy by a context where efforts for change are shared and their new roles are recognised, at the level of both decision making and risk-taking and capacity for initiative.

Ultimately, co-responsibility transcends forms of public-private partnership in which public authorities wield the decision-making power, even though those forms of partnership are, to a certain extent, a force for renewing the concept of responsibility. Co-responsibility is a political culture that forms and develops new collective competencies for managing societal progress in well-being.

4. Placing values at the heart of democratic debate

A culture of co-responsibility for the well-being of all can develop only within a context where values are placed to the fore: in particular a sense of justice, appreciation of common goods, solidarity, the linkage between private decisions and collective life, tolerance of/interest in difference/openness and dialogue. Consideration of the well-being of all, and therefore that of others as much as one's own, lies at the basis of those values. The Council of Europe brings together those values in the concept of social cohesion, which European societies are called on to build around four pillars:[70]

- fairness/non-discrimination in access to resources, rights, etc;
- dignity and recognition of diversity;
- autonomy and personal development of everyone and therefore transparency and fluidity in relations and exchanges of information;
- participation and involvement of everyone in the public domain and therefore in decision making.

Co-responsibility requires participatory, open and bottom-up democratic debate, complementing the state's efforts to guarantee lawfulness, protection and regulation.

70. For the key elements for social cohesion and the well-being of all mentioned here, see Council of Europe, 2005. The experiments subsequently carried out in localities, corporations, etc., provide other complementary elements.

5. Conclusion

As shown in this chapter, rethinking progress today implies a fundamental overhaul of strategies, summarised by Table 223.

Table 223 – New strategies for progress

Strategies:	The challenges for present generations in ensuring the well-being of all imply **new needs**	involving **new ways of doing things**	**new ways of conceiving of progress**	and **new shared knowledge to be built**
Reference points for evaluating societal progress	Conceptualise the well-being of all	Define the criteria and indicators interactively	Shift from well-being defined by specialists to well-being defined by citizens	Indicators of progress in the well-being of all
	Reduce disparities	Re-establish fairness and the value of common and public goods in individual satisfaction; reduce the automatic use of resources	Shift from progress measured in terms of mean growth to progress measured in terms of reducing disparities	Indicators of disparities: appropriate levels and untenable levels
	Shift from single-criterion progress to multi-criteria progress	Evolve from GDP or per capita income to a set of interdependent indicators	Shift from progress considered on the basis of only one indicator to several indicators	Set of indicators/ criteria for progress
	Move towards multidimensional performance	Devise any activity/initiative in relation to all the objectives of well-being and societal progress and not solely in relation to a specific objective	Shift from a problem-driven approach to a multi-dimensional approach	Sets of indicators/ criteria for evaluation of impact
	Move towards a global action strategy	Devise activities within a global strategy and no longer on an individual basis		Sets of indicators for global evaluation
New potential to be mobilised	Reactivate the potential for efficiency that has been neglected	Shift from efficiency considered solely in terms of work productivity to efficiency in terms of use (non-wastage) and satisfaction levels	Conceive of balance not in terms of supply/ demand but between "areas of efficiency" and rethink the problem of choices	Fair ratios and unacceptable ratios
	Mobilise endogenous human potential	Evolve from considering only material resources to considering non-material resources too (particularly human potential = moral resources)	Rethink the problem of choices in terms of the social dynamics of well-being and no longer solely in terms of output/input	Knowledge of key elements for mobilising human potential and moral resources
Positioning	Shift from compartmentalisation of responsibilities to co-responsibility	Spell out the idea and processes leading to co-responsibility	Integration/articulation of individual and collective choices	Concerted development of indicators
Democratic debate	Focus democratic debate on the values of community life	Shift from a democracy of compromise based on upholding individual interests to a democracy of consensus geared to seeking the well-being of all	Conceive of democratic progress on the basis of sharing common values and the views of the weakest	Parameters and indicators of the smooth functioning of democracy

On the basis of the initiatives considered in the first part of the guide, we must establish to what extent they contribute to these new strategies for progress in well-being. This will be the subject of the next chapter.

Chapter 3 – Contributions, limitations and further development of the existing initiatives for societal progress

Are the initiatives described in the first part in line with the new strategies for progress required to meet the challenges of the 21st century identified in this second part of the guide? Are they capable of responding to the needs involved in these new strategies in terms of new ways of doing things, new ways of conceiving of progress or building new shared knowledge? Can they achieve this end on their own or do other, complementary solutions have to be sought in other types of initiatives and, if so, which ones? What are their limitations and what do they lack to become a force for genuine societal progress capable of tackling the challenges of our times?

We shall seek to answer these questions in this chapter.

1. Citizen initiatives and the challenges of societal progress

Analysis of the characteristics of the initiatives described in this guide has highlighted a number of points of convergence which tie in with the strategies for progress needed today. First, they all reflect a concern for progress towards universal well-being, either explicitly or implicitly. Moreover, we have seen that they are all geared towards building a caring and co-responsible society. In this respect, they are clearly consistent with promoting co-responsibility and distributing chances/opportunities and wealth more fairly, thereby also reducing disparities.

In addition, they challenge the monolithic view of progress restricted to growth by developing other areas of progress, especially in the social and environmental fields, and consequently also other indicators of progress. Some even already involve a more comprehensive and multidimensional approach, going further than just dealing with specific issues.

They also involve the unleashing of new, endogenous human potential, precisely because they are aimed at participation and civic engagement. They generate both new types of knowledge and other ways of approaching life and making choices. In this connection, through increased awareness, social bonds and collective processes, they play a direct or indirect part in reactivating new areas of efficiency and skills. Lastly, they are undoubtedly a key factor in the renewal of democracy and the values of "living together" in harmony.

In conclusion, these initiatives are geared towards the societal progress needed today. But are they capable on their own of changing the direction progress takes? Probably not. They do, however, play a crucial part in securing real change, as they bring debate about progress to the very heart of society, involving its various component elements, starting with citizens themselves. Moreover, as has been indicated, various areas of complementarity exist between the initiatives and could in combination make them more meaningful and effective.

Three questions therefore arise:

- How can these areas of complementarity be expressed and made operational and effective?
- Apart from the initiatives analysed in this guide, what other initiatives that also contribute to societal progress currently exist and offer other forms of complementarity required for the expression of such progress? And, once again, how should they be linked?
- How can a link be made with politicians and public authorities who are also considering the issue of strategies for societal progress and taking corresponding measures both locally and globally?

1.1. Giving expression to areas of complementarity between initiatives which "redefine" indicators in partnership with citizens

In the first part of this guide, the image of the "cube of potential complementarities for societal progress" highlights the various possible areas of complementarity between initiatives, in an ideal representation of societal progress. This involves all players in society (vertical axis of the cube), in all phases of progress (horizontal axis) and at all levels of society (front/rear). With the cube, it is possible to show the range of fields in which complementarity needs to be ensured in order to promote societal progress in all respects (from theory to action).

However, while the cube helps us understand the areas of complementarity between the various initiatives, it does not offer a solution for making them effective on the ground. That requires the processes involving citizens and communities gradually to expand in terms of players, phases and levels and build on efforts made elsewhere so as to become vehicles for the necessary societal changes.

In practice, however, this happens only rarely, for various reasons. The first is that many of the initiatives are in fact responses to specific problems. The second is that there are not only problems regarding a lack of information about what could be done but also difficulties in terms of networking and of implementing mutual learning processes between initiatives of different kinds. The existing networks mostly comprise initiatives which follow the same principles and apply the same methodologies. Opportunities for dialogue and exchanges between "different" initiatives are more difficult to establish and are therefore almost non-existent.

Developments of this kind also, however, come up against established institutional situations which make it impossible to go beyond certain predefined boundaries. In this respect, the initiatives often occupy the "gaps" in public measures and society at large, namely areas which are not already covered by well-established regulatory mechanisms or procedures. Like many others, they make up for functions which are not, or are no longer, performed in conventional manners.

In the case of countries where regulatory mechanisms (public and private) break down, a plethora of citizen initiatives spring up to fill the gap in a whole range of areas. A recent example here was Argentina at the height of the crisis which followed the collapse of the markets and the financial system and the bankruptcy of the state.

1.2. Seeking complementarity with other types of citizen initiatives

So far, we have looked at initiatives carried out in partnership with citizens from the angle of a new approach to the meaning of progress and indicators. There are, however, many other areas where citizen initiatives are emerging with societal goals.

These initiatives help us to move forward with the new strategies for progress, in particular in terms of building a caring and co-responsible society (with the goal of well-being for all), harnessing new human potential and revitalising democratic debate concerning the values of living together in harmony.

If, for instance, we take the "Establishing the current situation" and "Making projections" phases (see Figure 133), we find a range of initiatives aimed at building a vision for the future in partnership with citizens without, however, going through a preliminary phase of defining progress and indicators. One example here is Future Search,[71] the methods of which have already been tried and tested. More generally, participatory plan-

71. www.futuresearch.net.

ning has been the subject of much testing and research in relation to the use of space, forward analysis and strategic design, etc.

Similarly, in the case of the "Deciding and committing" phase, which concerns decision taking and the sharing of responsibilities, there are many initiatives which seek to facilitate dialogue between public players, private players and citizens about decisions taken and mutual commitments.[72] And in the case of the "Taking action" phase, there is no lack of examples of initiatives involving citizens with a view to achieving a societal objective in the general interest.[73]

The picture can be completed by referring to the *ex post* evaluation phase (evaluation after the event). Here, too, there are interesting examples of links between the authorities and citizens such as in the case of "CittàSlow" (literally "slow towns").[74]

This very brief overview (confined to a few of the existing initiatives) highlights the great range of citizen initiatives which are seeking responses to societal progress, often in conjunction with the authorities. The "cube of potential complementarities for societal progress" analysis grid gives us a better understanding of how they differ and yet also complement one another. Each type of initiative and/or approach focuses on a particular phase in the process of progress and very often also on a particular level. This hints at the great benefit that could be achieved by making links by integrating these different initiatives in a comprehensive approach: promoting the latter should help new strategies for progress to emerge.

The initiatives which seek to "rethink" the meaning of progress and related indicators probably have a particular part to play in ensuring integration, as they facilitate the definition of a reference framework which can provide a foothold for other initiatives. Links with the authorities are crucial in this regard.

1.3. Making a link with public policies

One of the difficulties affecting the further development of citizen initiatives stems from the fact that they occupy what we called the "gaps" in public measures or put forward alternatives to public action without finding scope for genuine consultation on the apportionment of roles and responsibilities.

How can we move from a situation where the authorities regard these initiatives as being complementary to their own action to one where measures geared towards the general interest are devised and carried out in the context of processes involving consultation, joint production and joint decision making? This raises the dual issue of the legitimacy of action taken by, and in partnership with, citizens and of the role of the authorities in promoting co-responsibility.

72. Reference may be made to all the horizontal partnerships organised within given areas of the kind which are found in some EU programmes (LEADER, URBAN, EQUAL). Particular emphasis should also be placed on the example of participatory budgets, which were originally launched in Porto Alegre in Brazil with the city's municipal authorities. They are now employed in many countries, on the initiative of citizens, local authorities or international institutions such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Participatory budgets are a particularly interesting form of co-ordination, as they introduce participatory democracy into the use of public funds.

73. These include, in particular, all social and solidarity-based economy models which seek to introduce alternative criteria for economic progress based on the values of democracy, solidarity, fairness and respect for different cultures and the environment. The many initiatives which exist in this area help forge a whole range of know-how for rethinking societal progress in all areas of economic life. Reference should also be made to the Transition Towns movement established several years ago in Ireland which is now expanding in many other countries – a civic movement geared primarily towards immediate action using specific methods (permaculture, re-dimensioning of space, etc.) to build an economy without fossil fuels and prepare for the time after "peak oil" (www.transitiontowns.org and http://villesentransition.net).

74. These were launched in Italy, but now exist in 47 countries; they are based on a process of evaluation and certification involving criteria of social interaction, use of local products and sustainable development (www.cittaslow.net).

The legitimacy is linked to recognition of the public nature of the initiatives geared towards the general interest. The issue is not straightforward, as it touches on the very nature of public action and its definition: that demands analysis of the way public action is conceived and of the underlying practices and cultural factors.

The authorities' role in promoting co-responsibility involves a facilitating function which should systematically be added to the three conventional functions of the state: originating, regulatory and remedial.[75]

1.4. Conclusion

While initiatives such as those analysed in the first part of this guide play a key part in promoting societal progress towards well-being for all, they require both links with other citizen initiatives and action by the authorities. Analysis of the difficulties encountered shows the need for better understanding of the nature of public action and the underlying frameworks.

2. Public action in a paradigm of co-responsibility

The changes which contemporary societies have undergone have led to a partial loss of the legitimacy of representative democracy. This guide, by placing emphasis on the implementation of participatory processes, on the dialogue that they presuppose, on the common formulation of concepts, indicators and means of action, etc., seeks to show that these processes can help restore the legitimacy of public action, make it more effective and rethink the interrelations between public life and private life, between the individual and collective future and between private goods and common goods.

As efforts to identify new relationships between public action and citizen action already go back some time and major achievements have been made, we will take the latter as a basis for analysing their contribution to action in the public arena.

2.1. Achievements in terms of devising public action in partnership with citizens

As indicated in the introduction to the first part, deliberative processes in various forms first developed in the period between the two world wars. In Europe, "consultative" mechanisms such as "neighbourhood councils", "citizen assemblies" and youth or migrant "councils" were set up by the municipal authorities in various countries from the 1970s onwards. More recently, participatory budgeting systems and a whole range of consultation and dialogue processes have been set up at local level in several European towns and cities.

It can therefore be seen that there is a gradual shift away from initially largely consultative approaches towards more advanced ones already involving a desire to share decision making. How can they be taken forward in order to move towards the sharing of analysis, decision making and action which a co-responsibility approach requires?

75. See Council of Europe, 2005, pp. 41 and 61-62.

2.2. The contributions of elaborative processes

The elaborative processes described in Part 1 of this guide go a step further in terms of devising action in the public arena.

In consultative or deliberative processes, citizen participation is fundamentally regarded as an ad hoc or occasional element: it enables the action of the authorities to be in tune with the views of the residents of the relevant area. The users are therefore directly concerned. The emphasis is placed on the quality of the relationship between the authorities and citizens in order to improve the relevance of political choices and bring public services into line with people's expectations. Even when the consultations or deliberations are more systematic in nature, for instance in the case of participatory budgeting, the approach, at least initially, is one in which knowledge of the situation, the choices, the decision making and follow-up and evaluation of the relevant action are primarily incorporated in public institutions and carried out by them. Citizen participation and input are regarded merely as elements in processes conducted within institutions.

The example of "citizen panels", which are mainly made up of individuals chosen among the residents of a given area on account of their knowledge of the issue concerned, illustrates this point well: the focus is on the quality of the consultation for the purpose of making better political choices rather than on a process which would generate and build up a sense of community, shared knowledge and the ability to develop longer-term strategies together.

The idea of elaborative processes which involve citizens entails a qualitative leap from consultation and deliberation. Here, the aim is not so much improving the relations between the authorities and citizens as developing the capacity of communities and citizens themselves to join together in building shared knowledge of appropriate indicators and strategies for action. The aim is also, however, for the relevant action to be followed up and evaluated in co-operation with the public authorities. The emphasis here is placed on the long term, the constituent elements of which are social bonds, common references, confidence and pleasure in thinking and doing things together. These are the products of mutual recognition of the inputs and skills of the respective players and of the meaning given to the relevant action, which are gradually built up over time.

The initiatives aimed at reviewing indicators in co-operation with communities and citizens described in Part 1 are a vital step in this direction, as they encourage those involved to grasp the true meaning of progress.

2.3. The question of legitimacy

This question first arises in connection with the possible conflict with a traditional understanding of democratic legitimacy, which could block any move towards a process of co-responsibility. Elaborative processes offer the possibility of constructive dialogue, which, in turn, can help consolidate democracy and ensure that the rule of law functions smoothly throughout regions. This difficult transition may nevertheless involve phases of conflict.

Second, it concerns representativeness: are the results of an elaborative process legitimate in view of the number of citizens involved? Those who challenge the validity and legitimacy of criteria or choices defined by a group of citizens – whose number is necessarily limited, at least initially – base their arguments on the assumption that the decisions taken by elected representatives are founded on a majority expressed at the time of their election. In reality, the scope for the expression of public will in elections inevitably remains limited, as the process essentially involves the delegation of powers. Many analyses have also shown that participatory/elaborative processes can be interpreted as one of the ways in which democracy seeks to over-

come the problem of the tyranny of the majority. This is all the more true in the case of political majorities manoeuvred by elites or lobbies. It is they who make the decisions, taking no account of the positions and requirements of minorities and the most vulnerable, in the name of interests which are not of wider applicability (Ottonelli, 2005). How then should the groups of citizens be made up and their methods of influence organised? The approach should be for input to public decisions and to the vision of well-being and societal progress to come from a large number of participants actively discussing the issues rather than simply exercising their vote.

When participation is elaborative in nature, it is not merely a matter of harmonising personal preferences or influencing flexible individual preferences endogenously to achieve such harmonisation. Rather, it is a question of creating opportunities to encourage quality and transparency in democratic institutions and of placing an emphasis on redefining societal visions, with input from people whose points of view have not been taken into account or tried out in the past.

In the current context in which citizens' lack of involvement in public life is often highlighted, asking the question of how to create social co-operation phenomena in order to manage life in the community inevitably leads one to explore new forms of more collective ways of thinking. In principle, an elaborative process – by setting an objective requiring a degree of responsibility on the part of participants and through the necessary co-ordination of the discussion – should lead to more in-depth analysis of societal questions. Exercises in mass democracy are more exposed to the often simplifying influence of the media, to the artificial polarisation of debates and to facile ideological statements. The approach of "thinking in societal terms", supported by philosophers such as Philip Pettit (2003), enables the voices of the ineligible and marginalised to be heard. In addition, however, it brings the very concept of responsibility into public debate.

3. The role of the different tiers of politics

In conclusion, even though the added value of elaborative processes involving all the stakeholders in society and their relevance in relation to the need for new strategies for progress gives them objective legitimacy, recognition of the latter cannot be taken for granted. There are significant risks that the processes remain marginal or limited and hence often short-lived.

The role of the higher tiers of politics (national and supranational) is decisive. This could be seen, for instance, in the 1990s when certain initiatives by the European Commission led to innovative local partnerships between the authorities and civil society, even though launching such initiatives was unthinkable at the time in the legal/institutional and political context in most of the countries and regions concerned.

In addition, the legitimacy of participatory approaches also depends on their being recognised in policy guidelines and documents. For instance, in adopting Recommendation Rec(2001)19 on the participation of citizens in local public life in 2001, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe brought Recommendation No. R (81) 18[76] into line with current requirements and took account of the reflection on the subject which had been going on within the Organisation for many years. The recommendation recognises the need to involve citizens directly in the management of local affairs, which is bound to help them regain confidence in their elected representatives.

76. See Recommendations No. R (81) 18 of the Committee of Ministers to member states concerning participation at municipal level and Rec(2001)19 on the participation of citizens in local public life.

The Council of Europe's positions on citizen participation are based on the belief that there has been a clear evolution in citizens' preferences on participation in political life at local level in Europe. In contrast to the assertions of certain observers, according to whom interest in local participation will inevitably decline as a consequence of the falling number of decisions taken at that level because of globalisation, the Council of Europe maintains that most societal questions have both global and local components. It is therefore essential to put in place ways and means of viewing local politics and participation as an integral part of a broader process, bearing in mind the local component of citizens' identities. Accordingly, people's sense of belonging, social well-being, environmental protection and many other issues have a major local dimension. This means that public authorities must seek to involve citizens as extensively as possible.

Recommendation Rec(2001)19 thus rejects the idea that the increase in the proportion of the population with a high income – who are therefore less dependent on the welfare state and the public authorities in general – has a demotivating effect on participation: wealth is no justification for citizens to distance themselves from the collective challenges with which numerous communities are faced. And since it can also be true that the poorest may have no motivation to participate, clearly any participation initiative must also address this aspect.

The recommendation also states that, above and beyond the incorporation of a new rationale and new references in political decisions, participatory processes can also help make the common basis of institutional decisions more transparent through the incorporation of citizens' views. Lastly, Recommendation Rec(2001)19 maintains that, rather than eroding a sense of community (previously guaranteed by the fact that decisions were taken by political representatives), citizen participation is the precondition for recognition of the diversity of interests and citizens' clear desire to think for themselves. It further states that we must dismiss the idea that decision making by elected representatives would be swept aside by forces out of their control, and that they should be encouraged to consider instead the benefits to be derived from the various participatory processes.

In order to take citizens' views into account in public life, there has to be an appropriate institutional context. This means the existence of procedures for overseeing political decision making that can institutionalise the outcomes of participatory approaches, thereby making their contributions legitimate.

Conclusion

Rethinking progress, as proposed in this second part of the guide, leads us to "redefine" the relevant reference frameworks, tools and methods. In this connection, the key points just set out in the last chapter may be summarised as follows:

- the challenges of the 21st century and the need for new strategies for progress mean we must promote elaborative processes involving the various players and phases in progress;
- the elaborative processes – which redefine the meaning of progress and indicators in partnership with citizens and communities – mean we must redefine the relations with public authorities and integration with other approaches;
- to achieve such integration, a facilitating function, supplementing states' conventional functions, must be incorporated at all levels of public administration;
- the political legitimacy of a participatory approach is essential; it means that a new approach must be taken to representativeness;
- discussions, resolutions and recommendations at higher administrative levels play a decisive part in ensuring this legitimacy.

Two main ideas emerge from these conclusions.

The first, in the 21st-century context, is the indivisibility of societal progress, which requires the involvement of all players in all phases in the process and at all levels of territory. This brings us back to the image of the cube presented in Part 1, but with the additional idea that it is not just a matter of making sure that each part of the cube functions on its own but of gradually building a joined-up process. The idea of the indivisibility of the three axes of the cube is encapsulated in the concept of co-responsibility: the latter can be effective in the long term only if all the players are fully committed, if the approach concerns all phases in the process and if links are established between the different levels of territory.

The second idea concerns the time required for proper integration. The number of players and levels is necessarily limited at the outset and the initiatives are usually still not interconnected. What matters, above all, therefore is that the processes offer the prospect of integration and have the means to make it credible (so as to generate the necessary trust) and actually bring it about.

These ideas suggest four requirements which must be met so that elaborative processes can develop further, become more integrated and be able to contribute to societal progress:

- recognised and shared objectives, in other words, the assertion and the recognition of the need for well-being for all, including future generations, and to build a society capable of securing it;
- exhaustiveness, namely having a reference framework for societal progress in relation to these objectives which includes all phases and players and applies to the different levels of territory;
- consistency, to make sure that the various phases, players and levels are properly integrated, building on common knowledge tools, in particular indicators;
- dynamic capability in order to identify appropriate methods so that these processes are attractive and inclusive for citizens, and easily transferable, while also enjoying sufficient legitimacy with the authorities so that they expand rapidly on a long-term basis.

These four requirements make it necessary to reconsider:

- the reference frameworks, in order to ensure the establishment of processes geared towards societal progress based on the recognised objective of well-being for all and the ability of society to bring it about. They will be discussed in Part 3 of the guide;
- the knowledge tools, in particular indicators, so as to lay the foundations for consistent knowledge shared between the players and phases. This will be dealt with in Part 4;
- the methods, so that local elaborative processes have a real dynamic, inspiring and inclusive capacity within each area and living environment. This is the subject of Part 5.

Part 3

Rethinking reference frameworks

Social cohesion

Introduction

Part 2 of the guide looked at how we might rethink progress in the context of the 21st century, leading us to focus on the objective of well-being for all, future generations included, and to give new thought to the concepts, policies and values which our societies must adopt if this objective is to be attained.

Any kind of progress implies that an objective has been set and that there is a path along which to advance towards it. So, we need to establish where we are on this path (by direct observation and/or the use of indicators) and activate strategies to bring us closer to our objective.

To clarify these aspects, in this part of the guide we shall:

- identify the components of progress towards well-being for all, using as our starting point its definition by citizens themselves and taking future generations into account. This is the purpose of Chapter 1;
- analyse, in Chapter 2, how to enhance society's capacity to ensure well-being for all on the basis of the components of societal progress. This will prompt us to focus on the key role played by elaborative processes involving citizens and communities and the need for a shared approach;
- concentrate, in Chapter 3, on fine-tuning the reference framework for the process of fostering progress set out in the first part of the guide.

The following analysis and proposals are based in particular on the results of experiments conducted in several cities, communities and collective bodies following the methodology suggested by the Council of Europe.

Chapter 1 – Identifying the components of well-being for all (societal progress)

The components of societal progress which we shall be describing in this chapter were identified using inductive reasoning, drawing on the criteria used by citizens themselves to define the well-being of present generations. To define the well-being of future generations, we used deductive reasoning.

1. Components of well-being of present generations[77]

1.1. Well-being for all as defined by citizens

Experimental applications devised in accordance with the methodology proposed by the Council of Europe[78] in places where people live (towns, neighbourhoods, villages) or within collective bodies such as businesses, schools and public services have made it possible to identify a large number of criteria serving as a basis for the definition and development of indicators of well-being for all, particularly at local level.[79] They involve no aprioristic definition of what constitutes well-being[80] and use an approach carefully designed to cover the whole range of situations and roles in society.[81]

Analysing these criteria, which are gathered in a database,[82] tells us a great deal about definitions of well-being for all. The main findings follow.

1.2. The multidimensional nature of well-being for all

One of the most striking features of the criteria which citizens use to define well-being is their diversity. Based on a number of areas and collective bodies, a classification of criteria was produced for eight dimensions of well-being divided into three groups. Thus we have:

- matters pertaining to people's living space or to the material/tangible aspects of well-being: access to the essential resources of life (food, health, housing, education, employment, purchasing power, culture, etc.) and their living environment (the surroundings in which they live, places where they meet, absence of pollution, transport, etc.);
- matters pertaining to interpersonal relations, relations between individuals and institutions and to perceived balances/imbalances in social relationships and affiliations;
- lastly, matters specific to individuals' own experience (innate dimensions), with a distinction being drawn between – as determining factors – personal balances (personal freedom, time use, personal

77. This section is based primarily on experimental work conducted in accordance with the Council of Europe's methodology for two reasons: first, because it mainly uses citizens' own views as the basis for building indicators of well-being for all and, second, because, at the time of writing, we have all the information we need to make use of the results. We will come back to this methodology three times: first, here in this third part, when we refer to the outcome of its use and the lessons to be learned from it, second, in part four, when we begin devising indicators and, finally, in part five, when it comes to matters relating to its implementation.

78. Methodology devised under the auspices of the Development and Research Division of the Council of Europe's Directorate General of Social Cohesion.

79. Summaries have been produced for the regional and national levels in Wallonia (Belgium) and the Cape Verde islands.

80. Citizens answer three open-ended questions: "What do you understand by well-being?", "What do you understand by ill-being?" and "What do you do and can you do as a citizen to ensure your own well-being and the well-being of all?"

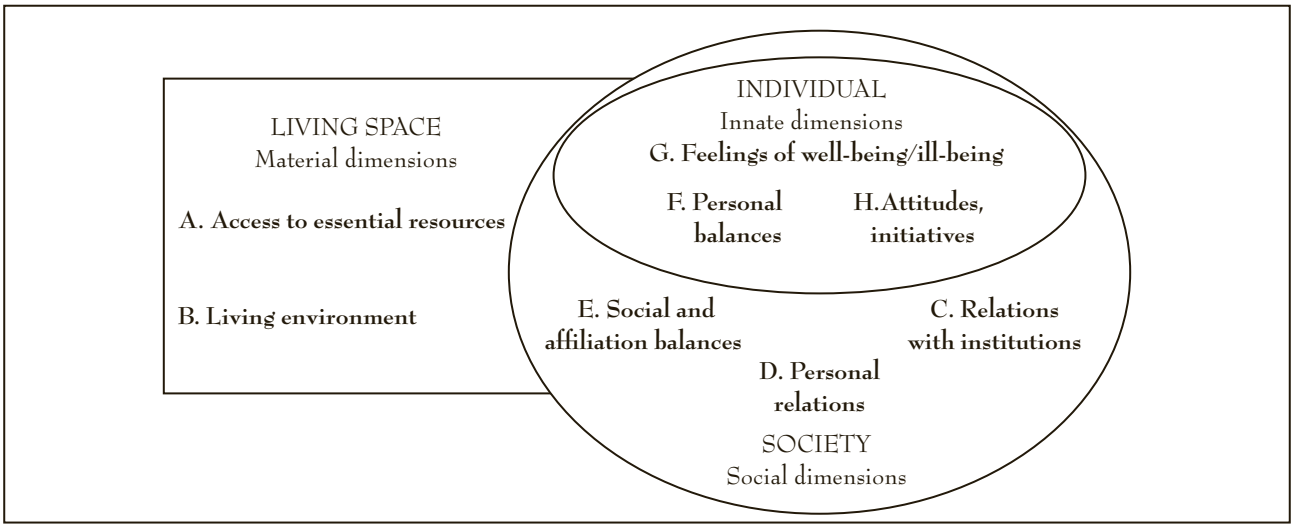
81. For more details of the epistemological foundations and a general description of this method, see Council of Europe, 2008.

82. The number of citizens questioned and criteria collected is constantly increasing as the method becomes more and more widely used. At the time of going to press some 30 000 criteria had been collected. See the attached CD-Rom for a general description of the database and its initial results. See also the website at https://spiral.cws.coe.int.

development, etc.), everything relating to the – resultant – feelings of well-being or ill-being,[83] and the effects of these factors on the way in which the person interacts with the outside world, that is to say matters pertaining to attitudes, decision making, commitment and participation.

Whilst elements in each of these groups vary from one geographical area or context to another, the findings justify this classification.[84] Figure 311 shows all eight dimensions.

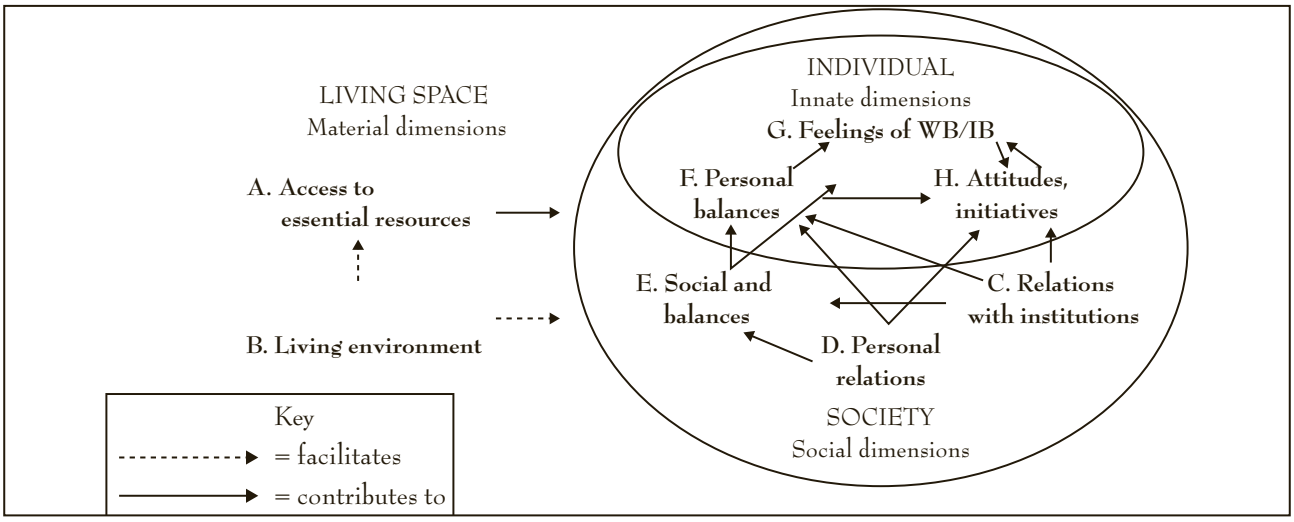
Figure 311 – The eight dimensions of well-being according to the criteria expressed by citizens



1.3. Interaction between the components of well-being and ill-being

The very nature and the content of each of these dimensions reveal a certain logic in the way in which they interact. The various ways in which they influence each other are represented in Figure 312 by arrows indicating contribution and/or facilitation.

Figure 312 – Interaction between the eight dimensions of well-being

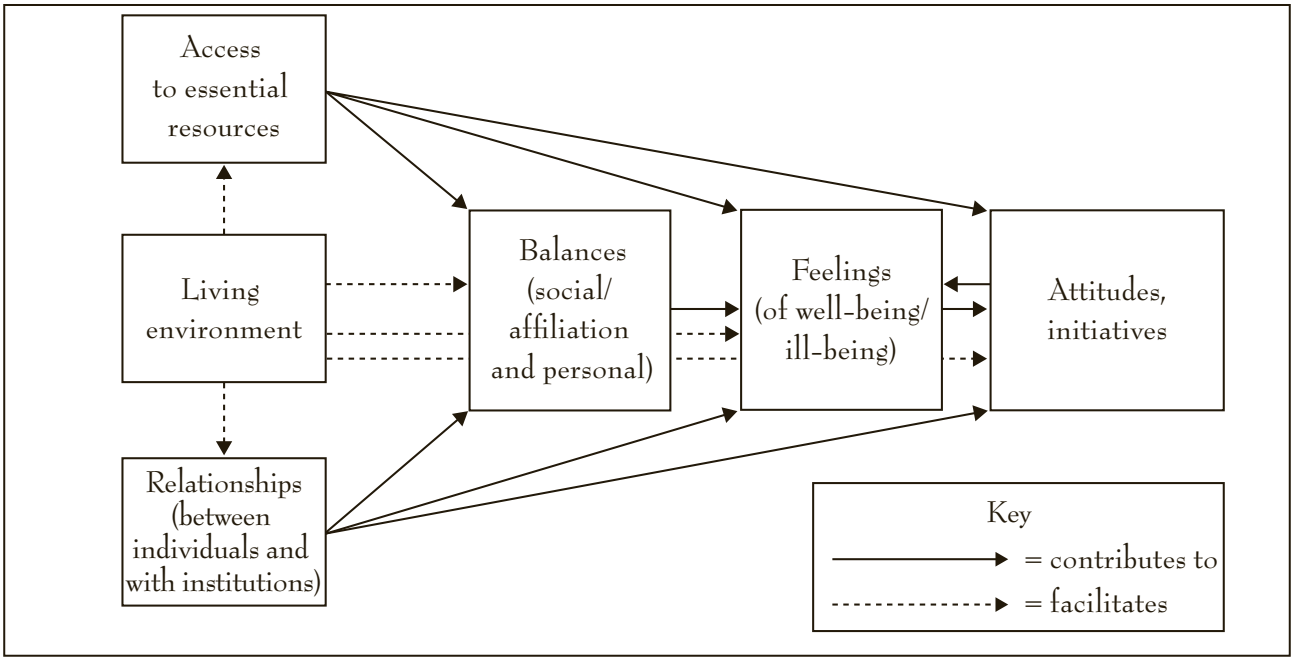


83. As respondents made clear, feelings that fall within the ambit of well-being or ill-being are just one component of the equation. This paradox stems from the fact that such feelings can take varying forms (frustration/satisfaction, fear/composure, shame/pride in oneself, discouragement/motivation, sorrow/joy, etc.) and can fluctuate, both over the short term (one may feel happy in the morning and unhappy in the evening – or vice versa) and in the long term: one may be happy at one stage in life but have no guarantee of being happy later on. Well-being therefore is something over and above what a person is feeling at any given moment; it is an all-encompassing general state.

84. There may be other ways of classifying the same criteria. However, this one has proved readily understandable to citizens and brings out the rational nature of the interdependence between the dimensions (see below).

This second diagram shows both social and affiliation balances (E) and personal balances (F) in the middle of a chain of influences which is made clearer in Figure 313.

Figure 313 – Simplified representation of interaction between the dimensions of well-being/ill-being



Although it may present a somewhat simplified picture, a number of conclusions may be reached on the basis of this figure:[85]

- all dimensions have a direct influence on feelings of well-being/ill-being, and this is consistent with the substance of the criteria expressed by citizens;
- alongside the direct influences, there are indirect effects as some components influence others. As a result, social/affiliation balances and personal balances can be regarded as "intermediate" components, which play a key role as they give rise to feelings of well-being whereas any form of social or personal imbalance will cause a feeling of ill-being. The concept of balance refers to fair access to resources, rights, places and opportunities (for social and affiliation balances) and balanced time-use, choice of activities, security and development prospects (for personal balances);
- living environment facilitates (or impedes) all the components of well-being;
- in return, feelings of well-being/ill-being have an influence on the willingness/commitment dimension.

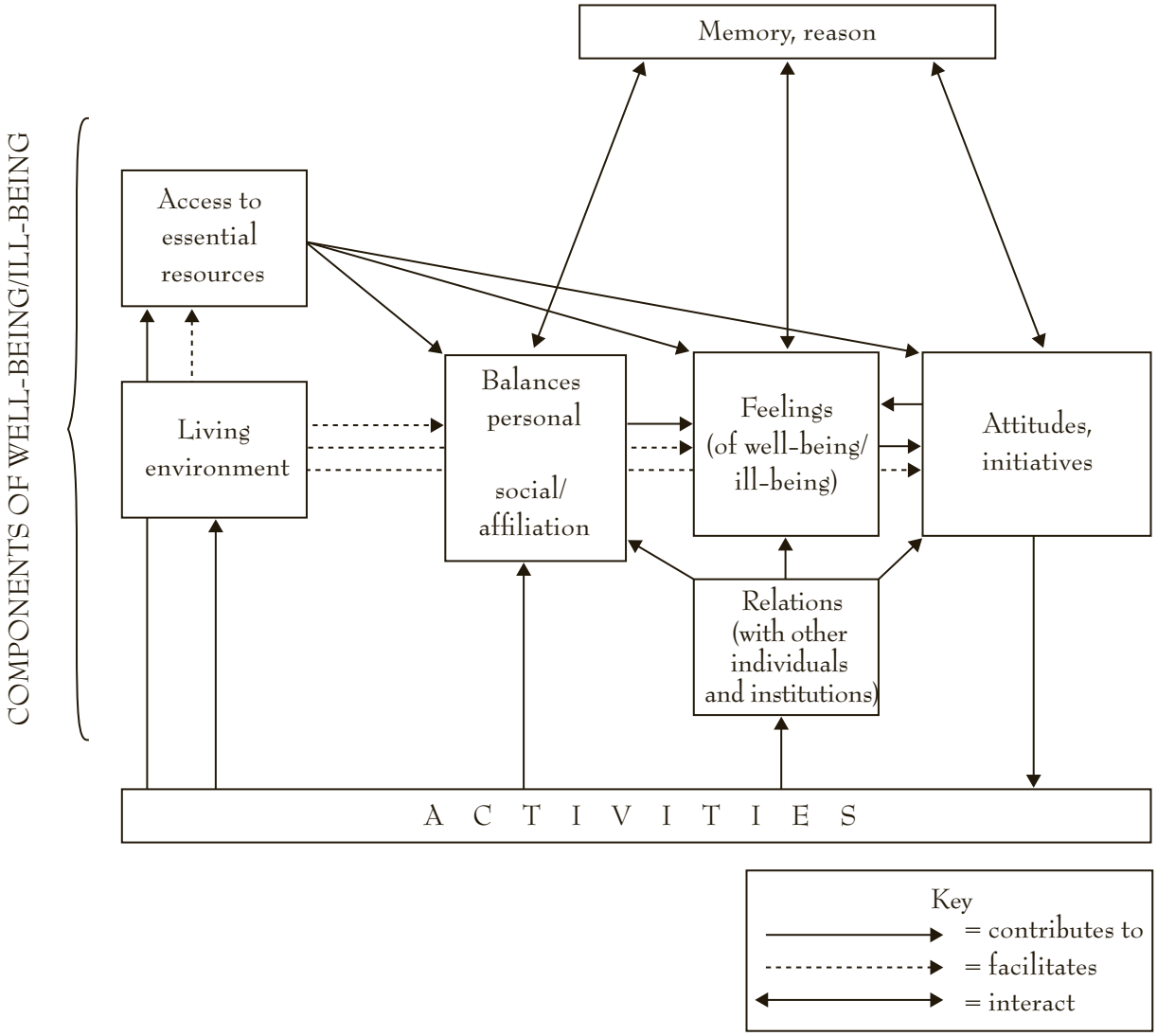
1.4. The influence of context on the choice of criteria

It goes without saying that the criteria expressed by citizens do not come out of nowhere. Their perception of well-being or ill-being is influenced by factors such as individual and collective memory and reason, and practical experience of human activities and the relationships between them. Taking account of these factors allows

85. Such interaction is more immediate when we seek to create indicators of well-being in collective bodies. In businesses, for instance, resources (work tools, living and working environment) and relations with other individuals and with the hierarchy (sharing of responsibilities and information, consultation, willingness to listen, clarity and consistency of instructions, etc.) determine personal balances (for example, in respect of the expected workload, or between work, family and social life) and collective balances (team spirit, respect for and tolerance of others, etc.). These balances also influence feelings of well-being or ill-being at work and this in turn affects factors such as motivation, commitment and initiative (see the example of the STRACEL company on the CD-Rom).

us to "come full circle" as these activities stem from the desires, conflicts, power struggles and agreements on which social decisions and commitments are based. In turn, this interaction has direct or indirect effects on the various components of well-being and ill-being. Figure 314 is a simplified representation of these interactions, illustrating the reasoning put forward in this section.

Figure 314 – A more detailed representation of the interactions in people's lives



1.5. Virtuous circles of well-being and vicious circles of ill-being[86]

The effects of the interaction highlighted in this figure influence the development of well-being. This is relatively easy to trace where the pattern of effects/consequences is linear (action taken on one factor affects another). But where there is a circular sequence of effects, consequences in turn become causes.

86. Most commonly a vicious circle is taken to mean a series of causes and effects which form a continuous loop causing a situation to deteriorate because the adverse effects sustain and amplify the causes from which they arise. Conversely, a virtuous circle is said to exist where the same type of retroactive amplifying mechanism results in positive or beneficial effects.

To understand these effects as depicted in the above figure, we have made a distinction – drawing on the criteria identified by citizens – between four types of activity likely to have different degrees of impact on well-being/ill-being, in particular:

- planning and organisation (of activities and of society in general);
- the distribution of roles and responsibilities;
- the performance of activities and time-use;
- the allocation of results.

In the light of the criteria expressed by citizens,[87] there are links between each of these types of activity and both individual well-being and the well-being of all.

a. Planning and organisation of the various processes inherent in living together as a community, depending on the way in which they are done, play a decisive role in personal relationships and social balances. For example, the dignity of all individuals as full citizens and the recognition of their knowledge and contribution to society are criteria that are essential to this phase, along with the right to be heard and influence decision making in the public arena (in other words, how these processes are applied in a democratic and participatory model).

b. The exercise of responsibility is also a key criterion in a co-responsibility approach (rather than in a situation where responsibilities are allocated irreversibly in an exercise of power that is unfavourable to the weaker players). Co-responsibility implies that everyone can participate, that everyone's commitments have to have some meaning, that there is consistency (between responsibilities, skills and resources) and that it is clear what inputs are required for us all to live together successfully.

c. The way in which activities are performed in practice has its own impact on personal balances and feelings of well-being/ill-being. Citizens mentioned criteria such as asserting their independence, personal development, creativity, freedom to take the initiative, having a life plan, being able to make mistakes without being penalised immediately, being given a second chance, having control over the use of their time (reconciling work with family and social life), refusing to be subjected to excessive control with the result that they can no longer take risks, and preserving their privacy and freedom of choice.

d. The distribution or appropriation of the results (goods and services, and also access to common goods including those created by human activity) affects the material components of well-being (access to essential resources and the living environment). What counts here is justice, non-discrimination and fair access to these goods and the way in which they are allocated.

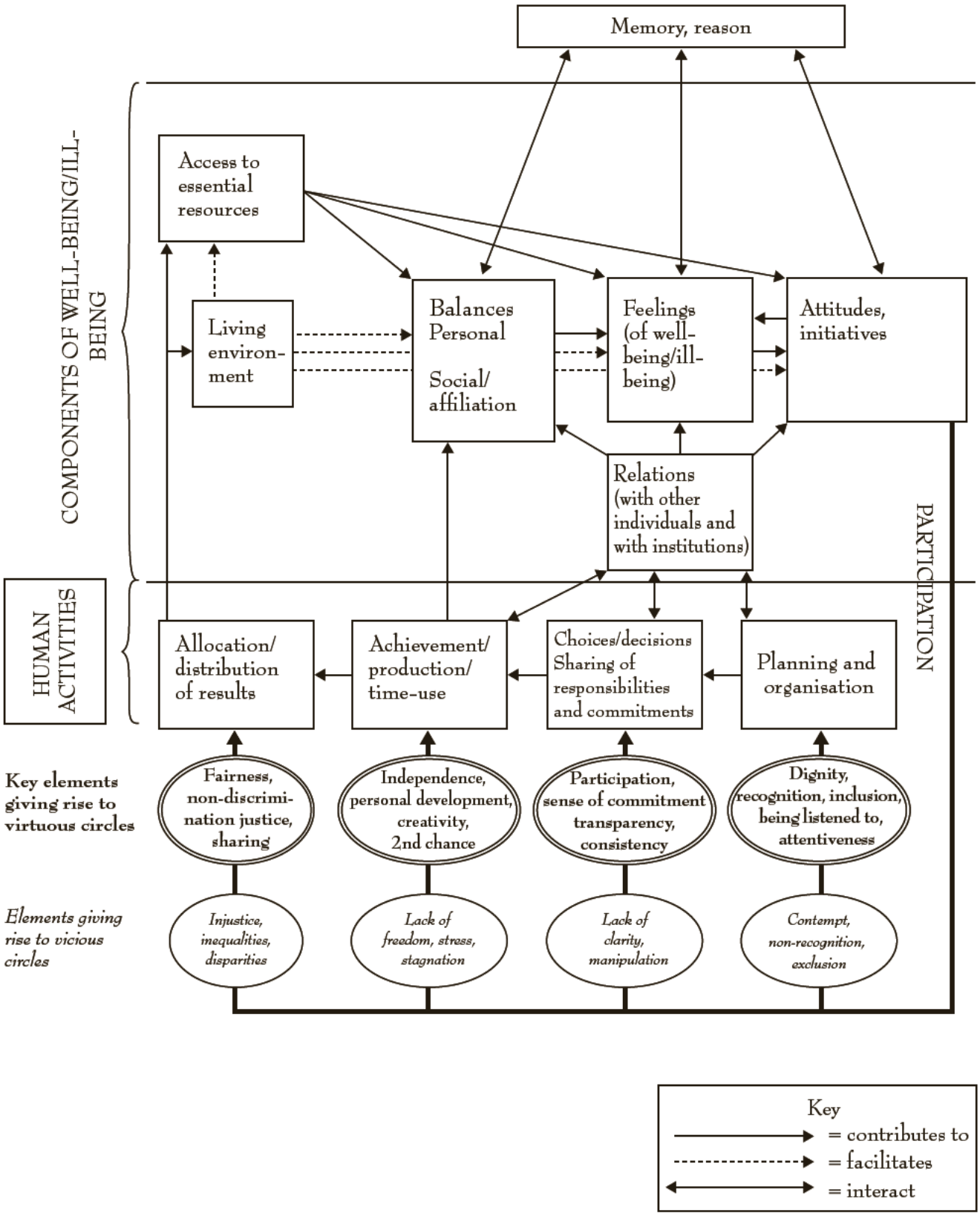
Pursuing this line of reasoning, there are four virtuous circles of well-being (or vicious circles of ill-being) that emerge depending on the way in which these activities are carried out. In each type of activity there are key elements which may be conducive to the establishment of a virtuous circle[88] or, conversely, to that of a vicious circle of ill-being. They are set out in Figure 315.

Although it is only a summary, what this analysis demonstrates is the need to view well-being for all as an interactive process and not just as an observation at a given point in time.

87. Criteria of well-being/ill-being expressed by citizens in applications carried out according to the methodology proposed by the Council of Europe.

88. These are the four key elements of well-being pinpointed in the methodological guide on the concerted development of social cohesion indicators published by the Council of Europe in 2005, combined with other criteria expressed by citizens, op. cit., p. 57.

Figure 315 – Interaction represented in the form of circles of collective well-being/ill-being



2. Taking future generations into account

2.1. Ensuring the well-being of future generations

Well-being for all is also relevant to future generations. However, for future generations, unlike current ones, catering for well-being requires a deductive approach. It must focus on the use, creation and passing on of resources, living conditions and living environments, as these are the only objective reference points available.

First, the passing on of resources to future generations and their well-being have always been key components of the idea of progress. Throughout history, human civilisations have given over a substantial share of their resources and activities to investments intended to serve future generations with the aim of improving their lives compared with those of current generations. This has prompted them to carry out activities such as planting trees, setting up irrigation systems, adding to the built heritage, establishing communication infrastructure and improving technology and knowledge.

This almost continuous concern on the part of human societies to secure the heritage of future generations presupposes first of all that resources will not be used in such a way that their capacity for renewal is cancelled out and, second, that decisions in the fields of investment, the tax-balance between labour and consumption, indexing of expenditure and public debt will not be entirely to their disadvantage.[89] Cumulative debt has enabled past and current generations to live comfortably at future generations' cost and the irresponsible use of non-renewable resources will also have its consequences. For as long as these resources are plentiful, the question of their renewal poses no problem. However, when they become rare, it is only reasonable to use them if a system that makes use of renewable resources is set up (for example, by using the remaining fossil fuel to construct solar or wind power production facilities). Similarly, reducing national debt is an issue that has to be an integral part of any discussion about the future.

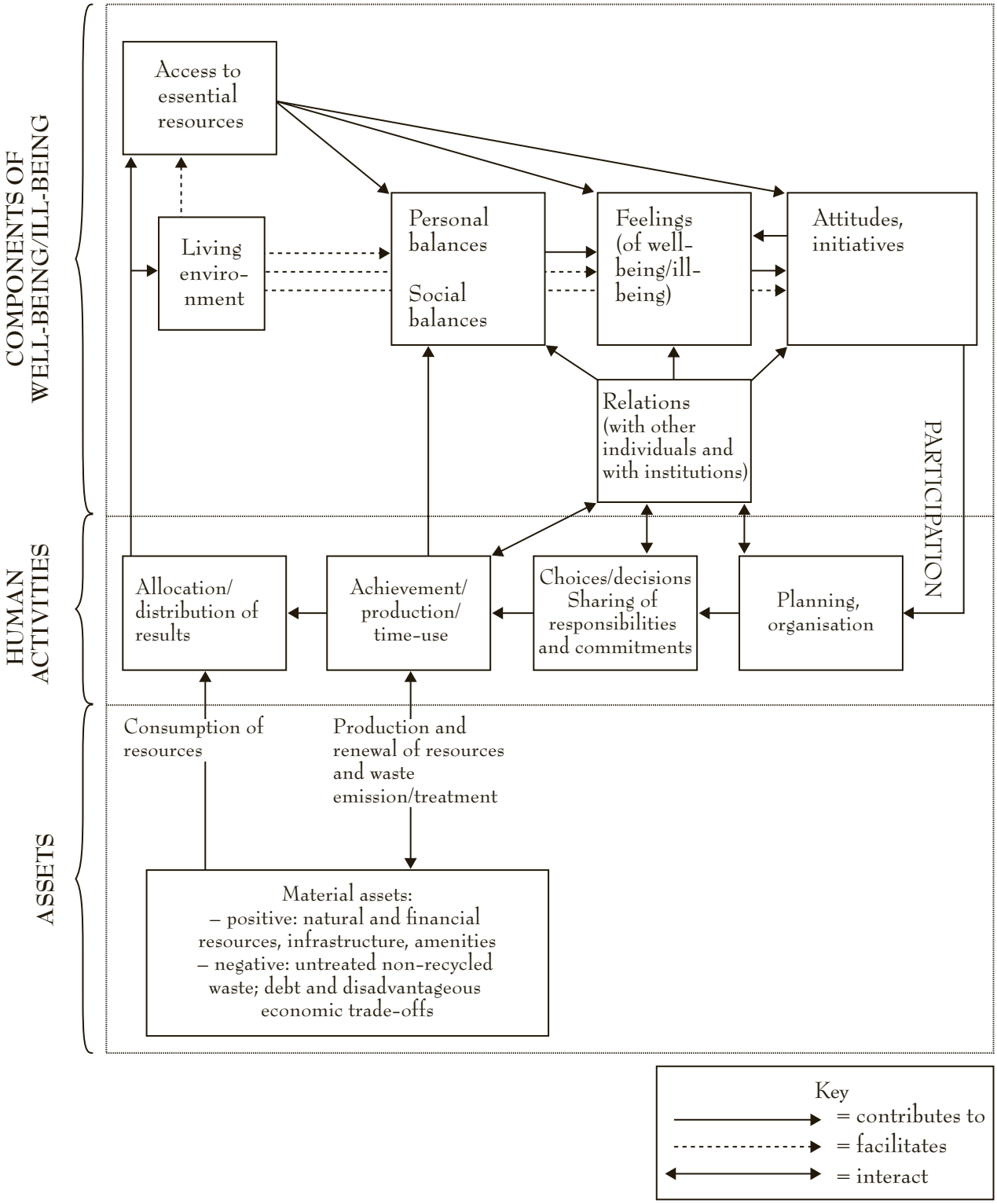
In current times, in addition to the issue of passing on resources, our societies have a duty to tackle another issue, namely that of not passing on "negative" heritage such as untreated or non-recycled waste and debt, which are effectively sources of ill-being.

2.2. Formalising consideration of future generations' well-being

How do we go about ensuring the well-being of current generations while also securing that of future generations? Figure 316 presents a solution which takes account of the problem of passing on material assets.

89. See, for example, "Les générations futures: un souci pour la politique budgétaire?" [Future generations – A budgetary policy issue?], *Regards économiques*, No. 1, March 2002 (http://perso.uclouvain.be/david.delacroix/popular/RE001.pdf).

Figure 316 – Taking future generations into account when pursuing the aim of well-being for all



2.3. Deadlines and priorities

As stated above, passing on positive material assets raises questions connected with the trade-off between the consumption and the production or renewal of resources, between the emission and the natural reabsorption, treatment or recycling of waste and between current debt and future sacrifice. This trade-off points us towards what we shall term the "appropriate setting" for the management of resources, waste or debt, which determines how responsibility will be allocated. For example, for greenhouse gases, the most appropriate management setting is the whole planet while for debt – as for the infrastructure and the preservation of agricultural land and nature reserves – it is at national, regional or local level and for water management it is catchment basins. These settings may also be restricted to local level, for example where domestic waste management is concerned. However, it is not just because action should be being taken at a certain level that other lower levels are not concerned. For instance, following the failure of the Copenhagen Conference in December 2009, where the participating states were supposed to reach an agreement, European cities have taken over the task of addressing the climate change crisis and the danger that it will be irreversible, as highlighted by the recent work of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities[90] of the Council of Europe. In a complex, interdependent world, identifying the relevant responsibilities is not an easy task.

The more aware one is of the adverse effects and the irreversible nature of some decisions – or the failure to take a decision – the more problems are posed by the incompatibility between the requisite time periods to reverse trends and those to avoid irreversibility. In such cases, we talk of the "critical level" – a concept that will be discussed in detail in Part 4 below.

Today, for example, biodiversity loss has reached this "critical level", along with the debt of many public bodies. However, the key problem is the emission of greenhouse gases owing to the use of fossil fuels. This view is now shared by scientists and a large proportion of the population and prompts the aim of societal progress to be expressed in the following terms: ensuring the well-being of current generations without using non-renewable resources,[91] particularly energy sources, and without running up unmanageable debts.

The deadlines by which these aims are to be achieved are yet to be established. They depend mainly on the degree of urgency but reducing greenhouse gas emissions is regarded as a priority. We propose making a distinction between well-being for all without the use of non-renewable energy sources as a general aim guiding choices (with regard to issues such as investment, research and consumption) and well-being for all through the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions as a quantified and time-bounded objective.

3. Reconciling the well-being of current and future generations

The aims of well-being for both current and future generations seem on the face of it to be incompatible considering that there is a certain proportionate relationship between the level of well-being of current generations and the degree to which they use or consume resources to sustain this level, as is the underlying rationale of the model of progress based on growth. It is by reinterpreting the concept of progress and analysing the

90. Recommendation 281 (2010), adopted at the 18th session of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe on 17 March 2010 and Resolution 298 (2010), adopted by the Congress on 18 March 2010 (2nd sitting).

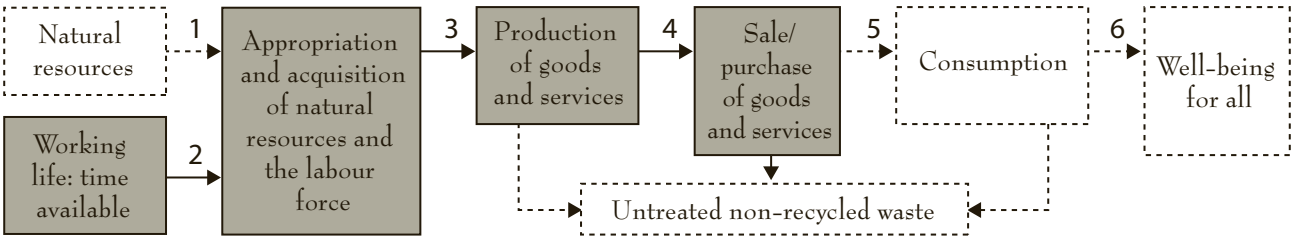
91. We use the expression "non-renewable energies" rather than "fossil fuels" so that we also cover nuclear fuels (uranium), the use of which poses problems because the waste that it produces is not treated – a situation which has fewer short-term consequences but may affect several thousands of future generations.

criteria identified by citizens that it is possible to come up with possible solutions which attempt to reconcile the two aims. Furthermore, establishing the link between the two makes it possible to achieve them. There now follows a description of some of these ideas.

3.1. As yet unexplored potential areas of progress

Let us look, by way of an example, into the potential that production choices hold where it comes to the use of resources. Where progress is equated with the growth of GDP, performance is assessed in monetary terms through a comparison of products actually sold and the cost of acquiring resources. Yet when it is the well-being of future generations that is being considered, assessments of performance must include all of the factors which enter into the equation between the extraction of the resources (particularly non-renewable ones) and well-being for all. Figure 317 shows this chain.

Figure 317 – Representation of the chain from natural resources to well-being for all[92]



Each arrow represents an effect of one element on the next, the first being a condition (input) and the second its consequence (result/output). The arrows mean either "makes possible" or "contributes to", depending on whether the condition is necessary and sufficient, or necessary but not necessarily sufficient.

The conventional idea of progress takes account of just one part of the chain, namely the central part represented in the figure by the boxes shaded in grey and the three solid arrows. This segment corresponds to the monetary economy. It fails to take account of the following aspects:

- earlier in the chain, the extent to which natural resources are depleted, especially in relation to the potential for them to be renewed/passed on;
- further along the chain, the effect of the sale of goods and services on consumption.

Earlier in the chain, natural resources are quantified in terms of the monetary cost of extracting them rather than in relation to the point of depletion beyond which they cannot be reliably renewed and/or preserved. Performance therefore is measured in terms of how far extraction costs can be cut, with the result that extraction may be maximised (through huge-scale extraction creating economies of scale and the use of hard technology) while no account is taken of damage. Yet, resource renewal requires reasoned and careful usage involving "soft" technologies and tailored but more expensive practices. The divide between performance driven by a desire to reduce extraction costs and performance driven by the duty to preserve resources and pass them on is steadily widening as technological advances make it possible to extract more and more.[93] Similarly, the effects of pollution and environmental destruction in new oil extraction sites previously considered to be non-viable[94] cannot be overlooked.

92. The chain involves a succession of three elements: "Heritage" → "Activities" → "Well-being", tying in with the threefold structure of Figures 316 and 322.

93. Where extraction methods remain rudimentary, the risk of destroying natural resources is low. Conversely, intensive technologies jeopardise the ability of natural resources to regenerate. Fisheries provide one example of this: the all-out development of commercial fishing over the last 20 years or so, making deep-sea fishing possible in any conditions, is leading to the disappearance of marine fauna to the extent that by the year 2040 our oceans will have returned to their Precambrian state (source: Daniel Pauly, interview in "La mer" [The sea], *Les dossiers de la recherche*, No. 36, August 2009, pp. 36-40).

94. See, for example, Emmanuel Raoul's report on the oil sands of Alberta (Canada), "Sous les sables bitumeux de l'Alberta", in *Le Monde diplomatique*, April 2010.

Further along the chain, the sale of goods and services for consumption also raises issues including the problem of untreated, non-recycled waste, to which we will return below.

One of the issues raised relates to the difference between the sale/purchase of goods and services, and personal well-being, which exists on at least two levels:[95]

- a good or service which is sold is not necessarily consumed. In societies that over-consume, many products are not really even consumed, are very quickly replaced or discarded;
- consumption (if excessive and unnecessary) no longer translates into well-being.

Although they offer considerable scope for progress, these two aspects have been relegated from societal analysis to the private sphere. This would not be a problem if forms of private regulation ensured a measure of harmony between "consumption" (that is, level of consumption) and "well-being" (the level of well-being obtained through consumption). Concepts of well-being are explicitly or implicitly based on this theory.[96]

Provided that levels of production/sale for consumption do not exceed real needs, this harmony can, relatively speaking, be maintained.[97] Yet the logic itself of growth means that production and sales will steadily increase to the point where they break into the private sphere (especially in the so-called wealthy countries) creating new tastes and requirements, particularly through commercial advertising and promotions. This leads to an objective deterioration in the conditions for sustainable balance. The gap between purchases of consumer goods and satisfaction is one indicator of this. The increase in per capita purchases of products and services verging on superfluity points to a weakening of the link between consumption and individual and collective well-being.

(Re)introducing the idea of "sustainable satisfaction" into the analysis of societal progress means not that it has to be taken out of the private sphere and even less that it should be brought into the sphere of state regulation. However, the choices involved have to cater for the many aspects of well-being for all, future generations included,[98] particularly the criteria of "satisfaction" which arise from intangible links or goods, as will be shown below.

3.2. Other dimensions of satisfaction, expressed by citizens

Other aspects of satisfaction that are more likely to reconcile the well-being of future and current generations arise from the criteria expressed by citizens. In Europe, depending on circumstances, between 50% and 75% of

95. A mention should also be made of public procurement of products earmarked for destruction in order to support markets.

96. The prevailing view is that GDP growth is the only area of progress for which we have an indicator. So flows of goods and services are the only things considered, overlooking (in intermediate consumption) the distinction between renewable and non-renewable resources (namely, those which involve use of income and those which involve destruction of capital) (see Schumacher, 1973) and the recycling of the products purchased. This view – which prevents us from assessing the effects of consumption and the stocks of natural resources and from anticipating risks to the environment (see Jancovici, 2002) and overlooks certain aspects when defining "consumption" (merely equating it with sales/purchases) – has been the de facto driver of progress in our modern societies since the Industrial Revolution. Production is increased to satisfy the needs of the market demand (the needs of affordable consumption).

This understanding of progress causes efforts to be concentrated solely on increasing production and productivity (not only of labour, but also of resources such as the soil) to the detriment of other components that are essential to the well-being of all, future generations included. It has even entailed some serious steps backward, particularly in terms of the assessment of variations in heritage values brought about by positive and negative consequences. As Dominique Méda (2000, 2008) points out, this understanding of progress overlooks the time factor and the activities needed for societal development (time spent on forging social ties and on political life, family life, creativity and solidarity), is unaffected by social and geographical inequalities in participation in production and consumption and takes no account of damage to the natural heritage. So progress in this instance is paradoxical, failing to take account of values or of irreversible change.

97. This is a working hypothesis.

98. This is, moreover, what is advocated by various movements campaigning for sustainable, critical or responsible consumption (whereby consumers personally opt to play an active role in the consumption process, introducing the idea of co-responsibility for the well-being of all through the choices that we make).

these criteria are non-material in nature.[99] There are significant areas of progress to investigate here. The key elements underlying virtuous and vicious circles highlighted in Figure 315 provide a good illustration of this.

First, recognising and including people as active members of society provides unlimited opportunities for progress and satisfaction. Recognition is the criterion of well-being citizens mention the most. The loss of meaning in life which was also mentioned – in connection with the opacity and inconsistency of societal policies and goals and of companies and institutions – is a field in which progress towards the goal of well-being still has to be made. The same applies to rules and restrictions which undermine individual initiative and creativity.

However, above all it is fairness and the sense of social justice which are the most central components of satisfaction.

3.3. Bringing the well-being of present and future generations closer together

These areas of progress for well-being show the deep-seated imbalance in our societies, which are founded for the most part on competitiveness and satisfaction through consumption and in which the lack of recognition of individuals, the loss of meaning in life and the excessive growth of disparities foster vicious circles of ill-being and prompt people to seek forms of material compensation for non-material deficiencies. Non-material aspects are, however, essential for well-being. In addition to problems of excessive material consumption among the most affluent social groups – which is also made possible by the low recognition of the value of labour in the less advanced countries, the spread of unsustainable lifestyle choices such as regularly spending weekends hundreds or thousands of kilometres away from home and the long-distance shipping of goods that can be produced locally have irreparable effects on the planet once they become widespread practices.

Re-establishing a balance between material and non-material well-being and making more reasoned choices, particularly where it comes to avoiding excesses, waste of resources and the production of too much waste, are the goals of a project for society which everybody can believe in provided that the key elements of well-being, particularly fairness, non-discrimination and inclusion, are applied to everyone. This is why, in practice, reducing disparities between people's situations forms the basis for societal progress.

Fairness itself is conducive to improved performance in the use of resources if we refer for example to situations in which there is such a difference in incomes that they give rise to contradictions in our way of approaching overall well-being. Where is the sense in farmers in poor countries having to choose between feeding their families properly and keeping back seed for the following year when they would not have to take such a decision if they had a few dozen more euros in their pockets – an amount which would mean only a slightly lower level of comfort for the inhabitant of one of the world's wealthy countries for a matter of one day?

Reconciling the well-being of present and future generations is possible provided that some further investigation is made of these as yet unexplored links between resources/production/consumption and satisfaction, and provided that the strategies adopted to achieve this goal include all those features which restore some meaning to the concept of harmonious coexistence.

The means of securing this societal progress will be discussed in the next chapter.

99. By contrast, in experiments using the same approach in Africa (in Cape Verde and Gabon) the results were the exact opposite. Material criteria of ill-being or well-being were in the majority.

Chapter 2 – Building society's capacity to ensure well-being for all

Once we have set the components of well-being for all as our goal, how do we give society the capacity to work towards this aim? We will address the following issues in turn:
– the approaches to be taken;
– how these approaches fit in with the acknowledged aim of well-being for all;
– how they make it possible to advance towards this aim.

1. Approaches

In the conclusion to Part 2, the theory was put forward that society's capacity to ensure well-being for all, future generations included, was strongly dependent on the interaction between political processes and elaborative processes involving citizens. We will now look at the means of interaction between three types of approach, which can be described as follows:

- bottom-up approaches, namely those which ensure that local elaborative processes provide input for debates on political frameworks at other levels (regional, national and European);
- top-down approaches, namely those which enhance the mechanisms and knowledge needed for political frameworks and instruments devised elsewhere to be adopted and applied at local level, confirming the legitimacy of elaborative processes and familiarity with broader issues;
- horizontal approaches, namely those intended to enhance co-ordination between various elaborative processes.

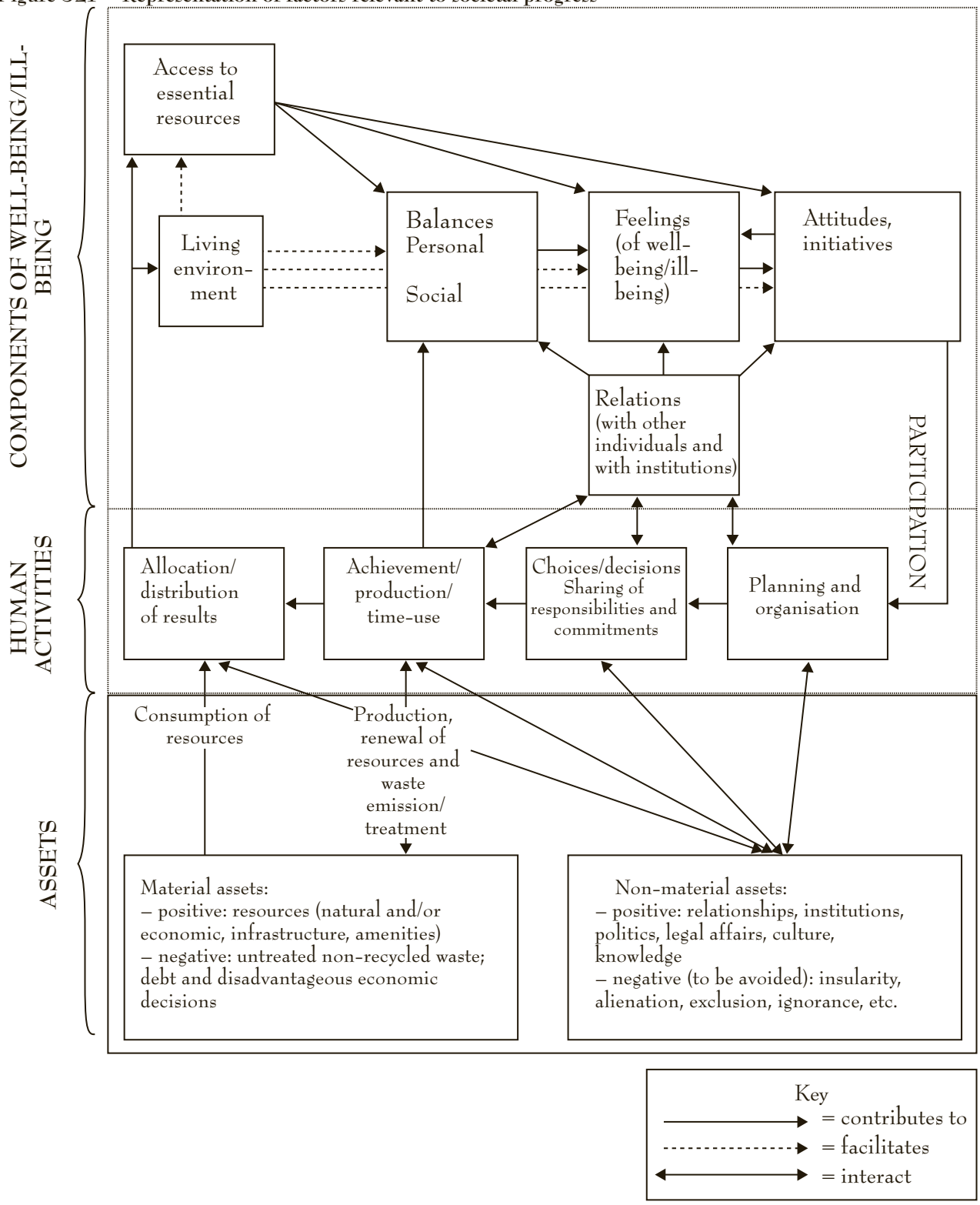
This interaction between levels is essential if elaborative processes involving citizens are not to be confined to the "interstices" of public policy, having no impact on broader-scale political processes. For citizens to exercise their legitimate rights at local level there have to be such inter-relationships insofar as – as will be seen below – it is mostly decisions taken at wider territorial or institutional levels which determine whether principles and structures will be suited to more cogent methods of managing societal progress.

Furthermore, it should be possible to establish co-operation at the various levels with partners such as researchers and NGOs able to offer expertise and knowledge about the issues to be taken into account when setting societal goals (in the environmental, economic and intergenerational fields and in other spheres).[100] Co-operation should also be established with the media and with bodies able to commit themselves to promoting a culture of shared responsibility.

The capacity to ensure well-being for all is therefore closely tied up with the forms of partnership, co-operation or interaction set up. These arrangements are the reflection of positive non-material assets (in the fields of relationships, institutions, politics, legal affairs, culture and shared knowledge), which are essential for society to progress and counteract forms of negative non-material assets such as insularity, alienation, exclusion, unfamiliarity and stereotypes. Figure 321 supplements Figure 316 in the previous chapter.

100. In this connection, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), which was set up under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, provides an interesting example of the kind of partnership that can be established between scientific experts and political decision-making bodies to establish goals in accordance with the global issues at stake. This type of partnership is not just beneficial at world level but also at different territorial levels depending on the various kinds of challenge involved.

Figure 321 – Representation of factors relevant to societal progress



In this new figure, non-material assets depend on and influence all types of human activity.

Consequently, for the bottom-up, top-down and horizontal approaches referred to above to be put into practice, two further aspects need to be analysed:

- first, the way in which societal progress can be reflected in goals acknowledged as such at all levels of the social scale;

– second, how society's potential can be harnessed to work towards these goals and to identify, analyse and implement means of overcoming obstacles.

2. Translating the progress of society into universally recognised goals

For society to be capable of achieving the goal of well-being for all, the links between the levels have to make it possible for the criteria of well-being expressed by citizens to be taken up at the higher levels, particularly in terms of rights – and the accompanying obligations (which are obligations rather than duties, within the meaning given by Adela Cortina,[101] in other words links which need to be acknowledged and reinforced as they stem from living together).

2.1. New rights and obligations deriving from the criteria of well-being expressed by citizens

The criteria of well-being expressed by citizens are a product of their memories and analysis of the advances and shortcomings of the context. As a result, the very foundations of modern societies have a major influence on the selection of these criteria, particularly:

– the rule of law, which forms the basis for the concept of personal security and for the functioning of society's infrastructure;
– democracy, which guarantees freedom of expression and the exercise of citizenship;
– human rights, which are the cultural and legal basis of social justice.

The rule of law, democracy and human rights are a lasting guarantee of equality in a context of coexistence in diversity and establish key benchmarks for the development of equitable forms of conduct, whether by institutions or individuals. They are crucial assets and an invaluable cultural heritage. The work done by the Council of Europe over the last 60 years (along with that of the United Nations at world level) shows how much progress can be made on the basis of these three fundamental values, in particular by devising joint international and national standards forming the basis for institutions promoting democracy, solidarity and social protection, respect for minorities, equal opportunities and proper management of shared spaces and assets (such as landscapes, spatial planning, information and communication) with a view to fostering peaceful coexistence between peoples.

Historically, obligations, like rights, have been regarded as social precepts. One example of this is the Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Man and the Citizen of 1795,[102] which served as a common standard for the conduct of and relations between the generations of that time. More recently, the UNESCO Declaration on the Responsibilities of the Present Generations Towards Future Generations[103] has included another aspect, namely the duty to devise rules of conduct and behaviour for present generations with a comprehensively forward-looking approach geared to protecting the rights of future generations.

Elaborative processes make it possible for citizens to assert and make use of the knowledge they have acquired about the fundamental structures of the society they live in. They also help them, on the basis of their own

101. Cortina, 2007.

102. http://chnm.gmu.edu/revolution/d/298.

103. http://portal.unesco.org/en/ev.php-URL_ID=13178&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html.

experience, to clarify other aspects of well-being in which "forms of recognition" become necessary. What we are talking about here are intrinsic components of the virtuous circles of well-being which are crucial to the way in which humans organise their lives together although they do not form part of a binding legal framework. They take the form of organisational adjuncts to existing rights and obligations. We shall refer to them as "new rights", in the sense that they are "collective or universal competences". They are more of a model of "how things should be done" and how non-material assets can be used to serve the well-being of all. They are categorised as "new rights" because they reflect what citizens express themselves and are applicable and accessible to all, rather than because they form part of a body of law. They are also "new rights" according to the definition given to them by Norberto Bobbio,[104] who sees them as new formulas for living together, in response to the historical development of consciousness and contexts. They reflect changes in the complex web of social relations. As these new rights offer the possibility of making practical proposals for their actual implementation, they open up paths to new forms of social dialogue.

Table 322, which breaks up the activities listed in Figure 316 into "phases", divides these new rights into their individual and collective dimensions.

Table 322 – Examples of new rights for the well-being of all

Phases of activity	General definition of the new right	Individual aspects	Collective aspects
Planning and organisation	**Right to recognition and to non-discrimination**	Recognition as a fully-fledged citizen Recognition of individual knowledge and skills	Recognition of the wealth and diversity of cultures Recognition of the contribution of citizens to public life and life in the community
Decision	**Right to participate in decision-making**	Involvement in consultation and decision-making processes	Collective consultation (in a geographical area or collective body) and joint decision making
Sharing of responsibilities	**Right to responsibility and co-responsibility**	Exercise of co-responsibility as a citizen	Co-responsibility of a group, a collective body, a set of citizens within a given area, etc.
	Right to meaningfulness	Of individual contributions to the goal of progress in society	In public and collective action in relation to the goal of progress in society
	Right to information	On the impact of choices on society/the environment	On the networking of areas, collective bodies, etc.
	Right to transparency	In the aims and efforts required of citizens by the authorities	In the allocation of responsibilities and results
	Right to consistency	Of individual responsibilities, means and autonomy	Of the responsibilities of collective bodies; between levels
Achievement/ time-use	**Right to autonomy and to privacy**	Autonomy of thought and decision making and respect for privacy	Autonomy of a group, a collective body or a geographical area
	Right to personal development	Fulfilment at work, within the family and as a citizen; social mobility	Fairness, conviviality, exchange; collective processes

104. Bobbio, 1990.

	Right to initiative	As an individual	As a group
	Right to creativity	As an individual	As a group
	Right to take risks	To change ideas	To reconcile risk taking and protection through solidarity
	Right to make mistakes	To be able to go back	Honesty towards those who suffer from the adverse effect of poor decisions
	Right to a second chance	To be able to start again, change and manage transitions	Honesty towards those who suffer from the adverse effect of poor decisions
Allocation of results	**Right to fairness**	In access to goods (including common goods), knowledge and participation	Equity between social groups and geographical areas

These new rights for citizens living as a community have some distinctive features:

- as has been said, they are more of an ethical addition to human rights, which is to say that they form part of what might be regarded as a new contract on community living for the well-being of all;
- they are inter-relational (among citizens and between citizens and institutions) rather than legislative in nature, and some of them are difficult to codify in legal terms. Their political value lies in the fact that they clarify the attitudes that are required to achieve societal aims such as justice and equality;
- they are essential when considering how to bridge the gap between the hopes and desires of societies and citizens and their realisation;
- they are conducive to a view of obligation which is not established by a regulatory text but more of a "self-obligation" and the idea that in a new agreement about life in society human expression counts.

These new rights – which arise from a system of deliberative interaction between citizens – derive from the societal rationale. Some of them even introduce principles into the way of applying rules and mechanisms of punishment and reward designed to avoid vicious circles of ill-being, such as the concepts of the right to make mistakes and the right to a second chance. They can provide a setting for the implementation of non-coercive strategies, on which there is consensus because of the very fact that they are based on the realisation through dialogue that new forms of inter-relationship are needed.

The new rights listed in the table above are based on ideas expressed by citizens at given moments in specific contexts.[105] They may change in other environments and settings. The most important thing for our purposes is to ensure that there are opportunities in which they can be expressed and given a formal structure.

2.2. Giving practical expression to the new rights and obligations

Where responsibility for well-being for all lies mainly with the authorities, the rights and obligations that they establish serve as a model for society. In this case, both rights and obligations are chiefly legal in nature and the state (or higher authorities such as the European Court of Human Rights) ensures that they are applied.

In an approach based on co-responsibility, rights and obligations can also be established on a shared, consensual basis. Elaborative processes have their part to play in establishing criteria and the prerequisites for achieving consensus about them. They may also be expressed through various instruments such as charters or agreements, reflecting a spirit of mutual understanding between the stakeholders.

105. The rights in the table are based on the criteria expressed by citizens in applications of the method proposed by the Council of Europe carried out in Europe and in Africa between 2006 and 2009.

At Mulhouse zoo (France), indicators of well-being developed by employees from various departments were used as the basis for a charter of ethics on harmony in the workplace. There was internal consultation on the document and every employee signed up to it. The charter simply established principles. It laid out a path towards improved well-being through interactive learning. It was combined with individual and collective implementing measures but none of these was binding. According to those involved, the process of drawing up and implementing the charter had a major impact on their well-being.

2.3. New rights and obligations deriving from consideration of the well-being of future generations

Bringing future generations into the reckoning involves trade-offs in areas such as the use of resources and waste management, decisions on public debt, and welfare reform. What obligations and rights should be established to clarify such responsibilities?

Logically, we should be applying the principle of equity, taking account of intergenerational issues. The concept of right of equal access, particularly the right of equal access to atmospheric space, referred to at the Copenhagen negotiations in December 2009,[106] marks a particularly important historical turning point. Relating as it does to the most universal resource one could think of – the atmosphere – this principle should serve as a starting point from which to extend the right of equal access to all resources, including those that have been created through collective efforts such as social protection, health protection and pensions.[107]

The right of equal access to any kind of resource should entail a level of use which does not jeopardise its renewal or sustainability. In the case of waste (negative heritage), the aim should be to calculate the maximum up to which it can be absorbed without endangering the environment (for example, total CO_2 emissions should lie within the earth's capacity to retain and reabsorb carbon, particularly through photosynthesis).

The right of equal access is both a right and an obligation but unlike rights and obligations relating to present generations, it must be defined on the basis of surveys and simulations so that decisions are of clear, objective benefit to future generations. This is more than a process of consultation; it involves gathering and compiling information and forecasting scenarios on the basis of existing scientific knowledge.[108]

3. Working towards established aims while catering for the well-being of future generations

How do we go about ensuring that the interaction between bottom-up, top-down and horizontal approaches encompasses both aims of well-being for all, recognised by society's different stakeholders, and processes of actual progress towards such aims? The question is complex: it relates to choices and trade-offs which are

106. The concept which was discussed at the final negotiations does not appear as such in the final Copenhagen Accord. However, the following statement does appear (in point 2): "We agree that deep cuts in global emissions are required according to science, and as documented by the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report with a view to reduce global emissions so as to hold the increase in global temperature below 2 degrees Celsius, and take action to meet this objective consistent with science and on the basis of equity."

107. The availability of resources for each individual is calculated in relation to incomes and hence to purchasing power. However, as stated in Part 2 of the guide, this is only possible in a context where the main factor limiting the availability of resources is capacity for economic production, giving each household a right of acquisition (its income) depending on its participation (at least in theory). Where natural resources are the main limiting factor, right of access changes substantially and the concept of equal access has to be introduced.

108. For instance, the right of equal access to atmospheric space should determine the maximum level of greenhouse gas emissions per inhabitant that the earth can sustain without running the risk of global warming above the level of the additional 2°C compared to the pre-industrial situation.

constantly made at all levels of society, from individual choices (consumption, activities, etc.) through those of companies and other collective bodies, to those of the public authorities.

3.1. Making choices that reflect rights and obligations

The first requirement is that all choices should be made in full knowledge of the facts, particularly where their impact comes into play. This exercise requires processes of thought, comparison and forming of views both at the level of the authorities and among companies and citizens. The goal should be to promote educated choices taking account of a broad range of criteria.

Bottom-up measures rely on voluntary approaches, whose aim is to establish reference points for choices (consumption, activities and investments) based on the criteria of well-being defined by citizens and the needs of future generations. These citizen-based practices are already common but at levels which are still limited by the inadequacy of globally shared reference points and a lack of clarity about the trade-offs to be made. Putting the well-being of all into practice without using non-renewable energies (and with the specific aim of reducing greenhouse gases) opens up prospects for such citizen-based measures, as we shall see below; however, carrying out the necessary transformations requires close partnerships with specialised research bodies.

Top-down approaches are reflected in binding measures such as the taxation of goods and services in keeping with the damage they cause to well-being. Institutional measures of this kind are also already quite common and are on the increase. Examples of this are the carbon taxes and other similar kinds of tax which have been introduced recently in several countries and are currently being considered at European level,[109] along with various other forms of taxation, some of which are imposed directly on citizens (such as taxes on oil products or the per-kilometre road tax applied in the Netherlands), or tax incentives (such as zero-rate eco-loans, tax credits, ecological bonuses and ecological tax systems). More could be done, for example by turning value added tax (VAT) into a greenhouse gas tax to influence prices and greenhouse gas emissions. There are also potential trade-offs to be made in the sphere of welfare and health between the taxation of labour (which reduces the financial resources of the younger generations), consumer tax and the taxation of profits.

Bottom-up and top-down approaches are inextricably linked. Neither is possible without the other because they rely on and reinforce one another. Top-down measures create normative obligations whereas bottom-up ones show how essential it is to rediscover our interdependence. This rediscovery will enable us to self-regulate and adjust our own behaviour by reducing consumption, reusing, recycling and showing solidarity with the most vulnerable members of society and with future generations, in other words adopting an approach based on making savings. This is the kind of context in which new obligations will be accepted. For example, prices could be linked to consumption and to greenhouse gas emissions. These approaches also highlight the need, when exercising these new rights, to adopt a new view of self-regulation, assigning value to other types of product and to undertakings comprising aspects of reciprocity and generosity. In Belgium, for instance, when current generations in the Walloon Region were asked to pool their thoughts about the well-being of future generations, the words and concepts which came up included "free services", "social justice", "learning from mistakes", "giving", "preserving", "living more simply", "condemning exploitation", "changing our way of thinking", "living in harmony with nature and others", "reducing media hype" and "getting everyone involved".

This shows how pressing a need there is to take these two steps together to succeed both in legitimising these new rights and obligations in the eyes of present and future generations and in working towards their actual implementation. There are examples, particularly on a small-scale level, where agreement around common values is

109. The question was raised by the EU Ministers of Finance meeting in Göteborg (Sweden) on 2 October 2009.

relatively strong. These are not, however, sufficiently well-established, recognised or systematically applied to be transferable in the short term to a broader scale. The case of cities involved in activities such as "CittàSlow" has already been cited. In this type of experiment forms of civic self-regulation are established and proposed to the public through a horizontal network-based approach, which is implemented with the help of collective bodies and includes measures such as reducing or limiting the consumption and use of resources and giving priority to future-orientated investments (including positive energy housing, renewable energy production and, more generally, the establishment of socially and environmentally responsible firms and businesses in the non-material economy).

Lastly, the codification of trade-offs in difficult circumstances should be improved. For example, as we saw in Part 1, the citizens in Minamata (Japan) had to make the choice between losing their jobs in the only major local business and protecting their environment and their health by setting up alternative models of self-regulation. This example and other experiments reported on in this guide show that relative balances and priorities also need to be decided on in consultation with the public. When choices are made which will have a decisive impact, including individual choices, better use should be made of the contributions that citizens and communities can make to devising models of social assessment and self-regulation, such as pooling knowledge and identifying the inherent potentials of living environments.

3.2. Acquiring the skill to identify and overcome obstacles

The foregoing considerations show that the key to societal progress is to combine different approaches. This progress will not necessarily follow on naturally though, because there are several different types of obstacle which can hamper any of the necessary adjustments in direction that it requires. We shall focus on three of these, which can be categorised as follows:

- socio-economic and cultural obstacles;
- physical obstacles;
- institutional obstacles.

Each of these types of local and/or citizen-based schemes can also provide the basis for potential solutions.

a. Socio-economic and cultural obstacles

Clearly, one of the obstacles to the establishment of well-being for all is the way in which consumption is organised. Its much needed reorganisation can be brought about by establishing the new rights and obligations discussed above and developing a notion of satisfaction based on several criteria. Interactive reflection on criteria of well-being may serve as the basis for an investigation into ways of life which are more in keeping with what we regard as well-being, such as the establishment of meeting places, the development of collective and sharing activities, pooling of facilities and cultural and leisure activities, reduction of working hours and the use of the spare time thus created for non-monetary pursuits (DIY, repairs, social activities, knowledge sharing, etc.). There are good examples of this. Discussing the future of the planet and the need to alter our way of life straightaway to cope with climate change has resulted in a very interesting initiative called "Transition Towns", which began in Ireland but has now spread to many other countries. Its starting point was not a desire to identify indicators but a growing awareness of the challenges faced by the planet, particularly in relation to the concepts of peak oil and resilience (that is to say the capacity of societies to progress despite, or even as the result, of crises). It was originally a citizens' movement but it is now being pursued increasingly in co-operation with the authorities.[110]

110. See www.transitiontowns.org.

The next issue is the reorganisation of employment and the functioning of structures. Taxation of goods and services which produce greenhouse gases will lead to a drop in demand for such goods and services (such as air transport, private cars and intensive agriculture) and a commensurate increase in sectors and technologies designed to make energy or usage savings. The transition phase that such changes entail will be all the more readily accepted if problems of financial insecurity and poverty can be avoided by working with citizens to reconcile these changes with well-being goals. Minamata is a good example of how this can work, along with the experiments launched by the Nuovo Municipio network in Italy.

More generally, the reorganisation or reform of collective bodies requires a complete review of their function in society with all the persons concerned (those who work for them and those who benefit from their services). Elaborative processes conducted in companies, schools and public services following the Council of Europe method, which attempts to reconcile the well-being of employees or pupils with the function of the body in question in society (the economic performance of a business, the educational purpose of a school or the efficiency of a public service), provide scope for these goals to come together and reinforce one another. The positive effects of focusing on the "societal" function of bodies in the light of the progress of society are also brought to the fore.

Lastly, measures to establish forms of shared responsibility all along a production chain, whether it has no intermediaries between the manufacturers or workers and the users or it brings a whole series of partners into play, are particularly beneficial. For example, local solidarity-based partnerships between producers and consumers are emerging all over the world and show how it is possible to improve well-being for all (by fostering social ties, enhanced dignity and recognition of producers and fair trade) while reducing greenhouse gas emissions (through the localisation of the economy, reduced inputs and consumption of non-renewable energy). Extending the approach to all goods and services, solidarity-based purchasing groups are undergoing a boom in Italy and spreading to other countries; they bring together citizens who purchase from companies or self-employed workers in a solidarity-based partnership in which all the partners commit themselves to a process of environmental and social improvement.

b. Physical obstacles

Reconciling well-being with land use is a constantly recurring theme of the experiments described in this guide. Constantly pushing back the bounds of what is possible in terms of transport has resulted in land-use patterns which have turned distances into factors conducive to ill-being and increased consumption of non-renewable energies.

This is reflected in the criteria established by citizens, who demand the right to towns and cities on a human scale. Among the criteria of ill-being they cite are ever-longer transport times and the constraints these entail, social disparities between different urban neighbourhoods, which give rise to violence, the frequent poor state of maintenance of city centres because they are inhabited by the poorest people and, conversely, the fact that poor people are being forced out of the city centres to peripheral neighbourhoods causing them problems of mobility.

In the United States, in particular, a number of participatory schemes have been set up to try to tackle the need for a complete rethink about spatial planning, as illustrated by the example of Kansas City. Faced with its sprawling expansion and the concentration of social problems in its centre, this city has begun a general review process, which it has dubbed "Metro Outlook" (www.metrooutlook.org). It involves a multiple-indicator-based systems analysis of the Kansas City region making use of statistics and surveys of the inhabitants. It has revealed the disastrous consequences of changes in land use both on the social and environmental fronts (including the impact on future generations) and in the economic sphere. Faced with the increase in costs in monetary terms, transport times and communication problems, the city is no longer capable of keeping up its

economic performance. Now that this realisation has dawned, discussion on the bases for a process of comprehensive reorganisation has begun.

c. Institutional and political obstacles

These obstacles mainly have to do with resistances and inertia which are inherent in the way that progress is viewed at institutional level.

In particular, there is a clear systematisation of the answer to the question "how should we live together?" at all levels, including the setting of objectives and the measuring and assessment of institutional policies.

Around this systematisation, or simplification, issues are played out such as the structuring of power and the influence of stakeholders in whose interest it is to adhere to a concept of progress confined to the specific goal of short-term growth in GDP. The result is that we are left with only one type of information, which is incomplete, compartmentalised, opaque, ideological and often submerged in a surfeit of meaningless details, depriving society of an in-depth debate on its structures and its goals.

Faced with these obstacles, schemes which offer citizens means of considering and expressing ideas on ways of "living together" go beyond simply questioning the authorities about the advances of progress as such (which is the role of citizens in all representative democracies) and extends to setting multiple objectives of societal progress (which is the role of citizens in democratic deliberation and elaborative processes). They represent a hope that complex issues will be raised again in the public arena and that we may look beyond established interests to incorporate public views and feelings into the political decision-making process.[111]

4. Conclusion

The ideas presented in this chapter bear out the theory that for society to ensure well-being for all there has to be a partnership and interaction between the authorities, the public and civil society organisations. Elaborative processes have a key role to play provided that they interact with other political spheres.

Taking the arguments put forward at the end of Part 2 a step further, we shall now:

- fine-tune the conceptual and methodological framework for elaborative processes to show how they link up with one another;
- explain what role higher political echelons can play in ensuring that these links are formed.

The first aim is the very purpose of this guide and is dealt with in the following chapter, based on the theory set out in Part 1 with its "cube of potential complementarities for societal progress". Its implementation is analysed in Part 4 – on knowledge tools and indicators – and in Part 5 – on methods.

The second aim is dealt with in the overall conclusion to the guide.

111. See, in this connection, Magnaghi, 2006.

Chapter 3 – Fine-tuning the reference framework to combine methods

Processes involving citizens and communities at local level can contribute to society's progress towards well-being for all only if we can learn from and ensure complementarity between the various approaches employed in different parts of the world. For this complementarity to be achieved, there must be a reference framework which can make the possible links visible and comprehensible. The summary tables and the "cube of potential complementarities for societal progress" in Part 1 of the guide provide an illustration of how this might be done. The cube shows the various ways in which initiatives can differ.

- In terms of the phases into which they are divided

Few initiatives cover every phase from participation in the definition of what well-being means and approaches to building indicators and taking action: some focus on creating and then measuring indicators (the primary aim being monitoring), while others move from the participation phase to action without selecting or building indicators beforehand.

- In terms of the participants

Although the common feature of the initiatives is the involvement of citizens and communities, roles and participants may differ: some initiatives consist mainly of a partnership between researchers and public authorities, some are open to an area's stakeholders and others are directed at the parties affected by a sectoral policy or activity or the members of a collective body or entity (management and staff of a business, members of civil society organisations, etc.).

- In terms of the scales on which the initiatives are implemented

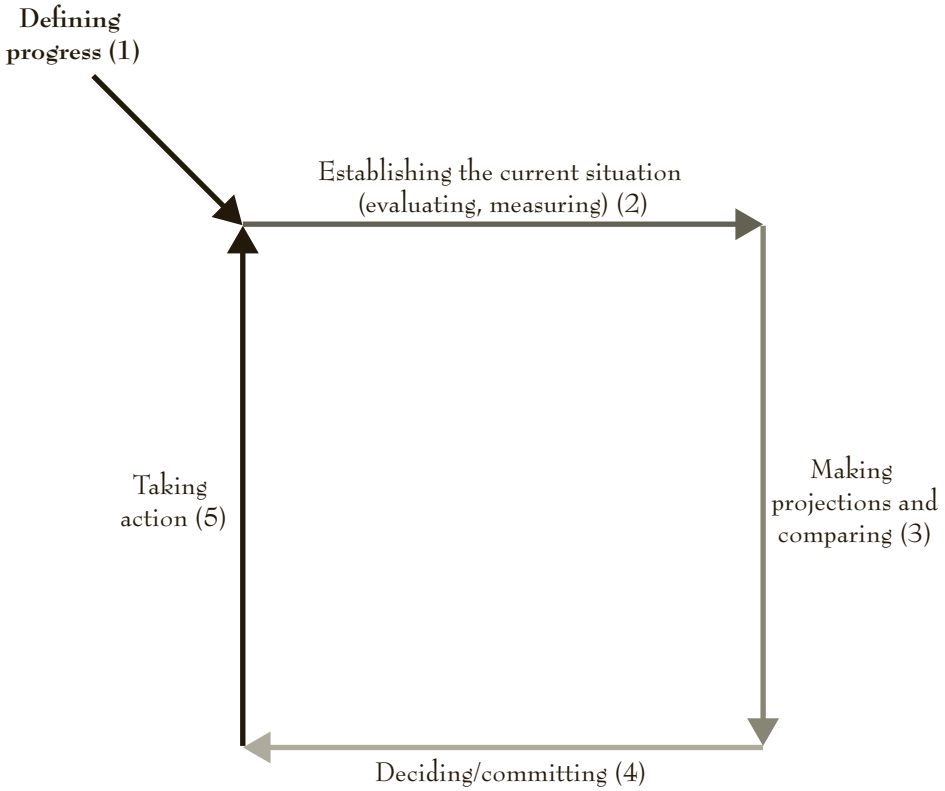
Some initiatives cover a specific sector identified as a priority, or possibly a specific activity, while some take place within a collective entity (business, school or service), other more numerous ones relate to a geographical area (municipality, neighbourhood or community), and some concern a whole region.

However, according to the conclusions of the last chapter in Part 2, societal progress can only be achieved if all the phases, participants and scales are taken into account and gradually integrated into the process. We shall now attempt to explain how the three dimensions illustrated by the cube in Part 1 could interact in a progress cycle.

1. Identifying links between phases and participants

The five phases identified in the cube are as follows: 1. Defining progress; 2. Establishing the current situation (evaluating, measuring); 3. Making projections; 4. Deciding and committing; 5. Taking action. These phases may be regarded as forming a progress cycle represented by a loop. This implies that after Phase 5 (taking action) we return to Phase 2 to evaluate the results of the action then make fresh projections on that basis, and so on.

Figure 331 – Initial representation of a progress cycle



In line with Figure 331, the first phase (defining progress) takes place once and for all at the outset. However, after evaluation, the definition may be questioned and this entails going back to the first phase and beginning a new progress cycle.

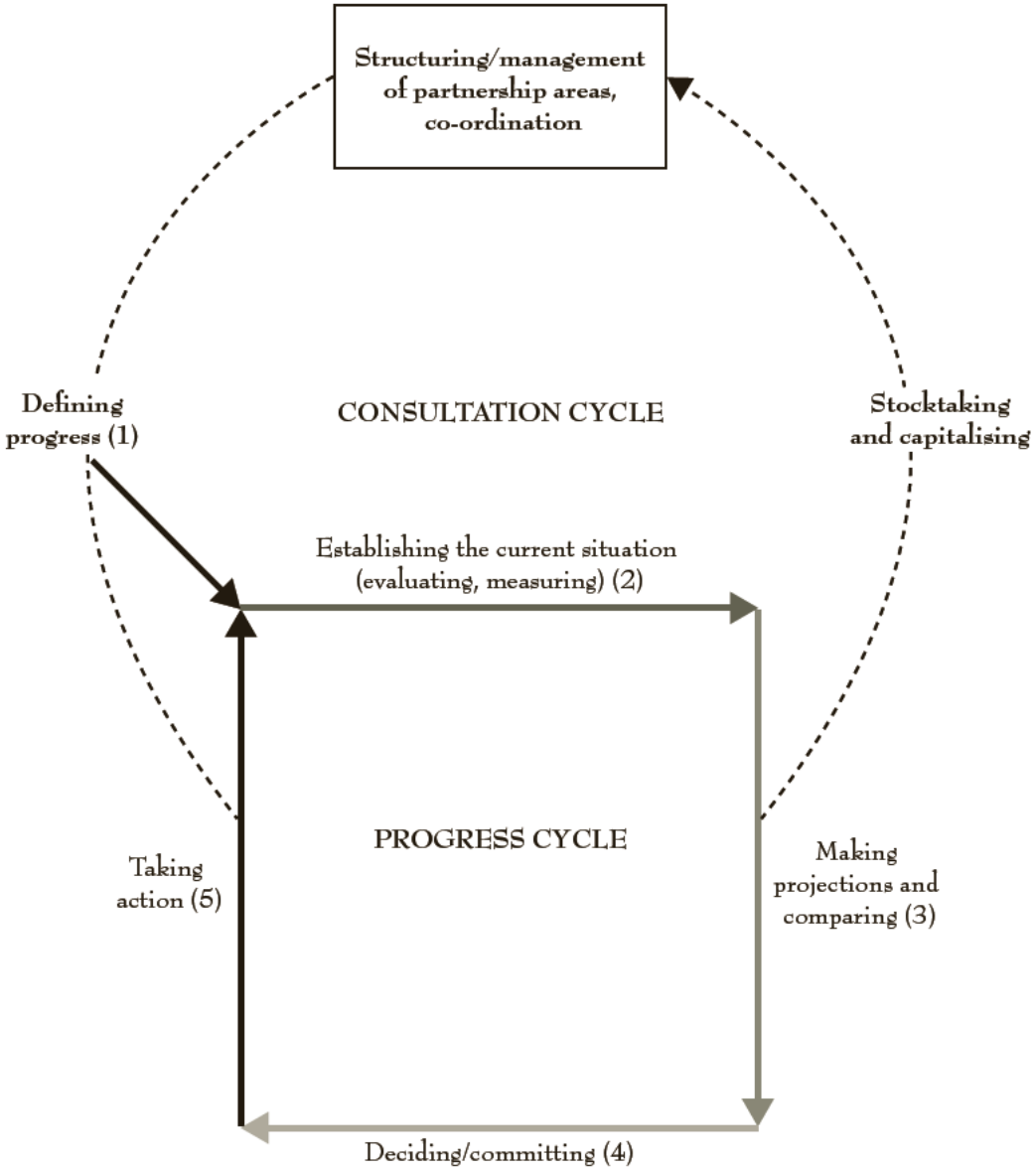
In initiatives involving citizens, defining progress requires a preliminary phase in which the future participants are mobilised and organised (into a partnership, steering committee, co-ordination group, etc.). Lastly, reconsideration of the definition means asking the participants to take stock of the process. Another cycle thus emerges, which we shall term the "consultation cycle", accompanying the progress cycle. This twin cycle can be represented as in Figure 332.

The consultation cycle plays a key role not only in properly positioning and then regularly reconsidering the definition and relevance of the progress cycle but also in linking the different progress cycles, as we shall see. It determines the conduct of societal progress. However, once progress has been defined, the progress cycle can also recur again and again, without any return being made to the consultation cycle (Figure 331).

Traditionally, consultation cycles and progress cycles occur more among parties working in similar fields or having common interests, or in specific contexts – this is the case with the three-way discussions conducted by governments, businesses and trade unions or those of intergovernmental organisations such as the Council of Europe. In the latter instance, the cycles relate to the establishment of common principles and standards for the member states in fields as diverse as democracy, human rights, social cohesion and respect for cultural diversity.

Today, because of the complexity of societal questions, consultation is taking on more flexible forms, reflected in particular in the various examples of public-private partnership. Within these configurations, the question of shared responsibility has arisen in connection with a whole variety of subjects and fields ranging from local to global level.

Figure 332 – Twin cycle: progress cycle and consultation cycle

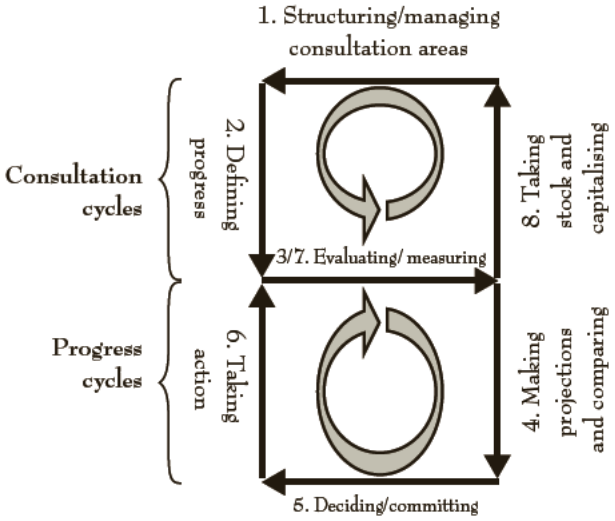


We suggest that any process of societal progress be regarded as consisting of eight phases which occur in two cycles (a "figure of eight" pattern), which can be represented as in Figure 333.

In this figure, evaluation is the phase that is common to both cycles, facilitating their interlinking. The numbers indicate the usual order of the phases.

Within an intergovernmental body such as the Council of Europe, this "figure of eight pattern" can be described as follows: discussions take place in its consultation bodies (1) about substance and common reference points, leading to the drawing up of conventions or recommendations (2), which will serve as a guide for progress cycles in member states (3, 4, 5 and 6). Progress is evaluated and reported on by each state (7), after which a European assessment is made (8), leading to fresh discussions within the consultation bodies (1), and so on.

Figure 333 – Simplified representation of a "figure of eight" link between consultation cycles and progress cycles

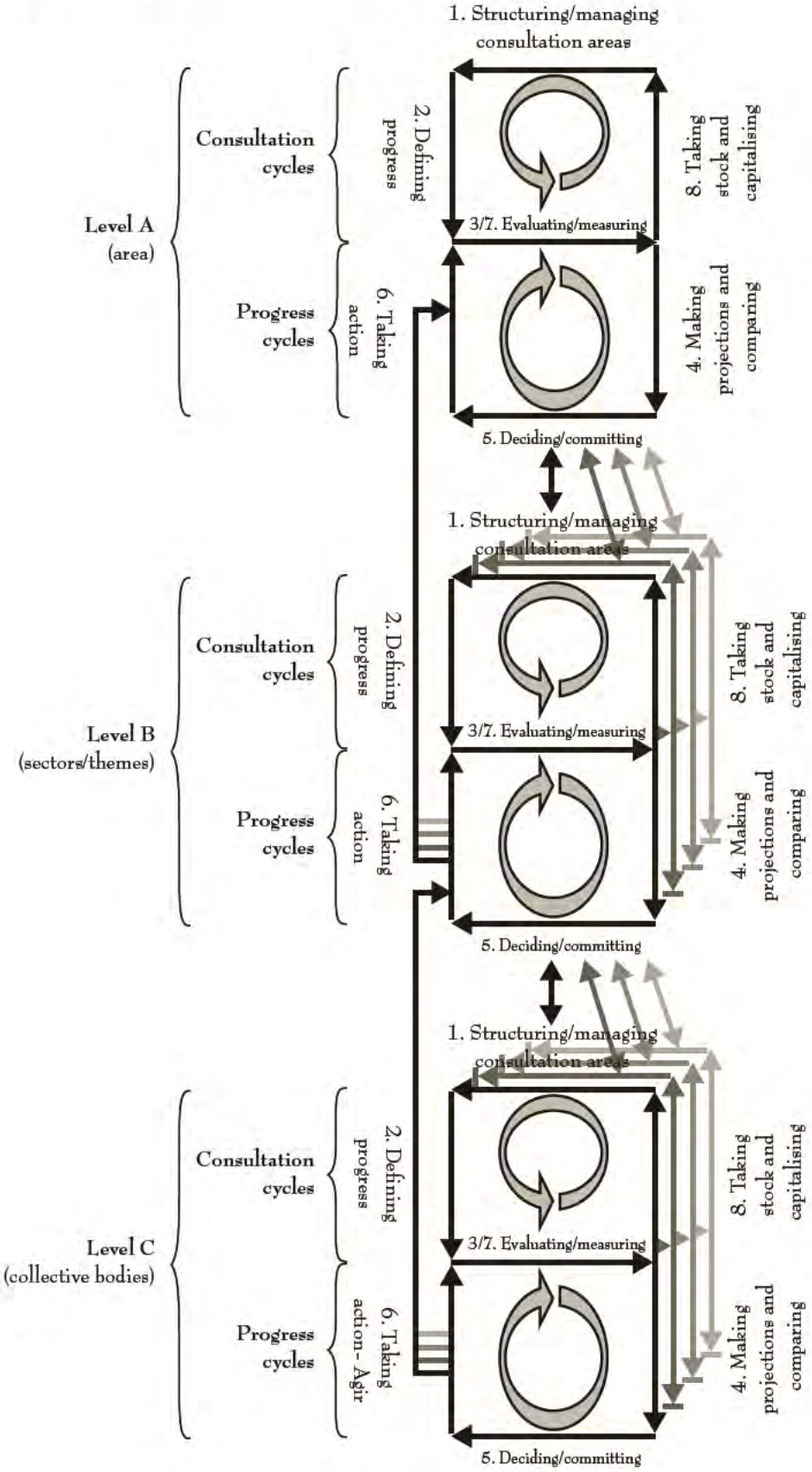


2. Links between scales of activity

At local level, progress processes relate to sectoral or specific activities, changes in collective entities (businesses, schools or services) or the area as a whole. The examples given in Part 1 of the guide illustrate these three types of activity.

These flexible intervention processes are complementary and can therefore be interlinked in a societal progress process. Looking back at Figure 333, the ideal link between the three types can be represented as shown in Figure 334.

Figure 334 – General representation of the ideal link between different levels of progress cycles and consultation cycles



Level A is the area itself, level B is that of specific sectors, themes or issues, and level C that of collective bodies.

This figure illustrates the possible (upward and downward) links. It shows the phases which are essential to the links between levels, namely:

- the deciding/committing phase (5). During this phase, the players decide what cycles to set up to fulfil the commitments made in accordance with their responsibilities. These new cycles start with the structuring of consultation areas. At level C, for example, this will be an existing collective entity which has a degree of responsibility, such as a school with its educational function;
- the other important link occurs during the "taking action" phase (6) as each level's action plans and their implementation feed into those of the level above (level C action plans have to fit in with those of level B and those of level B have to fit in with those of level A).

This figure simply outlines a general approach. It has the benefit of providing a relatively comprehensive theoretical framework for the ideal way of linking up various elaborative processes with a view to societal progress, which could be described as follows:

- at level A (area), once the consultation area (or co-ordination group) has been set up (phase 1), well-being goals are set in consultation with the public then transformed into indicators (phase 2). After this the situation on the ground and the relevance of the activities being carried out can be assessed (phase 3). Projections and comparisons relating to possible means of improving the situation (phase 4) help to identify a number of issues which need to be dealt with in consultation with the players and citizens concerned before moving on to the commitment stage (phase 5). These issues relate to specific sectors (such as health and education) or themes (such as preserving local resources, improving the situation of the most disadvantaged people in the community or economic questions related to matters such as employment, income and consumption);
- a similar process then follows for each of these sectors or themes (level B). Sectoral or theme-based partnerships are set up if they do not already exist (phase 1), specific goals are set and the corresponding indicators are selected and developed (phase 2), situations are reviewed (phase 3) and projections and comparisons are made and an action plan is established (phase 4). Here again, the move to the commitments stage (phase 5) requires each player involved in the sector or the theme in question to devise their own action plan and, in the case of collective entities, this means that they must organise an internal consultation process;
- this is the point at which level C comes into play for collective bodies. A similar process then follows for each body and recurs until a specific action plan has been established for each individual (phase 4).

Phases 5, 6, 7 and 8 are then applied, linking up levels A, B and C.

Table 335 provides a more detailed description of this hypothetical process. It divides each of the eight phases at the three levels into several tasks. It is set out in what seems to be the most logical order but, in practice, it may well be that the tasks are performed in a different order (see for example Table 336 on specific approaches).

Table 335 – Comprehensive reference framework for transforming elaborative processes involving citizens and local communities into processes of societal progress

Phases	Tasks			
	General	Level A: area	Level B: sector/ theme	Level C: collective bodies
1. Structuring the process	1.1. Start the process and establish the framework	Involve the authorities	Involve the relevant public and private stakeholders	Involve the managers and representatives of collective bodies (management, business, schools, hospitals, associations, etc.)
	1.2. Set up a consultation body	The co-ordination group representing the main public and private partners in the area	The sectoral and/ or theme-based co-ordination group	The co-ordination group representing the categories of people affected by the conduct of collective bodies (management, categories of employees)
	1.3. Involve citizens, taking account of their diversity	Ensure that diverse local groups are represented as broadly as possible	Ensure that the players concerned are represented as broadly as possible	Ensure that all the categories making up collective bodies are represented (not just employees, but also recipients/ users, suppliers, etc.)
2. Defining progress	2.1. Set objectives with citizens	Define the aim of well-being for all: identify the criteria relating to this aim and include future generations in the process	Define the specific objectives relating to the sector or theme concerned to ensure well-being for all, future generations included	Define the aims relating to (1) the well-being of the persons involved and (2) reconciling the well-being of individuals with the societal function of collective bodies
	2.2. Select or build indicators of progress and general guidelines with regard to the objective	Select/build well-being progress indicators including the preservation of resources and common goods	Select/build indicators corresponding to the specific aims of the sector or theme	Select/build indicators of progress towards the goals of collective bodies and the well-being of the persons concerned
	2.3. Validate and disseminate indicators and put them to public debate	Validate indicators with citizens/communities. Discuss/clarify the approaches suggested by them and disseminate them	Validate the indicators chosen and disseminate them	Validate the indicators and discuss/clarify the rules on coexistence within collective bodies
3. Evaluating/measuring ex ante	3.1. Evaluate situations on the basis of the indicators	Evaluate situations of well-being or ill-being and the state of resources and common goods	Likewise	Likewise
	3.2. Analyse the results of evaluations	Make summaries and cross-references, identify critical issues		
	3.3. Disseminate and provide information about the results of the evaluations	Inform citizens and local partners about the results (by preparing and publishing reports, posting information on websites) – establish links with the media		

	3.4. Evaluate current activities	Evaluate the relevance of current activities in the area to criteria of well-being/ill-being and the preservation and handing down of resources and common goods	Likewise	Likewise
4. Making projections, comparing	4.1. Improve existing activities	Improve/refocus existing activities based on the evaluation of their relevance		
	4.2. Prospective analysis	On the basis of a SWOT-type analysis,[112] present various future scenarios or trends	Likewise	Likewise
	4.3. Devise and carry out pilot activities	Devise and implement co-responsibility pilot activities		
	4.4. Decide on the desirable/ideal scenario	Identify a scenario to foster well-being for all, future generations included		
	4.5. Devise a strategy for action	Establish a local or regional strategy to put into practice the selected scenario		
5. Deciding, committing	5.1. Establish responsibilities	Allocate responsibilities		
	5.2. Decide how funds/resources will be distributed	Distribute available funds/resources or try to find additional resources		
	5.3. Establish an action plan			
	5.4. Define contractual commitments			
6. Taking action	6.1. Follow up	Follow up commitments and action		
7. Evaluating ex post	7.1. Evaluate the impact of actions	With regard to the aim of well-being for all and the preservation of common resources and goods, evaluate whether the results achieved are consistent with the aims set and the degree of urgency		
	7.2. Evaluate how activities have been run, whether commitments have been fulfilled and what difficulties have arisen			

112. SWOT = Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats – The identification of factors in each of these categories provides a basis for prospective analyses (see section 4, Chapter 1, Part 5).

	7.3. Identify areas in which changes may be required	
8. Taking stock and capitalising	8.1. Capitalise on methods	Think about methods and draw the corresponding conclusions, fine-tune practices on the basis of comparisons between areas and set up formal networks Establish a link with higher levels.
	8.2. Disseminate results	Publications, events, media, etc.

This hypothetical approach is not always applied completely in practice. However, if we look at the examples given in Part 1, some cover level B relatively comprehensively. This is the case in particular with the approach adopted by Applied Survey Research (ASR) in the United States, which has benefited greatly from the experience acquired over its long history. The Nuovo Municipio network in Italy has had fewer years to learn but has also developed relatively integrated processes involving the rehabilitation of landscapes and local cultural heritage to improve the well-being of its inhabitants. These two examples are presented in Table 336.

Table 336 – Two examples of processes carried out at level B in specific sectors or on specific themes

Phases	Tasks	Example with specific social goals (approach adopted by ASR in Santa Cruz, California, United States)[113]	Example with a landscape development goal (approach adopted by the province of Ascoli Piceno in Italy)[114]
1. Structuring the process	1.1. Start the process and establish the framework	Step 1: Establish a steering committee comprising representatives of local government, business, schools, NGOs, and residents	The European Landscape Convention (ETS No. 175) is the starting point for the project implemented by the province
	1.2. Set up a consultation body	Step 2: Make a commitment based on communities in the broadest sense (including vulnerable people)	Set up a steering committee with the local authorities, universities and a group of experts, and draft an agreement including rules and subjects of consultation
	1.3. Involve citizens, taking account of their diversity	Step 3: Set up working groups covering specific areas (including health, the economy, education and vulnerable people such as the young and the elderly)	Organise a survey to identify, with citizens, what local skills and qualities should be nurtured
2. Defining progress	2.1. Set objectives with citizens	Step 4: Draw up an outcome table (objectives as defined with citizens/ communities and targeting of results)	Hold a participatory survey and analyse themes suggested by local partners and citizens relating to common assets to be improved. For the purpose of this process, landscape is understood to be a combination of the relationship between humans and their environment and a forum to facilitate many inclusive processes
	2.2. Select or build indicators of progress and general guidelines with regard to the objective	Select indicators reflecting the quality of life of the region and measuring the main goals	Select key indicators reflecting the views of landscape arising from the survey

113. Similar approaches have been adopted in Jacksonville and Boston. See sheets US1 and US2 on the CD-Rom.

114. The landscape development process in the province of Ascoli Piceno is not complete for all the phases. As of the date of publication it had reached the action plan stage. See sheet IT3 on the CD-Rom.

	2.3. Validate and disseminate indicators and put them to public debate	Validate the indicators adopted with the help of residents and communities	
3. Evaluating/measuring ex ante	3.1. Evaluate situations on the basis of the indicators	Step 5: Organise the participatory collection of primary and secondary data for quality of life indicators in six or more fields	Collect data for the indicators chosen
	3.2. Analyse the results of evaluations	Step 6: Analyse data at a "data meeting" and in working groups	Analyse and notify citizens of a first set of findings based on the SWOT analysis[115] of the landscape's features carried out by the experts
	3.3. Disseminate and provide information about the results of the evaluations	Step 7: Draft a full report and publish information on a website. Present the findings to a wide audience (including residents) through the media and a press conference	Disseminate information via the media (newspapers, radio, brochures), to allow people to follow the debate
	3.4. Evaluate current activities		
4. Making projections, comparing	4.1. Improve existing activities	Step 8: Review existing policy and community activities with a view to improving them where possible	
	4.2. Prospective analysis	Step 9: Analyse positive and negative trends	
	4.3. Devise and carry out pilot activities	Think of new activities to put in place	Support relevant new ideas
	4.4. Decide on the desirable/ideal scenario		Establish an ideal land and landscape use scenario common to all the various stakeholders
	4.5. Devise a strategy for action	Step 10: Work together to set objectives and performance targets for communities/citizens	Implement a strategy focusing on two parts of the process, the first to raise awareness among citizens, the second to provide local administrators with the means to set up a participatory system in their field
5. Deciding, committing	5.1. Establish responsibilities	Step 11: Use the outcome table to encourage local authorities and community stakeholders to use these data in their programmes. Encourage NGOs and businesses to adopt a community goal and work towards it	Hold meetings, festivals and exhibitions involving citizens, associations and other movements to give them means of fully investigating themes, arriving at a shared, comprehensive, integrated view of the landscape and working together Train local authorities, businesses and other local partners to make a contribution to large-scale, consistent action to promote the protection and development of the landscape
	5.2. Set up and distribute funds and resources		Draw up participatory budgets for landscape development activities (also making use of EU structural funds)
	5.3. Establish an action plan		"Reframe" local and regional planning in accordance with landscape conservation and development principles and the various commitments entered into

115. See note on the previous table.

	5.4. Contractual agreements		Add to the impact of the convention by incorporating elements of co-responsibility into future projects
6. Taking action	6.1. Follow up activities and action plans	Implement activities	Implement and supervise/monitor landscape development activities (pending)
7. Evaluating ex post	7.1. Re-evaluate situations and the impact of activities to analyse changes	Step 12: Regularly review indicators and add new data if necessary. Back up the project and action plans. Evaluate the success of the project and return to step 1	Follow up on all projects and activities to give them more impact (pending)
	7.2. Evaluate how activities have been run, whether commitments have been fulfilled and what difficulties have arisen		Support all the players sharing information, activities and methods, to create a lasting co-operative network (pending)
	7.3. Identify areas in which changes may be needed and begin the progress cycle again (phase 4) if a change of direction is required		Identify tools and methods to enable all players to implement evaluation processes using new development indicators. Continue surveys to identify new needs and start new integration processes
8. Taking stock and capitalising	8.1. Capitalise on methods used for elaborative processes		Set up a best practices database and share it with partners and citizens (pending)
	8.2. Disseminate results	Update the report and publish the annual report of community indicators, award a prize, hold a press conference (radio, television …)	Hold regular events and press conferences and update reports to show the impact of activities

3. Instruments to manage the various phases

As well as making it easier to understand the various possible links between elaborative processes, the cross-cutting reference framework is a key to identifying the instruments and methods pertaining to each phase and each level.

These instruments fall into two main categories:

- indicators, which differ from phase to phase;
- organisational tools.

Table 337 sets out the instruments used at each of the eight phases of societal progress.

Table 337 – Summary of instruments used for the various phases of societal progress

Instruments		Corresponding phases						
		Structuring the process (phase 1)	Defining progress (phase 2)	Observing (evaluating/ measuring) (phases 3 and 7)	Making projections/ comparing (phase 4)	Deciding/ committing (phase 5)	Taking action (phase 6)	Capitalising (phase 8)
Indicators	Progress towards goals		E	M	U	U		
	Impact		C/E	M	U	U		
	State of resources		C/E	M	U	U		
	Pressure on resources		C/E	M	U	U	U	
	Follow-up (input/ implementation)				C/E	C/E	MU	
Organisational tools	Co-ordination group/ local partnership	F	A	A	A	A	A	A
	Funding partnership					F	A	
	Project partnerships					F	A	
	Networks				FA			A

Key for indicators: E = Elaboration; C/E = Choice or Elaboration; M = Measurement; U = Use;
Key for organisational tools: F = Formation; A = Activation.

A sixth type of indicator must be added to those listed in Table 337, namely indicators of context, which describe the general state of society. These come before the process itself. They are, to some extent, what triggers it off and determines the general line it will take.

All of these indicators can be used to raise questions about what types of progress need to be made in society:

- Based on the indicators of context, how can the general state of society be improved?
- Based on the indicators of progress towards goals, how can we progress towards the objective of well-being for all, future generations included?
- In relation to the indicators of impact, how can we make progress in rendering activities capable of satisfying the objective of well-being?
- In relation to the indicators of the state of resources, how can we meet the challenges we face in terms of common goods?
- In relation to the indicators of pressure on resources, how can we do more to preserve these resources?
- In relation to follow-up indicators, how can we improve the way that we carry out activities to improve situations of well-being?

Indicators therefore are essential to ensure that elaborative processes become real processes of societal progress. They vary in nature and type according to the level to which they pertain. These diverse requirements and types cause us to question the very concept of indicator and all of its implications in order to grasp how indicators of progress can be developed in conjunction with citizens and communities. This is the aim of Part 4.

Conclusion

This part of the guide has enabled us to fine-tune a reference framework the most significant component parts of which can be summarised as follows:

- Defining well-being for all with citizens and communities helps to highlight many of its characteristics. These relate to the place of citizens in society in a relationship affected by factors such as recognition, sense of commitment, autonomy and fairness. It is therefore in these non-material aspects that there is still most progress to be made, implying in particular that new rights and new collective powers relating to how to "act together" have to be devised. Co-responsibility emerges as one of the fundamental driving forces for progress seen from this angle.
- Placing emphasis on these new areas of progress makes it easier to reconcile the aim of well-being for present generations with that of well-being for future generations. What is more, the latter presents current generations with an opportunity to make societal progress.
- Making such societal progress towards well-being entails combining bottom-up measures based on elaborative processes involving citizens with top-down measures devised by the higher political echelons, together with horizontal measures to deal with the matter of responsibilities.
- To meet these expectations, elaborative processes involving citizens and communities must change and bring together several complementary approaches.
- Co-ordinating these different approaches also implies sharing knowledge, particularly with regard to indicators, and a joint methodological framework capable of creating a stimulating, inclusive approach which will ensure the success of the process.

Part 4

Rethinking the tools of societal progress (indicators)

Social cohesion

Introduction

The conclusions of Part 2 revealed four types of requirements for allowing elaborative processes that involve citizens and communities to develop, be integrated and generate a process of societal progress. The types of requirements are (a) recognised, shared objectives; (b) complementarity between players, levels and phases; (c) coherence to ensure their integration; and (d) dynamic capability to permit their development.

Part 3 provided reference frameworks for two of these requirements: stating the objective of well-being for all and society's ability to secure it (Chapters 1 and 2), and expressing how levels, phases and players complement each other (Chapter 3).

We now focus on the requirement for coherence in order to achieve integration between phases, players and levels, in particular by relying on common knowledge tools. Here, indicators serve a central function as the expression of the cognitive elements whereby situations can be assessed and decisions made about the actions to be taken.

First, the indicators will be dealt with from a general perspective (Chapter 1) to illustrate the range of possibilities which they offer as knowledge and action tools.

Chapter 2 concerns devising progress indicators, referring to the various types of indicators identified in Chapter 3 of the previous part.

Finally, in Chapter 3 we shall discuss the connections between multiple indicators and the links with the projected action.

The approach to indicators presented in this part of the guide places the main emphasis on the link between knowledge and action. It stands out from other approaches in attaching paramount importance to the meaning of the indicators in order to turn them into real tools of societal progress. In so doing, it relies on the experimentation work conducted by the Council of Europe.

Chapter 1 – General approach to indicators as knowledge and action tools

Since we are concerned with elaborative processes aimed at shared or co-responsibility, the construction of progress indicators takes on another meaning than that of an instrument harnessed exclusively to a policy or to the service of a collective entity. Shared responsibility in fact calls for the concerted design of indicators, which then lose their highly technical connotation to become crucial instruments of democratic debate.

Concerted production of progress indicators is thus a major methodological issue. This chapter will deal generally with the concept of indicators,[116] and the following chapters will examine how the concept is applied in elaborative processes with communities and citizens.

1. General features of indicators

1.1. Nature and rationale

In the broad sense, an indicator is anything (a number, a warning light, an informant, etc.) that conveys a simple and immediately perceptible piece of information that is sufficiently meaningful to allow a key aspect of a situation to be assessed at any given time. Most commonly, it is a number giving information about a variable regarded as essential for evaluating a de facto situation and deciding whether or not to take action as a result. The unemployment rate, for instance, is a key indicator, since it is perceived as a prime factor for evaluating the effectiveness of an economic or social policy. Thus an indicator is always linked to a particular concern (for example, driving a car, monitoring a patient's state of health or designing and implementing an official policy): its nature and form are designed for its purpose. In the case of a strategy (such as combating poverty), a number of indicators are grouped together in a chart.

1.2. Use

Indicators are generally for use by individuals or collective entities responsible for taking decisions and action on the basis of the information conveyed by the indicators.

For as long as a specific entity (public authorities, elected representatives, etc.) is responsible for management of the general interest, for example by managing public assets and resources, indicators are normally intended above all for the use of that entity. Indicators are provided by official statistical institutions, are carried in the media and serve as a reference point for the general public. When the objective is co-responsibility, however, indicators are for communal/pooled use and so must be created and chosen by all of society's stakeholders and come under a concerted approach.

116. This will be done by replicating certain elements of the aforementioned Council of Europe publication (2005).

1.3. Utility

An indicator's utility can be of two types (either or both):

- cognitive, through the comparisons over time which it affords, aiding understanding and knowledge of the ways in which a given object develops, and comparison between different objects, for example, the trend of a country's per capita GDP, and comparing it for different countries;
- operative, through the indications which it provides for carrying out a given type of action.

2. Range of values for indicators

An indicator may have different values depending on its subject[117] and the time of measurement, so it is not a plain item of data but a generally ordered set of possible values (discrete or continuous, usually limited to one dimension) which are mutually exclusive (a single value for a given object at a given time), which may be called the indicator's "response scale".[118] A simple example is a warning light, either on or off (two possible values).

Here we reiterate a distinction between three classes of indicators, corresponding to three types of range of values: objective quantitative indicators, objective qualitative indicators and subjective qualitative indicators.[119]

2.1. Quantitative indicators

The range of values for quantitative indicators is an interval in a set of real numbers or integers. For example, the range of values for the unemployment rate has the interval [0,1] (like that of any indicator built on a percentage).[120] In another example, the number of children per woman, the range of values constitutes all the integers from nought to the maximum number of children a woman can have during her lifetime. A quantitative indicator's range of values may thus be continuous (for example, wages) or discrete (for example, number of visits to the doctor per person per year), finite (for example, number of children per woman, given that a woman cannot have more than X children in her lifetime) or infinite (for example, GDP).

2.2. Objective qualitative indicators

In the case of objective qualitative indicators, the range of values is a factual scale consisting of objectively verifiable stages. Thus, it is always discrete and finite. The simplest example is the warning light where the scale consists of two stages only: on or off (yes/no). In this case, the range is discrete and binary (two possible values). Of course, examples with more than two stages are found, but these usually relate to a combination of correlated binary variables.

117. The subject of an indicator signifies whatever it relates to. For example, the subject of GDP is generally a given country.

118. Terminology used in the Council of Europe publication (2005), p. 103; see also the CD-Rom.

119. Ibid., pp. 98 and 102.

120. Note that all indicators of percentage or rate (unemployment rate, literacy rate, school attendance rate, etc.) are, at the outset, discrete binary variables (yes/no), because the rate/percentage is the ratio of the number of persons for whom the response is "yes" (have a job, are literate, attend school, etc.) to the total population ("yes" and "no").

To make this understandable, let us look at the example of the indicator proposed for monitoring the application of a law. This indicator may be defined according to a five-stage scale of progress:

- stage 1: the law is non-existent;
- stage 2: the law exists but there is no information system or supervision of its application;
- stage 3: the law exists and an information system has been set up and is effective, but there is no system of supervision and penalisation regarding its application;
- stage 4: a system of supervision and penalisation has been set up and is effective, but without appeals bodies;
- stage 5: appeals bodies are established and effective.

Each of these stages is a combination of binary scales (yes/no), each corresponding to a specific circumstance, which either exists (yes) or does not exist (no). Table 411 summarises these combinations.

Table 411 – Example of an objective qualitative indicator based on factual binary variables (exists/does not exist): indicator to monitor the application of a law

Stages: / Variables	1	2	3	4	5
Law exists	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
A system of information on the law is established and effective	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
A system of supervision and penalisation is established and effective	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Appeals bodies are established and effective	No	No	No	No	Yes

2.3. Subjective qualitative indicators

Subjective qualitative indicators refer not to objectively verifiable circumstances, but to opinions (replies to questions put to individuals). Here, matters are more complex. However, in a concerted elaborative process, the indicator can again be brought down to a scale consisting of discrete, ordered values corresponding to a combination of binary variables.

As an illustration, let us suppose that we require an indicator of trust in institutions (typically subjective and qualitative). To devise it there are various possible procedures, which we shall present as increasing levels in the precision of the indicator and the reliability of its measurement:

- 1st level of definition: a person is asked to choose a position on a scale representing progression from total lack of trust to complete trust;
- level 2: the person is asked to pick a score between 1 and 5 for his/her trust in the institutions;
- level 3: the same is done, but 1 is defined as a state of grave distrust, 2 distrust, 3 neither distrust nor trust, 4 trust and 5 great trust;
- level 4: it is specified that: (a) a state of deep distrust is one where the institutions are considered unjust and cater to individual (as opposed to collective) interests, and where neither their spoken word nor their documents are believed; (b) a state of distrust is the same, but documents are believed; (c) a state of neither distrust nor trust is one of believing in a certain justice on the part of institutions, but of not trusting their word; (d) a state of trust is the same, but their word is credited for short-term commitments; and (e) a state of great trust is one where their word is credited even for long-term commitments. At this level, then, we encounter the same breakdown into binary variables as for a subjective qualitative indicator (see Table 412).

Table 412 – Example clarifying a subjective qualitative indicator (trust in institutions) by disaggregation into binary variables (no = untrue; yes = true)

Status / Variables	1: grave distrust	2: distrust	3: neither distrust nor trust	4: trust	5: great trust
I believe in the written undertakings of the institutions	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
I consider the institutions just	no	no	yes	yes	yes
I consider that the institutions have the collective interest at heart	no	no	yes	yes	yes
I trust the word of the institutions for short-term commitments	no	no	no	yes	yes
I trust the word of the institutions even for long-term commitments	no	no	no	no	yes

From a comparison of the four levels described above it can be seen that at the first two levels the reply is fairly random, depending how the person questioned feels at the time and how he or she interprets the indicator's range. On the other hand, when different variables specify what the numbers mean, the respondents are prompted to reason accordingly, so that the responses are more reliable and less imbued with direct subjectivity.

From this example it can be inferred that, from the standpoint of the responses elicited, any subjective qualitative indicator is enhanced by being broken down into statuses or states defined by combinations of binary variables. Yet these can be chosen and put together in different ways. For example, the state of distrust may be one where the institutions are thought to cater only for individual interests, but where it is felt that they demonstrate a certain sense of justice, and their written documents, though not their spoken words, are deemed to be trustworthy. A variable of fear of institutions could also have been introduced. Thus, there can be some degree of subjectivity in the very definition of the indicator, leading to a paradoxical situation in that the more defined the indicator, the less random the response, but its very definition reflects the subjectivity of its designer, imposing on the person surveyed a framework that determines his or her own thoughts. This paradox may account for the frequent preference in statistical surveys for keeping to a non-defined indicator (level 1 or 2 in the above example) and running the risk of comparatively poor reliability of the responses, rather than make the indicator too closely defined and impose something that will influence the opinion of the persons surveyed.

The way round this paradox lies in the method of defining the indicators. Conventionally, they are defined by the statisticians themselves. Their definition is therefore inevitably tinged with their own subjectivity. On the other hand, if the persons surveyed are asked to give their own explicit definition of the graduations in the indicator before designating the one that corresponds to their situation, greater reliability will be achieved. This will apply both to the definition of the indicator and to its measurement. Of course it is not possible to carry out an exercise of this kind with a large sample of persons.

Elaborative processes allow this difficulty to be overcome by offering a concerted definition of the scale of values, and thus have the twofold advantage of being more reliable and of producing shared definitions and knowledge (admittedly, this second argument has no bearing on the conventional measurements of indicators).

In conclusion, within an elaborative process the range of values of any qualitative indicator, whether objective or subjective, can be constructed in a concerted fashion as a scale based on a number of binary variables.

3. Meaning of the indicator and of the values in its range

After the range of values, the second key characteristic of an indicator is what it signifies. The *Concerted development of social cohesion indicators – Methodological guide* (Council of Europe, 2005) provides a very broad spectrum of examples of indicators in various fields, describing on the one hand their range of values and on the other their meanings (besides information on sources, availability of data, levels of application, etc.).

This guide will enlarge on several key aspects of the meaning of indicators.

First, a distinction should be drawn between:

- the meaning of the indicator itself (for example, the unemployment rate indicates the percentage of unemployed persons);
- the meaning of the range of values as a whole and of the values individually, each of which may signify something different.

Several types of meaning must also be taken into consideration:

- semantic meaning, that is, spelling out what is meant by the indicator or by specific grades on its scale;
- meaning in terms of level of satisfaction;
- meaning in terms of action, linked to the above.

The last two types concern only the indicator's values, not the indicator itself. Let us look more closely at them; they are usually implicit. Consider for instance a patient's temperature, the prime indicator of his or her state of health. Everyone knows that 37° C indicates good health. Conversely, a 40° C temperature is highly worrying and deemed life-threatening. This type of meaning, from good situations not requiring any specific intervention, to bad or very bad ones calling for immediate action, recurs in many indicators.[121] Moreover, what is considered good in a given context or at a given moment may be considered bad or even dangerous in another. The unemployment rate is an example. In the 1960s in Europe, an unemployment rate of 5% was considered distinctly bad, necessitating urgent official action. Today, it is considered good or at all events acceptable, not requiring immediate action. Thus, for triggering action, the interest lies not in the indicator itself but in what its values signify. This point is crucial because it shows the key role which the meaning of indicators has in linking knowledge to action, and acquires its full importance where processes of progress are concerned, for what is known and what is done are intimately linked to them.[122]

For as long as indicators are intended to be used by specific or professional entities aware of their meaning, explanations in this regard are unnecessary and hardly ever appear (it would never occur to a doctor to write the word "normal" against the figure 37 on a clinical thermometer). On the other hand, when indicators have been agreed by common consent following democratic discussion, it is absolutely necessary to explain what they signify, particularly if this may vary according to context.

It is, moreover, essential to explain what the values of a societal progress situation indicator signify in order to make co-responsibility effective, so as to reach agreement on how to act (to reduce gaps, for instance). It could even be argued that such explanation is an integral part of the democratic process, since a concerted assessment (of a situation, an impact, a level of use of resources, etc.) as good, acceptable or poor is a factor

121. This meaning is so embedded in the very nature of indicators that many of them are constructed in such a way as to reveal themselves only in situations of danger, for example warning lights that appear on the instrument panel of a motor vehicle.

122. The assignment of a meaning to the values of an indicator ties in with the thinking pursued in the economics of conventions. See Eymard-Duvernay et al., 2006.

in reconciling viewpoints which may initially have differed. Over and above divergence of interests, this may be due to the different information available, which – after testing the arguments against each other – may converge into a shared vision. Ultimately, explaining what indicators signify clarifies the priorities to be given to one kind of action or another and limits the dangers of contamination by conflicts of interest.

4. Relationships between range of values and scales of meaning

4.1. Assignment relationship

Assigning a meaning to each value of an indicator produces two separate sets: the range of values and all the corresponding meanings. The term "assignment relationship" will be used for the link established between the two. It may of course vary for the same indicator depending how it is interpreted.

The range of values and the set of meanings are in fact both ordered. However, whereas the range of values may be discrete or continuous, finite or infinite, the set of meanings is always discrete and finite, ranged along an ordered scale which we shall call a "scale of meaning". In the most straightforward instance, it consists of two values: unsatisfactory/satisfactory. Others have more values which may be explicit, for example "very bad", "bad", "average", "good", "very good".

Once the objective pursued has been clearly identified, on that basis it is possible to define the assignment relationship between the scale of meaning and range of values. An example is the greenhouse gas production indicator in household consumption. The concept of equitable access to atmospheric space (see Chapter 2, Part 3) can help quantify the level of consumption at which an unsatisfactory situation turns satisfactory or a good situation becomes ideal, etc. This point will be enlarged on in the next chapter.

4.2. Indicator orientation

Unlike the value ranges of indicators, their scales of meaning always display an orientation, whether positive, heading towards the objective pursued (improvement) or negative, going in the opposite direction (deterioration). The objective is the highest value in the scale.

Assignment also makes the range of values an oriented ordered series since, of any two values one is always higher (closer to the objective pursued) and one lower (further away). This orientation is positive if directed towards the goal pursued (this is commonly referred to as "progression") and negative if directed away from it (commonly referred to as "regression"). Where the positive or negative direction is not specified, the orientation of an indicator is understood to be positive (towards the objective pursued).

Returning to the example of the warning light: if its being on signifies that there is danger whereas all is well when it is off, the orientation of the indicator is "on versus off". If, however, the light switches on to indicate that the objective pursued is achieved, the orientation is "off versus on". So, the meaning of an indicator's values is its orientation, not the values themselves, and this has tangible implications for the very conception of progress. For example, although GDP growth is equated with progress, there are schools of economic thought which maintain that the progress of the rich countries in the 21st-century context should be directed (at least for a few decades) towards negative growth.[123]

123. See for example the studies by Latouche, 2006, 2007.

4.3. Assignment on the basis of range of values or assignment by derivation

The example of GDP shows that in some cases the scale of meaning is not linked to actual values but to their trend over time. Accordingly, if growth is equated to progress, any increase in GDP will be considered satisfactory/good while any decrease is unsatisfactory/bad, whereas the advocates of negative growth will think the opposite. But no meaning is assigned to any particular GDP figure.

This relationship will be termed "assignment by derivation" since meaning is assigned not to the range of values but to a derivative thereof, namely the upward or downward trend of the values. This is contrasted with assignment on the basis of a range of values, that is one where the meanings and the actual values are specifically related.

Where the assignment is by derivation, the consequence is that only comparisons between different values are meaningful, whether over time (trends within a single entity), or between different entities, for example the GDP differences between countries. An indicator with an assignment-by-derivation relationship between measurement and meaning is thus of chiefly cognitive, but not really operational, utility in the sense that it does not point to the action to initiate for a given value in its range. It only gives a general indication as to the type of action expected to ensue. This situation recurs with many composite quantitative indicators, that is indicators that combine different kinds of data, such as the HDI (Human Development Index).

Note that where there is assignment by derivation, the scale of values is limited to two states: better or worse.

4.4. One- or two-way orientation of an indicator

As the scale of meaning and the range of values are both ordered series, it seems quite logical that whatever they signify, in accordance with the assignment relationship between them, their order follows the same direction. Taking the unemployment rate as an example (or the illiteracy rate, the infant mortality rate, etc.), the lower it is the better the situation, until the ideal situation of a zero rate is attained. However, it often happens that this is not so and that the two series are in an inverse relationship with each other. For example, it cannot be said that the lower the temperature of the human body, the better a person's health. That is only true when the temperature is above 37°C, but below it the opposite applies.

This happens with all quantitative indicators having a specific value that corresponds to a true benefit (key concept of progress, introduced in Part 2). The positive orientation of the scale of meaning is the one moving towards alignment with that value (and the negative orientation, the one moving further away from it), whether downwards or upwards.

4.5. Scales of meaning without a range of values

The conclusion is that whatever range of values an indicator may have, it is bound to the scale of meaning in an assignment relationship, if only by derivation. The relationship is often implicit, needing to be reasoned out and made explicit, but it may also be obvious. Taking as an example a subjective indicator such as trust in institutions with a non-defined indefinite range of values (level 1 in the explanation given above), plainly a state of greater trust is better than one of lesser trust.

While any range of values is linked to a scale of meaning, the reverse does not hold. For example, the assessment of a situation can be made not from a range of values but from a general evaluation relying on a number

of arguments or value judgments. This is what happens particularly where a scale of meaning depends not on a single indicator but on several. For example, a doctor rates a person's state of health good or bad using a combination of indicators derived from a diagnosis.

This applies particularly to contextual indicators, as will be seen in the next chapter.

A scale of meaning may also be a form of general assessment of very diverse situations. An everyday example concerns a person's general condition. When someone is asked, "How are you?", the reply (which may be, for instance, well, very well, average, poorly, very poorly) is an indicator showing whether closer enquiry and perhaps an offer of assistance are warranted. This example concerning people also applies to territories, enterprises, etc.

This guide designates as "indicators of overall assessment" those comprising a scale of meaning without a specific range of values, since it delivers a blanket judgment about a given situation. Note, however, that there are also overall assessments where the range of values is quantitative. For example, health-adjusted life expectancy (HALE)[124] is a quantitative indicator with which a population's general state of health can be very accurately assessed. This point will be raised again in Chapter 3.

5. Scales of meaning in relation to actions

We now come to the question of the utility and use of indicators for action, the central issue for processes of societal progress.

5.1. What the levels of the scales signify in terms of action

The meaning which attaches to the values of an indicator links up with the requisite action, but the link is not always clear and needs to be made explicit.

In practical terms, the highest level is the only one that urges no particular action since the objective pursued is achieved. The other levels, however, call for action to achieve this objective. A given level requires proportionally more action the further it is from the objective. In the example of the medical thermometer, a temperature of or close to 37°C calls for no particular action. On the other hand, the further from it, the more urgent the action to be taken.

Since a scale of meaning is discrete and finite, it should be possible to assign a specific type of action to each value within it.

If the number of values is limited to two ("unsatisfactory"/"satisfactory"), the second corresponds to the objective and presupposes no particular action whereas the first requires action to be taken. But the type of action can vary from one indicator to another. It may be unspecified (situation "unsatisfactory" without our really knowing why), but there may also be a precise indication of urgency (for example, a red indicator light appearing when there is danger). In this case it will be called a "warning" indicator.

124. Health adjusted life expectancy is life expectancy at birth, adjusted for time spent in poor health. Measurement of time spent in poor health is based on the combination of specific conditions assessed by the "global burden of disease 2000" with estimates of the mean health state score broken down by age and sex, derived from the WHO health survey; source: Council of Europe (2005, p. 137) and on the accompanying CD-Rom.

If there are more than two values, the meaning of each will be expressed by adjectives such as "bad", "average", "good", etc. It is usually impossible to be more precise about the action linked to each value, insofar as several indicators influence the choices of action. For example, to decide on treatment a doctor will not rely solely on the indicator "temperature" but will try to collate this with other information. Likewise, the decisions taken under a social policy depend on several indicators.

In fact the only cases where each value in the scale of meaning connects with a specific action to be taken are those where action depends on a single indicator. For example, changing gears when driving a car depends solely on the speed at which it travels. It is then possible to assign an action-related meaning by marking on the speedometer the readings at which a gear change is necessary.

This is an exceptional case, however. Most of the time, there is no direct link with action, and what an indicator signifies is an intermediate stage between knowledge and action. The indicator shows the degree of urgency and resources needed to initiate an action, more so than the action itself. The descriptors of a situation – "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory", "good" or "bad", possibly "very good", "very bad" – enable users of these indicators to rank the information received in terms of urgency and of resources to be deployed for making choices and converting information into action.

5.2. Choice of medium for an indicator

It is essential for an indicator to be well constructed and for its linkage to action to be as clear and apparent as possible. However, this is not enough to ensure that the information it provides will reach at the right time those who need it in order to take the necessary decisions.

That is why the question of the medium of the indicator is of vital importance.[125] Let us consider a warning indicator. If it calls for an urgent action, it will not be really useful unless information on the state of alert (the value indicated by the corresponding stage in the scale of meaning) immediately attracts the attention of whoever must initiate the action that it requires. Hence, the use in this case of a plainly visible red light, a siren or any other signal immediately entering the user's field of perception to attract his or her attention.

The choice of medium depends on its use. It may be inconspicuous and become discernible only in case of need (a siren, for example), or be far more perceptible if it is instrumental in frequent decisions. For instance, currency is a medium very well suited to an indicator of disposable means. It enables any user to know, when making their choices, how much they have, and to make those choices advisedly.

So what rules should be laid down for choosing the medium of a given indicator? The first information needed by the user is what the indicator signifies in terms of action, in other words the indicator's position on the scale of meaning rather than the measured value itself. From this standpoint, the advances made in the realm of information technology afford possibilities of improvement whereby the value's meaning rather than its measurement would appear first in the data-processing results. This is particularly valuable for elaborative processes.

When indicators are designed for the use of specialists or professionals, their meaning need not always be very explicit. Here, the choice of media for the indicators is made more in terms of suitable measuring instruments, of rapid processing and of ergonomics. On the other hand, in processes that involve society's stakeholders in a co-responsibility approach, it is necessary to find a medium that will make it easier for all the different players to understand what is being conveyed.

125. The expression "medium" of an indicator is used to refer to the physical element enabling the user to become aware of the information it conveys. This may be, for example, a computer screen, a car instrument panel, a lamp, a siren or a publication.

6. Conclusion

The general analysis of indicators and of all that they embody and imply, both in devising them and in making them operational, reveals great diversity. This opens up new perspectives for measuring societal progress that go far beyond mere GDP with a minimal scale of meaning.

Indicators are therefore crucial instruments for elaborative processes and their interconnection. The next chapter will show how to build and apply them.

There remains the fact that hitherto the reasoning has focused on indicators singly, whereas decisions to act often depend on multiple indicators. That is why a scale of meaning that provides information as to urgency and necessary resources is as far as we can go with a single indicator. On the other hand, a far more precise scale of meaning can be established by considering all the indicators needed to decide on a given action. This question, more complex but crucial to societal progress, is addressed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 2 – Methods for constructing indicators of societal progress

By analysing the functions and structures of indicators in a general perspective, we can arrive at some methodological rules for devising societal progress indicators. This will be done in three stages:

- first, specifying the general rules for constructing indicators of any kind, in the light of the concepts introduced in the first chapter;
- second, proposing a scale of meaning applying transversally to any progress indicator, which may serve as a support for their development;
- third, inferring from this some methodological rules specific to each type of progress indicator identified in Chapter 3 of Part 3 (see Table 336).

1. General rules for constructing indicators

As was demonstrated in the last chapter, two elements come into the construction of an indicator: range of values and scale of meaning. The latter is usually not spelt out and only implicit. Yet it performs a fundamental role, for it is what makes the indicator meaningful and links knowledge with action. An indicator, however well constructed it may be in its range of values, techniques for measuring values and availability of data, remains incomplete if the scale of meaning is very sketchy or lacking in definition and reasoning. Thus, the characteristics of the range of values, of the scale of meaning, and of the assignment relationship established between them, are decisive for constructing indicators.

Given that the scale of meaning is always discrete and finite, differences may appear essentially in the type of range of values and the type of assignment relationship:

- the range of values may be quantitative (discrete or continuous, finite or infinite) or qualitative, or absent;
- the assignment relationship can be formed, as we have seen, either on the basis of the actual range of values (the values are meaningful), or by derivation (the orientation of the values is meaningful).

These differences point to a number of possible configurations in constructing indicators, shown in Table 421.

Table 421 – Configurations for the construction of indicators

				Assignment relationship	
				A – by derivation (meaning of orientation)	B – on the basis of a range of values (meaning of values)
Range of values	None			1A	1B*
	Exists	Quantitative indicators (discrete or continuous, finite or infinite)		2A	2B*
		Qualitative indicators (objective or subjective)	Continuous or unspecified (subjective only)	3A	3B
			Discrete, binary (two values)		4B*
			Discrete, with more than two values	5A	5B*

Key: the configurations best suited to indicators of societal progress are marked with an asterisk.

NB: There is no category 4A because a discrete binary indicator whose meaning is orientation-related does in fact have a scale of meaning for its values. The table is arranged so as to show the indicators in ascending order of sophistication and precision reading from left to right and from top to bottom.

As was said in the previous chapter, for the purposes of societal progress it must be possible to go beyond assignment relationships by derivation and develop indicators where meaning is assigned on the basis of the range of values, enabling a connection to be made between knowledge and action. We must therefore move towards the right-hand column of the table. Let us see how to do so in each of the three types of situation presented in the table:

- indicators without a range of values;
- quantitative indicators;
- qualitative indicators.

1.1. Indicators without a range of values

The indicators with no range of values (cases 1A and 1B in the table) are, as demonstrated in the last chapter, indicators of overall assessment, whether in terms of general tendency in case 1A, or having regard to the status of the situation in case 1B.

In order to understand them better, let us consider the following example. Suppose we have an indicator of landscape beauty for which a five-point scale of meaning is defined: 1 = very ugly; 2 = quite ugly; 3 = neither ugly nor beautiful; 4 = quite beautiful; 5 = very beautiful (or only a two-point scale: 1 = more beautiful and 2 = less beautiful, if we take case 1A with an assignment relationship by derivation). On the face of it, it would appear impossible to create a range of values for such an indicator, as the criteria for rating the beauty of a landscape are highly subjective and vary from one person to another (or even from one moment to the next). Thus, it is an indicator without a value range, measured solely by recording people's opinions. Nonetheless, it would conceivably be possible to build an explicit range of values and an assignment relationship based on the criteria of what makes a landscape beautiful or ugly. These will vary from one person to another but can also be shared if devised in consultation so as to reach a consensus.

An indicator without a range of values is therefore an indicator that, for various reasons, does not warrant such a range being defined; either it is impossible or too difficult to achieve, or it is not necessary (at least not immediately), or both. These are certainly indicators of overall assessment in that they express a general estimation concerning an object or a situation without there being a need to spell out the exact reasons for it, formally at least. The time factor plays a decisive part in this type of indicator. In fact very often it is essential to have a quick assessment by a person or group of persons in order to take a decision without having quite all the justifications for it, clarification of its meaning being left until later. The clarification of the reasons may furthermore not be given in terms of a formal range of values but within an array of arguments on whose basis a discussion is initiated in order to establish a shared assessment. Formalisation of the value range and the assignment relationship represents a more advanced stage of clarification of an indicator, which may not be necessary and never come about if there is little to be gained from such an undertaking in view of its complexity.

In an elaborative process, indicators of overall assessment with no range of values take on special importance at the start of the process and relate to the context which has motivated the process. Laying down a scale of meaning for an overall assessment of the context makes it possible to establish a link between the context and the urgency of the action, as will be shown below and in Part 5 of the guide.

1.2. Quantitative indicators

A quantitative indicator's range of values, as we have seen, is an interval (finite or infinite) in the series of real numbers or integers. Most standard indicators have an assignment relationship by derivation between values and meaning (in which it is the trend that is meaningful and not the values) and often this relationship is not even explicit. Consequently, they can only serve for comparisons. Nevertheless, it does happen that they are assigned a scale of meaning of values (of at least two levels) if these indicators refer to a quantified objective. If so, they are quantitative monitoring and evaluation indicators.

For instance, RBA methodology (Results-Based Accountability) involves identifying quantitative indicators that correspond to an objective pursued (for example, reducing the level of illiteracy in a town) and quantifying this objective over a specified period. Monitoring and evaluation of the action are then performed on the measurement of the indicator and of the progress achieved in relation to the level aimed at, until that level is reached.

In processes of societal progress, assigning scales of meaning to quantitative indicators goes much further. Part 2 of this guide drew particular attention to the key concepts of "appropriate levels" and "untenable levels". These concepts call for the definition of scales of meaning which can serve as reference points not only for specific actions but also for ongoing processes generally, particularly as regards indicators for measuring the condition of and pressure on material resources, as will be seen in the next section.

1.3. Qualitative indicators

a. Constructing the range of values

In the case of qualitative indicators, the situation is more complex because they are harder to formalise than quantitative indicators. It was nevertheless shown in the last chapter that where there are elaborative processes, the value range of any qualitative indicator whether objective or subjective can be constructed as a scale using a number of discrete binary variables, involving consultation among the players.

Devising qualitative indicators is thus a matter of identifying basic discrete binary variables, useful in constructing the value ranges of these indicators. In order to identify them, it is necessary to determine the criteria of the indicator. To resume the example of trust in institutions, determining the variables that enter into trust in institutions is finally a matter of asking oneself what makes it possible to trust them, and therefore what the criteria of trust are (see Table 412).

A criterion is not strictly speaking an indicator because it does not reflect a situation at a given point in time; it merely indicates a trend or to be more exact is a component of that trend because every qualitative indicator is typified precisely by its multidimensionality. Thus, to raise the question of identifying the criteria of trust in institutions is to enquire what all their components are.

Just as one can try to determine the criteria of trust in institutions, the same may be done for its opposite, mistrust or distrust. Then there will be other criteria, not necessarily opposites of the former.

Given that every indicator always has an orientation in that it always has a scale of meaning even if this is reduced to its most simple expression and not formalised as such, it is possible to ascertain the positive and negative orientation (see definitions in the previous chapter). Consequently, among the criteria it is possible to distinguish those that make up the positive orientation of the indicator, called "positive criteria" and those that make up the negative orientation, called "negative criteria". In the example of the indicator of trust in institutions, the indicator's positive orientation is distrust versus trust.

Be that as it may, any criterion can be reflected in its opposite. Thus the opposite of a positive criterion is a negative one (for example, the opposite of "the institutions are just" is "the institutions are not just"). Likewise, the opposite of a negative criterion is a positive criterion (for example, the opposite of "institutions cater to individual (as opposed to collective) interests" is "institutions serve the collective interest".

From this we infer that any criterion can be readily transformed into a discrete binary variable by associating it with its opposite. That is the most important key for constructing the value ranges of qualitative indicators. In practice the same word "criterion" also denotes the corresponding discrete binary variable. However, to avoid any confusion, here we shall talk about a "binary criterion" (namely the criterion and its opposite).[126] A criterion is always made up of a negative expression (negative criterion) and a positive expression (positive criterion).

How can we go on from there to build these value ranges of the indicator? In order that several binary criteria (discrete binary variables) may yield a range of more than two values, at least two of them must be negatively correlated. That is, the transition from the negative expression of one to its positive expression must be possible only if the expression of another criterion is not positive beforehand. The latter binary criterion may be described as antecedent to the former and the former as consequential to the latter. In practice that happens quite commonly, because one criterion is often governed by others. For example, the word of institutions will hardly be believed if their written messages are not believed beforehand. This correlation often depends on the very nature of the criterion. For example, in an indicator relating to housing, the criterion "to have a shower" is consequential to the criterion "to have running water".

Let us therefore assume that, among the n binary criteria of a given qualitative indicator, it is possible to establish negative correlations two by two (sequential conditions). In this case, the range of values will be composed of n + 1 values, as shown in tables 422.a and 422.b.

Let us now suppose that some of these binary criteria are positively correlated with each other, or in other words that they are either all negative or all positive, and never a mix of positive and negative. They may then be grouped in categories for switching from one value to the other (see Table 423).

Table 422.a – Generic construction of a value range for a qualitative indicator from n binary criteria negatively correlated in pairs

Value range (numbering):	1	2	3	.....	n–2	n–1	n	n+1
Binary criterion 1	Neg	Pos	Pos	.....Pos.....	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
Binary criterion 2	Neg	Neg	Pos	.....Pos.....	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
Binary criterion 3	Neg	Neg	Neg	.....Pos.....	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
. . . .				....				
Binary criterion n–2	Neg	Neg	Neg	.....Neg.....	Neg	Pos	Pos	Pos
Binary criterion n–1	Neg	Neg	Neg	.....Neg.....	Neg	Neg	Pos	Pos
Binary criterion n	Neg	Neg	Neg	.....Neg.....	Neg	Neg	Neg	Pos

Key: Neg = negative expression of the binary criterion; Pos = positive expression.

126. Any criterion could also be considered convertible into a discrete variable with more than two terms if it is associated with several levels corresponding to it. For example, "in work" can be associated not only with its opposite, "out of work", but also with intermediate levels such as "working intermittently", "working regularly", etc. In fact, for this to be possible another criterion must be applied (in the foregoing example, it is regularity). A criterion on its own (that is, in its pure semantic sense) cannot be associated with anything but its opposite, namely the negative expression of the same criterion.

Table 422.b – Generic construction of a value range for a qualitative indicator from binary criteria grouped in n categories of binary criteria positively correlated within each category and negatively correlated in pairs between categories

Value range (numbering):	1	2	3	……..	n – 2	n – 1	n	n + 1
Binary criteria in category 1	Neg	Pos	Pos	……Pos……	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
Binary criteria in category 2	Neg	Neg	Pos	……Pos……	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
Binary criteria in category 3	Neg	Neg	Neg	……Pos……	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
. . . .				…….. …… ……				
Binary criteria in category n – 2	Neg	Neg	Neg	……Neg…	Neg	Pos	Pos	Pos
Binary criteria in category n – 1	Neg	Neg	Neg	……Neg…	Neg	Neg	Pos	Pos
Binary criteria in category n	Neg	Neg	Neg	……Neg…	Neg	Neg	Neg	Pos

Legend: Neg = negative expression of the criterion; Pos = positive expression of the criterion.

In tables 422.a/b the value ranges are represented by figures. This is actually just numbering of the values as each step is characterised by a semantic expression which sums up the corresponding binary criteria. Thus, in the second table the generic expression of step i (i being any number between 3 and n) would be "the binary criteria of categories 1, 2, …, i – 1 are negative and the binary criteria of categories i, i + 1,…, n, n + 1 are positive".

There are of course more complex configurations than those presented in these two tables, particularly when the criteria are not correlated, or only partly so. In that case, the conjunction "or" or "and/or" is used instead of "and" in defining each step. Nevertheless, if there is no correlation between the criteria they must be assigned to different indicators, even if each binary criterion must be considered an indicator in its own right with two values (negative and positive expression of the criterion), therefore having a two-step scale of satisfaction (unsatisfactory/satisfactory). This configuration occurs when criteria of quality (for example, for a service) are identified.

b. Constructing the assignment relationship

Given that every scale of meaning is a discrete, finite, ordered series, the construction of the attributive relationship for any qualitative indicator is a matter of establishing a relationship between two discrete, finite, ordered series, albeit with this restriction: to each step on the scale of meaning there may correspond several values in the range, but not vice versa. Indeed, a given value (that is, a given situation) cannot signify more than one thing. That being so, the meaning of a value must be reformulated in a more combinatory fashion (for example, instead of having separate steps designated "very bad" and "bad", the two must be combined).

Once the scale of meaning is adjusted so that the same meaning is not attributed to different values, the assignment relationship can be formalised by specifying the values that correspond to each step on the scale of meaning, as illustrated by Table 423.

Table 423 – Generic expression of the assignment relationship in a qualitative indicator formed by a discrete, finite, ordered set of values[127]

Scale of meaning	Step 1				Step 2				……	Step m			
Range of values (numbering)	1	2	…	i1	i1 + 1	i1 + 2	…	i2	……..…im – 1	im – 1 +1…	im – 1 +2…	…	n + 1

127. Let there be n + 1 values (n categories of criteria), numbered from 1 to n + 1, and m steps on the scale of meaning, where m is lower than n + 1.

c. Adjusting the indicator to its scale of meaning

Once the assignment relationship is defined, the range of values should logically be adjusted to the scale of meaning. To do so, the values are grouped together, one per step on the scale of meaning, and the categories of binary criteria are redefined accordingly.

Table 424 – Generic expression of a qualitative indicator adjusted to its scale of meaning

Scale of meaning	Step 1	Step 2		Step n – 1	Step n
Range of values	All criteria negative	All criteria negative except in category 1	……..	All criteria positive except in category n	All criteria positive
Binary criteria in category 1	Neg	Pos	……Pos……	Pos	Pos
Binary criteria in category 2	Neg	Neg	……Pos……	Pos	Pos
. . .			…… …… ……		
Binary criteria in category n – 2	Neg	Neg	……Neg……	Pos	Pos
Binary criteria in category n – 1	Neg	Neg	……Neg……	Neg	Pos

Key: Neg = negative expression of the criterion; Pos = positive expression of the criterion.

2. Choice of transverse scale of meaning as the starting point

There are two ways of going about the construction of an indicator. Either begin by specifying a range of observable/measurable values and then assign a scale of meaning to them. Or the reverse; a scale of meaning is established and we identify the measurable values which will allow very clear positioning (that is, unambiguously) on each step of the scale. In general, the first approach predominates, because indicators are usually constructed starting from the available statistics, and the construction of indicators is a task that falls to specialist bodies (statistical institutes, research centres, etc.).

However, from an operational standpoint, if an indicator is to serve primarily for guiding action in order to progress towards a given objective, which is true of societal progress indicators, one must start from the indicator's meaning in terms of action, then discover how to identify the position on that scale. This is the approach which we propose to systematise here.

2.1. Proposed transverse scale

For this purpose, we shall define a transverse scale of meaning, namely one applicable to progress indicators across the board, suited as well as possible to the requirements of societal progress and aptly defining the type of action elicited by each step on the scale of meaning, which consists of five steps as follows:[128]

128. This scale, used by the Council of Europe since 2006 in trials of the method for devising indicators of progress in well-being, has consistently proved relevant, readily comprehensible and usable for citizens at the various geographical levels or the collective stakeholders to which the method was applied.

- "very bad" means a most unsatisfactory situation, hard to rectify except by means of heavy investment, and/or possibly posing a danger and so requiring instant, carefully targeted action. Such action often makes strong demands on short-term resources;
- "bad" means a situation which is considered unsatisfactory but may improve. It also requires action but without the sense of urgency found in a very bad situation, thus allowing the requisite resources to be managed more easily;
- "average" corresponds to a situation which is only just satisfactory with no extra margin. It calls for consolidation although this is not a priority as long as there are bad and very bad situations;
- "good" corresponds to a satisfactory condition with quality in addition, though without any assurance of sustainability, so that actions to assure it are required;
- finally, "ideal" corresponds to "good", with the added assurance of sustainability. No particular action need be envisaged at this level.

This five-step scale is fairly precise as regards the type of action to take for each level. One of its main features is its anticipatory dimension; it registers not only the present situation but also the possible effects in the future, especially in accommodating extremes (becoming difficult to rectify at "very bad" and sustainable at "ideal"). It is therefore aligned with a path of progress towards sustainability, consistent with the concerns put forward in this guide.

The specific advantages of this type of scale include those relating to:
- the principle of formalising a scale of meaning;
- a scale of meaning common to a set of indicators;
- the scale of meaning proposed.

2.2. Advantages of the principle of formalising a scale of meaning

As already demonstrated, several advantages are secured by formalising a scale of meaning:
- first, it clarifies the links between the indicators and the action, as the indicator's meaning is directly connected with the type of action required;
- the scale of meaning makes it possible to move from an approach based on comparison (or "self-comparison" over time) to one focusing on a path to progress (or scale of progress). It therefore lends intrinsic meaning to any measurement and to figures, which is an improvement on measurements that are only meaningful in comparison with at least one other measurement by the same indicator (applied to another case or to the same case at a different point in time). In other words it takes the concept forward from one of improvement without clearly identified benchmarks to one of progress explicitly defining the degree of distance from or proximity to the objective sought;
- it helps remove the technical aspect of indicators making them obscure and incomprehensible to ordinary citizens, and instead gives them a human and societal dimension and puts them back in the centre of the democratic debate, where indicators relating to society belong;
- it allows consensus-building about how to interpret an indicator;
- it allows for the possibility of making composite analyses for a given indicator even where the steps of the indicator do not all have exactly the same definition. For example, indicators of progress in different dimensions of well-being, locally defined on a five-step scale (very bad, bad, average, good and ideal situation) can be combined and analysed at regional level.

2.3. Advantages of a scale of meaning common to different indicators

The scale's transversal application to all indicators affords the following gains:

- avoiding multiplication of scales offers greater visibility and aids understanding of indicators and of their meaning;
- it makes it possible to link indicators and overcome the split between objective and subjective factors which is often a restricting factor in the choice of indicators. In fact the scale of meaning tends to objectify what are traditionally considered subjective indicators – this is done by objectively defining the steps on the scale and giving them a meaning derived from a concerted, authoritative decision. By making their meaning objective, it also relieves so-called "objective" quantitative indicators of impersonality or of any subjectivity which was not formalised and thus latent;[129]
- a scale of meaning applied transversally to several indicators allows better sequencing of the situations and the actions to be performed in the short, medium and long term.

2.4. Advantages of the proposed scale of meaning

The proposed five-step scale of meaning has several advantages, as will be shown.

Being spread over five steps, it can register the complexity of the factors that enter into the assessment of a given situation while retaining the indicator's perceptive and communicative simplicity. For example, usually the indicator for the employment situation is the standard, or perhaps the long-term, unemployment rate, inevitably restrictive for grasping the complexity of the employment problem. The five-step scale of meaning, on the other hand, allows situations to be characterised by several components that may also be deemed essential, for example precariousness and arduousness of the work, professional development, hierarchical relationships, remuneration, etc. This is especially important for constructing indicators that incorporate different viewpoints of the public (see the example presented in Table 427).

The stages at the two extremes (very bad and ideal) give the indicator a breadth of meaning that allows it to take in the concept of danger/insecurity on the one hand and, on the other, that of sustainability, which is essential from a societal progress perspective. By demonstrating the need for action either to get out of a dangerous situation or to consolidate a good situation and ensure its greater sustainability, the meaning of the indicator incorporates an anticipatory dimension.

Thus, the five steps provide a clarifying element that may prove helpful for adding depth to the indicator itself. To take the ratification of an international convention by states as an example, the indicator is initially restricted to two situations: "has not signed" (unsatisfactory situation) and "has signed" (satisfactory situation). However, the scale may be amplified if one wishes to distinguish several degrees of hazardousness or of sustainability. The steps may for example be defined as follows: (i) in a "very bad" situation, a state has not signed the convention and does not implement any policy or legislative provision relevant to the purpose of the convention, with all the risks that this entails (for example, if the convention relates to child trafficking, the absence of any policy or law on the subject leaves them defenceless); (ii) in a "bad" situation, a state has not signed the convention but has adopted a policy and laws relevant to its purpose; (iii) in an "average" situation, the state has signed but not ratified the convention; (iv) in a "good" situation, a state has signed and ratified it but there is no guarantee of effective application owing to the absence of evaluation and remedy systems; (v) finally, in

129. There may be some reluctance to define an indicator in terms such as "good", "bad" or "ideal" because of their subjective connotation. Nonetheless, these terms have a meaning that exactly corresponds to the levels of judgment triggering differentiated types of action. Subjectivity is transcended by the objective definition in the scale presented.

an "ideal" situation, evaluation and remedy systems have been put in place in order to ensure that the convention is actually applied. Comparing the two and five-step scales, the first corresponds more to an indicator for monitoring a specific action, that is signature (monitoring the number of states which have signed), while the second is a quite comprehensive progress indicator.

The five-step scale is a means of formalising the concepts of "appropriate levels" and "untenable levels" for societal progress highlighted in Part 2. An untenable level corresponds to the "very bad" situation, for it endangers society. The appropriate level corresponds to an at least "average" situation.

Thus, the five-step scale offers a frame of reference for more limited scales and for switching between them. Table 425 sets out the links with these various types of scale.

Table 425 – Different types of scales of meaning for indicators and their correspondences

<table>
<tr><th>Types of scales</th><th colspan="5">STEPS</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Complete scale (five steps) "anticipatory"</td><td rowspan="2">"Very bad" situation: very unsatisfactory state, hard to reverse and/or possibly posing a danger, calls for strong and/or immediate action</td><td rowspan="2">"Bad" situation: unsatisfactory state, improvable and/or not posing a real danger, action less urgent</td><td>"Average" situation: only just satisfactory state requiring consolidation</td><td>"Good" situation: a "satisfactory plus" state but without any assurance of sustainability, requires progress towards sustainability</td><td rowspan="2">"Good" state with an assurance of sustainability</td></tr>
<tr><td>Variant with four steps</td><td colspan="2">"Good" situation: satisfactory state, but with no assurance of sustainability, requires progress towards sustainability</td></tr>
<tr><td>Three-step scale</td><td colspan="2">"Bad" situation: unsatisfactory state requiring action</td><td>"Average" situation: barely adequate, requires consolidation</td><td colspan="2">"Good" situation: adequate, with room for manoeuvre</td></tr>
<tr><td>Two-step scale: indicator for monitoring the performance of a specific action</td><td colspan="2">Unsatisfactory state: requires action</td><td colspan="3">Satisfactory state: action considered as already having been taken</td></tr>
<tr><td>Two-step scale: warning indicators</td><td>State of alert: calls for urgent action</td><td colspan="4">State of non-alert: no urgent action needed</td></tr>
</table>

Remarks:

- on reading Table 425, it may be asked what more the five-step scale offers compared to the four-step one; the advantage of a good situation over an average situation reflects a gain in the quality of what is achieved;
- the five-step scale is not limitative; it can be further expanded if, for example, several degrees of hazardousness or sustainability are to be distinguished.

In conclusion, a five-step scale of meaning offers a satisfactory balance and will therefore be adopted in this guide as a transverse scale for the whole spectrum of societal progress indicators.

3. Applying the scale of meaning to progress indicators in relation to a shared objective

Having regard to the advantages of the proposed scale of meaning as a scale common to several indicators, there is the question of how to define the range of values and the assignment relationships for the various progress indicators so that they match the scale of meaning.

The first application concerns progress indicators in relation to a shared objective, whatever it may be. Indeed, the construction of such indicators presupposes determination of the criteria defining the objective to which they relate. If the objective is complex (as with well-being for all), the criteria are multiple and we have the configuration of a qualitative indicator built from binary criteria, described in the first section of this chapter.

For this objective to be shared, logically all persons concerned should have their say in order to join together in defining their criteria in relation to this objective. This is truly an instance of concerted design of indicators.

If the objective is well-being for all, defining the objective is tantamount to asking "in your view, what is well-being?". Put like this (to a group of citizens, for example), this question elicits manifold responses reflecting a range of criteria of what constitutes well-being.

Likewise, in the context of a collective entity, the objective will be its proper functioning and fulfilment of its societal functions while ensuring the well-being of all who participate in it. With a school, the question would be, "What is a school that fulfils its educational function while ensuring the well-being of the pupils, teachers, administrative staff, etc?" The replies to the question would again be a series of criteria that correspond to the objective defined.

As seen above, the criteria can be regarded as binary variables used to define corresponding values at each step in the scale of meaning. To define all values, we must have not only criteria relating to the objective (that is, what we seek to achieve), but also criteria of its opposite (that is, what we seek to avoid), as well as criteria concerning the path to travel in order to move from one to the other (that is, what is done or could be done to approach the objective as closely as possible). We are thus prompted to ask three questions in order to obtain criteria of use in constructing situational indicators: What are the criteria of the objective sought? What are the criteria of its opposite? What is done or can be done to move from one to the other?

In the applications devised according to the methodology proposed by the Council of Europe, three questions have accordingly been asked regarding the objective of well-being for all: What does well-being mean to you? What does ill-being mean to you? What do you or can you do to ensure your own well-being or well-being for all? Conversely, if the objective is the proper functioning of a collective entity, for example a school, the three questions are: What do you regard as a school which fully serves its educational function while enabling its participants to attain well-being? What do you regard as a school that functions badly, not fulfilling its educational function and generating ill-being for all? What is done or can be done to progress from the one to the other?

Calling upon a variety of people makes it possible to put forward very diverse criteria and to cover the objective in its entirety.

Thus, in defining the objective of well-being for all, the citizens' participation brings out a wide range of criteria, some correlated and others not. Correlated criteria can be subsequently gathered together within a single

indicator representing a component of well-being, then placed in different kinds of categories as in Table 422b. As the scale of meaning comprises five steps, if one wished to obtain a range of values for the indicator with the same number of steps, the number of categories of criteria must be 5 – 1 = 4, as shown in Table 426.

Table 426 – Generic representation of how an indicator of progress with a shared objective is devised on the basis of a transverse scale of meaning

Scale of meaning	Steps	1. Very bad	2. Bad	3. Average	4. Good	5. Ideal
	General generic meaning	Very unsatisfactory state potentially posing danger and hard to reverse	Unsatisfactory state but not really dangerous and with room for manoeuvre	Satisfactory state although objective sought is not attained	State corresponds to objective sought but sustainability not assured	Good state, sustainability assured
Range of values		All criteria negative	All criteria negative except those in category 1	Criteria in categories 1 and 2 positive, and those in categories 3 and 4 negative	All criteria positive except those in category 4	All criteria positive
Category 1 criteria		Neg	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
Category 2 criteria		Neg	Neg	Pos	Pos	Pos
Category 3 criteria		Neg	Neg	Neg	Pos	Pos
Category 4 criteria		Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	Pos

Key: Neg = negative expression of the criterion; Pos = positive expression of the criterion.

Category 1 criteria are those that mark transition from the worst situations to bad ones. They are often expressed by persons living in situations of ill-being. Conversely, category 4 criteria are those that mark transition from a good situation to an ideal/sustainable one, and are more readily expressed by the most privileged people. People's participation in a variety of situations is an assurance that the different types of indicators cover all criteria of well-being. The criteria are therefore identified having regard to everyone's statements, followed by an inclusive synthesis[130] in which the criteria are sorted by indicators and categories. Once this has been performed and validated, we can go on to define the range of values, or in other words to formulate the indicator (see Part 5).

A simplified example with some criteria corresponding to an employment indicator will illustrate the foregoing and provide an understanding of how to define the four categories of criteria in the light of the generic meaning attributed to each of the five steps or stages:

- Category 2 corresponds to the situation of having a job (not having/having a job). Indeed, changing from the negative expression (not having a job) to the positive expression (having a job) corresponds to a transition from a "bad" to an "average" situation, the former being defined as an unsatisfactory situation and the latter as satisfactory though not corresponding to the objective sought – having a job with certain specific qualities (rewarding, in a pleasant atmosphere, with decent remuneration, etc.).

130. Inclusive in the sense that all criteria expressed are taken into account: some may be clustered around a single idea, but no criterion expressing a specific idea is eliminated.

- Criteria relating to these specific qualities are in category 3 and become positive on moving up from step 3 (average situation) to step 4 (good situation).
- What happens when the top step (ideal) is attained? Here there is question of sustainability, that is not only to have a good-quality job (permanent, rewarding, with decent remuneration, etc.), but also to be assured of keeping it. Here the criteria concern sustainability of quality. For example, having a contract of indefinite duration, being in a thriving enterprise which guarantees some positive development.
- The category 1 criteria remain to be identified, namely those which become positive when rising from step 1 ("very bad" situation) to step 2 ("bad" situation). As category 1 is considered a situation which is difficult to rectify, to such an extent that it places the person concerned in a perilous position, the criteria here are the possibilities to improve the situation. In the case of employment, these are for example the possibility to receive training, existence of job vacancies to match this training, etc. Indeed, unless these possibilities are met the person will have great difficulty in finding a job and will be in danger, liable to enter a vicious circle of marginalisation and exclusion.

Table 427 – Indicators of progress in well-being: example of employment

Scale of meaning		1. Very bad	2. Bad	3. Average	4. Good	5. Ideal
Range of values		Having no job or possibility of getting one through lack of training and unavailability of jobs of suitable standard	Having no job but being trained; jobs corresponding to the training available	Having a job albeit unrewarding and/or in an unpleasant atmosphere and/or poorly remunerated	Having a rewarding job in a pleasant atmosphere with decent remuneration, but without a permanent contract or not in a thriving enterprise	Having a rewarding job in a pleasant atmosphere with decent remuneration, with a permanent contract and in a thriving enterprise
Examples of criteria	Being trained	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Jobs available	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Having a job	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Rewarding job	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Pleasant atmosphere	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Decent remuneration	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
	Permanent contract	No	No	No	No	Yes
	Thriving enterprise	No	No	No	No	Yes

Key: No = negative expression of the criterion; Yes = positive expression of the criterion.

This example demonstrates the significance of the four categories of criteria which can be applied to any case of constructing progress indicators in relation to a shared objective, based on a transverse five-step scale from a "very bad" to an "ideal" situation, namely:

- category 1: criteria of possibility;
- category 2: criteria of obtainment;
- category 3: criteria of quality;
- category 4: criteria of sustainability.

This categorisation, the outcome of various trials conducted between 2006 and 2008, is of particular interest for its coherence and precision, ease of understanding and utility.

- It is coherent and precise insofar as all criteria relate to a single object, that is, the indicator identified by its name, possibility to obtain the object, obtainment of the object (not having/having), its qualities and the sustainability of the qualities. The pair-to-pair negative correlation is visible between these four categories: if x is the object of the indicator, x cannot be obtained without the possibilities for its obtainment. Nor is it possible to have quality, of course, without already having the object itself, just as one cannot talk about sustainability of quality without having quality.
- It is readily understood, allowing easy transverse classification of the criteria and the construction of the path of progress, whatever the indicator chosen.
- Lastly, it is most useful in revealing a series of conditions. So, for each situation it shows the points on which action must be taken in order to make progress.

Thus it enables us to draw up in generic terms the range of values for the situational indicators presented in Table 428. It shows that only certain categories of binary criteria enter into the description of each value of the indicator:

- criteria of obtainment (having/not having) are stated in all five values;
- criteria of possibility are stated only in the values corresponding to very bad and bad situations;
- criteria of quality are stated in the values corresponding to average, good and ideal situations;
- criteria of sustainability are stated only in the values corresponding to good and ideal situations.

Table 428 – Generic formulation of the values of an indicator of progress in well-being, in relation to a component x

Scale of meaning	Steps	1. Very bad	2. Bad	3. Average	4. Good	5. Ideal
	General generic meaning	Very unsatisfactory state, potentially dangerous and hard to reverse	Unsatisfactory state but not really dangerous and with room for manoeuvre	Satisfactory state though not having achieved the objective sought	State corresponds to objective sought but sustainability not assured	Good state, sustainability assured
Range of values		*No* x or even *possibilities* to obtain x, and/or dangerous	*No* x but *possibilities* to obtain x	X is obtained but without *quality*	X is obtained with *quality* but sustainability not *assured*	X is obtained with *quality* and sustainability *assured*
Categories of binary criteria	Possibility	Neg	Pos	Pos	Pos	Pos
	Obtainment	Neg	Neg	Pos	Pos	Pos
	Quality	Neg	Neg	Neg	Pos	Pos
	Sustainability	Neg	Neg	Neg	Neg	Pos

Key: Neg = negative expression of the criterion; Pos = positive expression of the criterion.

However, constructing progress indicators for the different dimensions of well-being shows that the categorisation described above, while highly relevant, sometimes requires certain adjustments, and that the rules for devising progress indicators on the basis of criteria may be more complex. The appended CD-Rom gives a fuller explanation of these rules.

4. Application to other progress indicators

The five-step scale of meaning proposed can be applied to other progress indicators. For example, going back to the different types of indicators specified at the end of Part 3 for processes of societal progress, it is possible to define a generic scale common to all and a specific one for each, as Table 429 shows.

Table 429 – Generic expression of scale of meaning for other types of progress indicators

Steps	1. Very bad	2. Bad	3. Average	4. Good	5. Ideal
General generic meaning	Very unsatisfactory state, hard to rectify, potentially dangerous	Unsatisfactory state, improvable and/or not really dangerous	Satisfactory state though not having achieved the objective sought	State corresponding to the objective sought, though without assurance of its sustainability	Good state, sustainability assured
Context indicators	Very unfavourable context, hard to rectify, potentially dangerous	Unfavourable context, improvable and/ or not really dangerous	Average context	Favourable context, objective achieved but not sustainable	Ideal context, objective achieved and sustainable
Impact indicators	Very negative impact, to the point of being dangerous	Negative impact, but not necessarily dangerous	Nil/neutral impact	Positive but not sustainable impact	Positive and sustainable impact
State-of-material-resource indicators	State of resource demanding an end to further use and specific measures to avert its disappearance	State of resource demanding use for the sole purpose of ensuring its reproduction	State of resource just enough to allow use within specific limits and requiring alternative solutions	State of resource allowing some freedom of use but with the risk of reversion to an average or bad situation	State of resource allowing freedom of use with little risk of deterioration
Indicators of pressure on material resources	Use of resource exceeding its reproducibility, without the existence or observance of rules for regeneration	Use of resource exceeding its reproducibility, but with some rules for regeneration	Use of resource only just balanced with its reproducibility	Use of resource below its reproducibility but with inadequate room for manoeuvre for contingencies	Use of resource with adequate room for manoeuvre for contingencies
Action monitoring indicators	Very inadequate implementation level, jeopardising attainment of objective	Inadequate implementation level but not jeopardising attainment of objective	Adequate implementation level but with no room for manoeuvre	Implementation level well above minimum, but result not assured	Implementation level sufficiently above minimum to ensure result

Let us now specify these scales and the assignment relationships for each of the above types of indicator according to their role in the processes of progress.

4.1. Contextual indicators

Description

As was pointed out earlier, contextual indicators are typically overall assessment indicators, that is, they consist of a scale of meaning without any exact range of values. They yield general information that provides insight into the decisive factors of progress. They perform, as it were, a role of generally guiding the process, according to the level of urgency that prevails.

More specifically, they provide an overall assessment of the extent to which the objective of progress in society is achieved, indicating the context and the level of achievement and where the effort should be directed. Thus, they are akin to progress indicators in the objective which they share, but do not reach the same level of precision.

Structure

In relation to the objective of societal progress, which is well-being for all, future generations included, the scales of a contextual indicator may be defined as follows:

- "very bad" situation is one where not everyone's well-being is assured, nor is the conservation and transmission of resources, to the point where the situation becomes virtually irreversible (at least without outside intervention) jeopardising the survival of society; this corresponds to slide 6 of Figure 211 (Part 2 of the guide);[131]
- "bad" situation has the same characteristics, without being irreversible or posing imminent danger to society, and there is some room for manoeuvre for reverting to at least an "average" situation; see slides 4 and 5 of Figure 211;
- an "average" situation is one where not everyone's well-being is assured, but resources are safeguarded; see slides 1 and 2 of Figure 211;
- "good" situation is one where everyone's well-being is assured, together with transmission of resources to future generations, though without the situation being sustainably guaranteed; see slide 7 of Figure 211;
- finally, an "ideal" situation is identical to a "good" one but sustainably assured; see slide 8 of Figure 211.

Use and advantages

Determining a position on this scale makes it possible to gauge the seriousness of the situation or to verify the lack of seriousness, and judge the necessity or otherwise of redirecting the objective of progress. For practical purposes, any elaborative process implies awareness of the need to act in a given situation. That is why these processes often start with an action to promote awareness/consideration of the state of the world (see Part 5 of the guide). The contextual indicator allows this overall assessment to be put into perspective; its five-step formulation also allows us to keep track of its development in line with the advancement of the process.

131. The history of mankind features several examples of this type of irreversible situation leading to a collapse of a society without endogenous capability for recovery: Angkor and the Khmer kingdom in Cambodia, the Easter Island civilisation, etc. Some scientists perceive many similarities with the present situation.

4.2. Impact indicators

Description

Measurement of the impact of any action or activity is not unbiased in that it is always done in relation to one or more given objectives. In most cases, analyses of an action's impact are performed in relation to the specific objectives that prompted and guided the action, with the aim of ascertaining how it had an impact in relation to the purpose for which it was devised and set up.

However, in order to ensure that actions and activities are consistent with a process of societal progress we need to consider their impact in relation to the objective of well-being for all – while bearing in mind the objectives which are specific to them.

Hence the interest, at this level, of using the criteria of ill/well-being expressed by citizens. This makes it a simple question: referring to the generic scale of meaning presented above, it will be a matter of determining, for each criterion, whether the impact is:

- very negative (to the point of posing a danger);
- negative (without posing a danger);
- nil/neutral;
- positive but not sustainable;
- positive and sustainable.

Structure

Assessment is not founded on measurement of a value but on an overall estimate, so this is a typical case of indicators built on a scale without a range of values, as with contextual indicators.

Use

In practice, these assessments are made straightforwardly by marking against each criterion:

- "– –" if the impact is very negative (to the point of posing a danger);
- "–" if negative (without posing a danger);
- no mark or "0" if nil/neutral;
- "+" if positive but not sustainable;
- "++" if positive and sustainable.

In an elaborative process, these assessments are made as far as possible with those who carry out and benefit from the action; it is a "joint assessment".

Advantages

This type of impact assessment has several kinds of advantages:

- being transverse, it goes beyond an analysis in relation to the objective for which the action was conceived, and thus reveals correlations with the general objective of well-being for all which may be unexpected yet equally important;
- it points to possible improvements in the way of performing the action;
- being made jointly by the beneficiaries and promoters of the action, it generates shared knowledge.

In Cape Verde, assessment of the impact of micro-projects to combat poverty devised and implemented by the rural communities under the National Scheme for Alleviation of Rural Poverty (PLPR) is carried out on the basis of the criteria of ill-being expressed by the population. The upshot was to demonstrate, for example, that typically social actions have an economic impact by relieving the ill-being caused by certain situations.

However, to derive maximum benefit, there has to be linkage between impact indicators and progress indicators in relation to the objectives, and with resource indicators (see next chapter).

4.3. Resource indicators

a. Types of indicators

Respective importance of material and non-material resources

Resources, as we saw in the previous part, are everything that goes to make up wealth (see Figure 316) whether material or non-material.

Indicators of progress in non-material wealth are nearly always qualitative indicators, and can be treated as indicators of progress in relation to an objective, especially considering that they relate to society's ability to ensure well-being for all; this topic is addressed chiefly in phase 2 of levels B and C in Table 334 (definition of the objectives of progress with reference to a sector/theme or a player) and phase 8 of capitalisation.

Material assets require other types of indicators, and it is these which will be analysed here.

Types of indicators for material resources

Material resources are very diverse in nature, ranging from the natural environment to financial resources. To understand the method of constructing the indicators in order to take account of these resources in the elaborative processes carried out with citizens, we shall refer to the "Pressure-State-Response" (PSR) framework developed by the OECD. Society's exploitation of a resource[132] leads to a particular state of that resource, a state which in turn will require responses from society by way of decisions, organisation and activities. The challenge, then, is that the responses should not generate greater pressure than the state of the resource can bear so that its reproducibility and transmission to future generations are assured.

If the use of resources is strictly confined to a private agency (for example, use of assets within a family, enterprise, etc.), management of this trio – pressure, state and response – is the responsibility of this single agency which constructs and uses its own indicators.

On the other hand, if the asset is common and a co-responsibility approach is adopted, as set out in this guide, the players concerned must necessarily:

- share the same perception of the state of and pressure on resources and exploitation, and so have common indicators for these two elements;
- make a combined response (sum of the individual responses) in keeping with the state of the resource, presupposing that they use the same type of indicator to determine the impact of their activities in terms of pressure on resources and that the indicator expresses each person's responsibilities within an overall responsibility.

132. Pressure on a resource may be expressed in terms of use of this resource or the generation of a negative resource (waste) which causes its deterioration. For example, greenhouse gas emissions are a form of pressure on the atmosphere as a resource, dumping of non-processed or non-recycled waste in streams exerts pressure on the latter as a water resource, etc.

To advance further in understanding the elaborative processes involved in building co-responsibility, two complements to this trio are proposed: first, to consider only the "responses" that correspond to human activities, for in the end it is always these which matter in the pressure on resources; second, to amplify it by introducing the concept of needs for ensuring the well-being of all – the greater these needs, the more likely the activities are to exceed pressure limits that should be observed from the standpoint of resource availability. This is what Figure 420 represents.

Figure 420 – Representation of the relations between pressure, state, response (activities) and needs in terms of resources

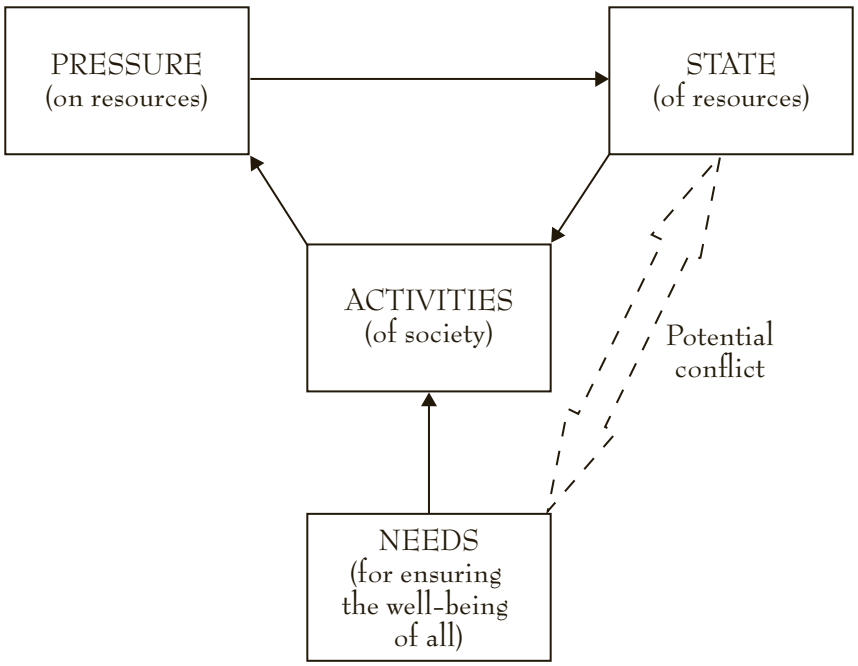


Figure 420 thus shows a potential conflict between needs and the state of resources. In fact, needs may call for activities that increase pressure, whereas the state may necessitate reduction of pressure. The whole question will thus be to devise and set up activities that reconcile the two, namely that ensure well-being for all (present generations) while not generating pressure on resources that endangers their reproducibility and transmissibility.

What state-of-resource and resource-pressure indicators are needed for this purpose, and how are they to be constructed?

b. State-of-resource indicators

Each positive material resource has its own logic of reproducibility. Some are non-renewable (essentially underground resources: ores and fossil fuels). Others are "self-sustaining" in that they can be regenerated by themselves, a capability that depends on the available quantity (particularly with biological or financial resources). For others, renewal depends on factors other than the resource as such (for example, water resources depend on rainfall, soil absorption and retention capacity, etc; renewable energy resources depend on sunlight, wind, waterways, etc.).

Each positive resource must be studied in relation to the spatial context in which its reproducibility and availability are (potentially) assured – the spatial context of management of the resource. This, then, is the level at

which the indicator should be constructed. With negative resources such as waste, it is the space within which their negative effects are felt.

For example, the frame of reference for greenhouse gases is the planet, that of a biological resource its natural habitat, that of water resources the corresponding watershed, etc.

Scales of meaning

Table 427 presents a generic definition of state-of-resource indicators that can be applied to any type of positive material resource. It pinpoints the type of behaviour which the state of the resource requires to ensure its reproduction and transmission. Thus, it establishes a clear connection with the action prompted by the indicator.

This scale of meaning can be broken down more precisely for each type of material resource, particularly in relation to the three types described above. The accompanying CD-Rom gives examples of formulations for scales of meaning specific to the various types of resources as well as others relating to harmful materials.

Range of values

Generally, the ranges of values for the state of resources are quantitative variables expressing the available amount of the resource. Non-quantitative variables may be added: quality (of soil and water for instance), diversity (biodiversity), balance (financial holdings balanced between permanent and realisable assets), resilience, etc. In this case, the range of values can be assembled like a combination of variables in the same way as for objective qualitative indicators.

Assignment relationship

The assignment relationship between the scale of meaning and the range of values is highly important since it determines the value(s) below or above which the state of the resource moves from an average to a bad or very bad situation or conversely from an average to a good or ideal situation, with implications for the kinds of conduct to pursue.

Note that as regards energy (global frame of reference), fossil fuels are in a bad, indeed very bad, situation whereas renewable energy sources are clearly in an ideal situation (freedom of use without risk of degradation, except for hydro power in some cases).

c. Resource pressure indicators

The pressure on a resource can be analysed at several levels:

- at the level of the spatial context in which the resource is managed, so as to determine whether or not, overall, the pressure on the resource is too great;
- at the level of each player;
- at the level of the citizens themselves.

The scale of meaning and range of values are the same for these different levels. The assignment relationship is the only respect in which the indicators differ.

Scale of meaning

Table 427 (above) proposes a generic definition of state-of-resource indicators that can be applied to every type of positive resource. It highlights the consequences in terms of resource reproducibility.

Range of values

The range of values of a state-of-resource indicator is a variable expressed as the amount of the resource used per unit of time. Also to be taken into account are the qualitative components of the resource's reproducibility capability (quality, diversity, balance, resilience, etc.).

Assignment relationship

The assignment relationship will not be the same for pressure exerted on the entire resource (at the overall level of the spatial context in which it is managed) as for the pressure exerted by a single player.

By virtue of the right of equitable access to resources, the assignment relationship should be the same for all citizens sharing the resource, and the values corresponding to moving from one step to the next should be equivalent to the values of the indicator registering the overall level, divided by the number of citizens concerned.

Let us assume, for instance, in the case of a given fish species, that x/year is the maximum quantity which may be caught in a river without jeopardising the reproducibility of the species. The value to be assigned to the dividing line between an average and a bad situation (beyond which exploitation of the resource no longer permits reproducibility) is thus x/year for the global pressure indicator for this resource (total catches for this species). For one citizen, it is x/year/n, n being the number of persons living in the river basin.

However, this example highlights the difficulties inherent in this type of reasoning: does the right of equitable access concern residents of the river basin or fishermen who make their living from it? It is a complex question. Nevertheless, in the final analysis, it is the consumers, hence the citizens, who can perform a regulating role. They can in fact make sure that the goods and products they consume genuinely conform to the reproducibility of the resources used to produce them, and that the total amount of resources allotted to them complies with the right of equitable access for all to that resource. They can, for instance, require the fishermen from whom they purchase the fish to abide by the quantitative and qualitative harvesting rules in order to ensure the reproducibility of the resource, and demand that it be fairly apportioned among all those desiring access to it.

This shows the importance of constructing state-of-resource indicators at the level of the citizens themselves, allowing forms of citizen regulation to be introduced. Such regulation may be organised in a strictly individual way. It involves having organised arrangements for consultation and decision linking up with the elaborative processes of progress towards well-being for all. This pinpoints a crucial aspect of the elaborative processes of societal progress with citizens, tying in with the arguments in Part 3 of the guide on citizen-based, bottom-up approaches.

d. Method of devising state-of-resource indicators and resource pressure indicators

Accordingly, these indicators need to be devised bearing in mind three needs:

- having indicators common to the spatial context in which each resource is managed;
- ensuring the validity of the assignment relationships and the values;
- involving citizen participation so that the indicators can be adopted by citizens.

4.4. Action monitoring indicators

These indicators provide information on the level achieved compared with the expected level. They may be of the quantitative or qualitative type.

By introducing a scale of meaning like the one presented in Table 427, the efforts and resources used to carry out the action can be adjusted.

5. Conclusion

This chapter has described a methodology for devising indicators starting from a transverse scale of meaning, highlighting its various advantages in general terms and, more specifically, for each type of indicator needed in a process of societal progress. Constructing indicators based on the scale of meaning is the most important innovation proposed in this guide. It is a radically novel way of perceiving indicators as tools of knowledge and action essential to good governance, at different levels of society.

However, the reasoning so far has been confined to each indicator taken singly, in the awareness nonetheless that decisions on action are taken in the light of several indicators. So now the linkage of a set of indicators with progress needs to be understood, and that is the purpose of the next chapter.

Chapter 3 – From indicators to action strategies

The transverse scale of meaning presented in the last chapter leads to the step of defining, for any progress indicator, what could be called a "path of progress" from a very bad situation to an ideal situation. This scale has the advantage of illustrating the situations that call for immediate action, particularly those typified by or close to the "very bad" step.

As was shown in Chapter 1, however, decisions to act often depend on several indicators. It is thus difficult to go beyond a scale of meaning giving information on the urgency and the necessary action to be taken as long as we keep to a single indicator. Accordingly, if our reasoning embraces all indicators needed to decide on action, we should presumably succeed in establishing a more precise scale of meaning with respect to the actions required.

Let us suppose, for example, that x indicators are needed for a social policy. Let us also suppose that a scale of meaning can be defined for each, and if possible for all together (like the one presented in Chapter 2), indicating the level of urgency of the actions to be undertaken for each. One might assume that this would lead to the setting of priorities. If all indicators are taken to rank equally and the scale of meaning is the same, an order of priority is inferred from the measurement provided by the indicator: the closer the measurement to the bottom of the scale, the more urgent it is to intervene, and so the higher the priority attaching to the action which this indicator suggests.

However, this line of reasoning raises several objections:

- it assumes that the indicators are independent of each other, which is seldom true: often an improvement in one indicator will affect others, and vice versa;
- the meaning of an indicator may depend on other indicators;
- it is not always possible to link one action to one indicator. Usually, actions have effects on more than one.

The question of priorities is therefore complex and presents itself in terms of a choice between several strategies for possible action. The above objections will now be examined one by one in the light of specific examples so as to appreciate how indicators lead on to devising action and action strategies.

1. Analysis of the interdependence between indicators – Example of indicators of well-being

1.1. Typology of interdependences between indicators of progress in well-being

Our reasoning so far has concerned indicators constructed independently of each other. However, if each indicator corresponds to a path of progress in a particular aspect (for example diet, education, health, etc.), how, on that basis, is progress towards well-being for all built? In other words, how are these various individual "paths of progress" interconnected: in sequence? in parallel, independent of or mutually influencing each other? Are they all indispensable in order to achieve the final objective of well-being for all? These questions are important for settling strategic and operational choices.

To understand the links between elementary indicators, their various possible types must be identified. As complex questions are involved, this will be aided by graphic representations: each elementary path of progress can be represented graphically as an arrow (namely, as a straight line moving in a particular direction, or vector), with the starting point of the vector (tail of the arrow) representing the worst situation and the end point (head of the arrow) the ideal situation for the indicator in question.

a. Relationship between two indicators

Let us begin with the relationship between two indicators before tackling more complex relationships. The link can be of two types:

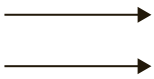
- if one comes after the other, that is, if one is necessary for the progression of the other, the relation will be called "sequential paths" and the two vectors will be logically represented one after the other (see Figure 431, also for the representation of the other cases). Let us say that the path which follows the other lies "downstream" (closer to the objective of overall progress), whereas the first lies "upstream". This type of link exists, for example, between education and employment (to a certain extent): a job can hardly be attained without school education;
- if the two indicators are not vital to each other and can be driven simultaneously, they are said to follow "parallel paths". These may be altogether independent (for example, friendly relations and education: one can progress independently of the other) or interdependent, that is, there is a mutual influence between the two so that their reciprocal progress is made interactively (for example, between education and culture).

In between these two types, intermediate situations can occur, where there may be a cause and effect relationship between two paths of progress without this preventing their parallel pursuit, as between diet and health. We shall term these "offset paths", a very common state of affairs between paths of progress.

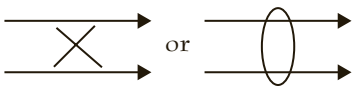
Figure 431 – Representations of the possible links between two elementary paths of progress (indicators)

1. Progress by sequenced paths

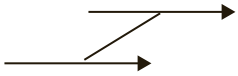
2. Progrès by independent parallel paths



3. Progress by interdependent parallel paths



4. Progress by offset paths



b. Relationships between multiple indicators

Let us now look at the possible combinations of three or more indicators.

If all indicators have the same type of inter-relation (all in sequence, or all in parallel and independent, or all in parallel and interdependent, or all offset), configurations similar to those in the preceding table are found, the only difference being the number of paths (hence of arrows – see examples 1, 2, 3 and 4 in Figure 432).

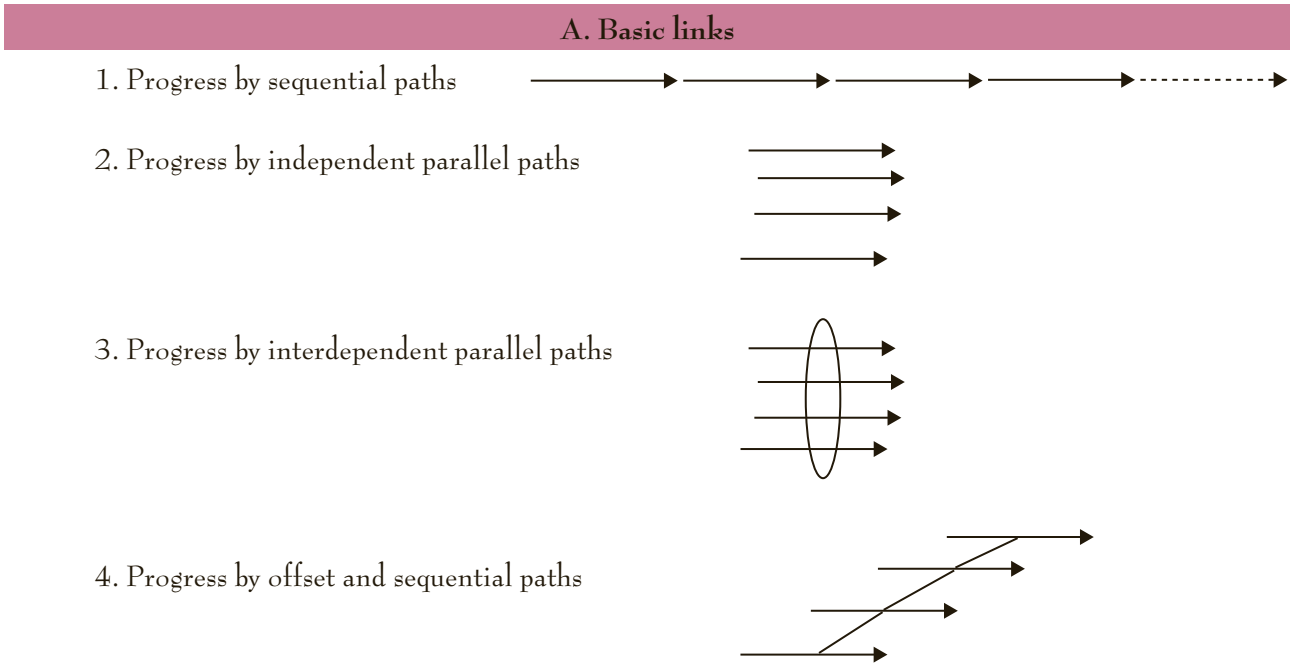
Things become more complex, however, where several types of links are combined. Three configurations may occur:

- there are several parallel paths "downstream" corresponding to one "upstream";
- the reverse;
- both, that is several parallel paths "upstream" corresponding to several parallel paths "downstream".

There is no particular problem in the first instance. This will be termed "progress with one key indicator", since one indicator's progression is indispensable for that of others. For example, mobility[133] is a key indicator as regards access to employment, training, recreation, etc. But when a "downstream" path of progress is sequential or offset in relation to several "upstream" paths of progress, different situations arise. We shall consider three of them which are particularly characteristic and useful for what is to follow.

- First situation: there can be no progress "downstream" until progress is achieved on all paths "upstream". This will be called "progress with several preconditions". For example, it is not possible to have access to training without clothing, food, housing, health (not being ill) and mobility.
- Second situation: a number of paths "upstream" run parallel to and facilitate a path "downstream" (offset paths). This will be called "progress by multiple inputs". This configuration is very common among indicators of well-being. For example, respect, equity and good relations with institutions aid social harmony.
- Third situation, particularly important where paths of progress in well-being are concerned: progress on the path "downstream" depends on the degree of balance in and/or between the advances achieved on the paths "upstream". This will be termed "progress through balances". For example, progress in terms of equity and social justice depends on balance in a number of access indicators (income, employment, education, housing, etc.); personal development depends on a balance between work, leisure, education, family life, etc.

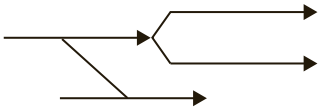
Figure 432 – Representations of the possible linkage of multiple elementary paths of progress



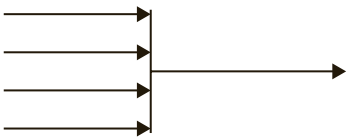
133. A person's mobility is construed as his or her ability to move about. This includes the physical capacity (for example, for a person with disabilities or an elderly person), access to means of transport (public or private), and their efficiency and quality.

B. Simple combinations

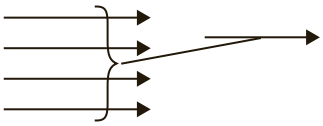
5. Progress with a key indicator



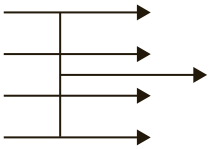
6. Progress with several preconditions



7. Progress by multiple inputs

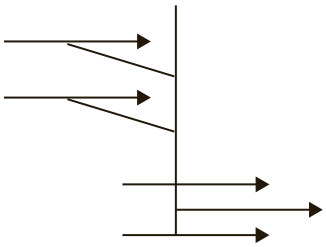


8. Progress through balances



C. Combinations of combinations

10. Progress by balance-enhancing inputs



The last entry in the figure represents a situation in which several indicators help secure a balance between other indicators. This configuration is chiefly relevant to living environment indicators (spatial planning, accessibility of services, places for encounter and dialogue, environment, physical safety, etc.), which act as facilitators for the other indicators of progress in well-being, including social and personal balances.

1.2. Analysing the interdependence of indicators prior to framing an action strategy

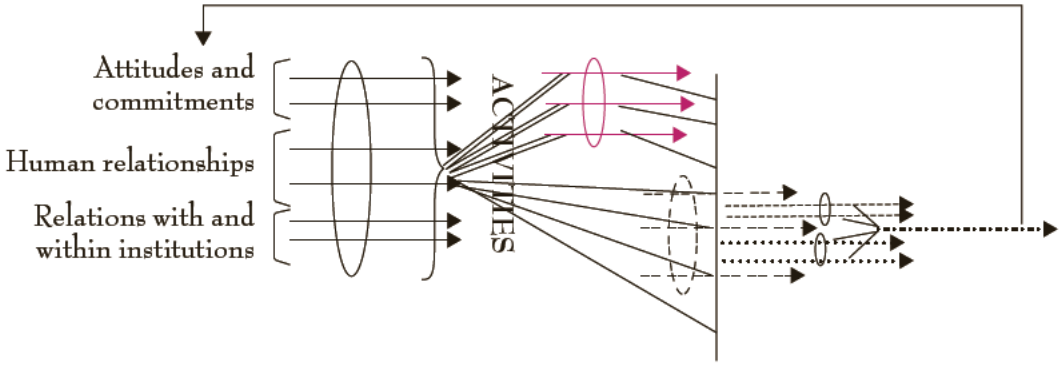
Having established the typology of the interactions between indicators of progress in well-being, the concern is now to use it to advance from indicators to the framing of a strategy for action to promote well-being for all.

Figures 313 and 314 from Part 3, Chapter 1, will serve to illustrate this. They show the links between the broad dimensions of well-being (as well as the endogenous activities and components such as memory and reason in the case of Figure 314) by contemplating three types which were designated "contributory", "facilitating" and "interacting". The typology of relationships between indicators goes further in allowing the relationships between indicators to be analysed not within each dimension but also as between the dimensions of

well-being for all. The result is a more exact but also more complex perception, from which some guidelines for devising an action strategy may be inferred.

This will be supported by Figure 433, summing up the principal links between indicators, referring to the graphic representations in Figures 431 and 432.

Figure 433 – Representation of the principal links between paths of progress towards well-being for all



Key: Shown in pink are the paths of progress relating to the living environment; in -- -- -- those regarding access to essential resources; in ..... social balances; in ---------- personal balances; and in -·-·-·-·- feelings of well-being/ill-being. The double lines represent the two-way inputs.

Figure 433 shows that to progress towards well-being for all and so ensure a shared sense of well-being, social and personal balances have a decisive role as indicated earlier in Figures 313 and 314. These balances result from the situations connected with access to essential resources which, via activities, are the outcome of relationships, attitudes and commitments. The latter also directly influence social and personal balances, and determine the environmental factors that act as overall facilitators. Moreover, there are interdependent relations, especially within each dimension of well-being, not itemised in the diagram but exemplified above. Note, finally, the retroactive effect of feelings of well-being on the attitudes and commitments shown earlier in Figures 313 and 314 and specified in Figure 315 with the four key components of well-being.

Once the indicators have been constructed with citizens and the relevant data are available (see Part 5), their various interconnections give rise to a two-stage analysis of the situations. First comes a general analysis to identify the main directions to be taken into account in an action strategy to promote well-being for all. Next, a more detailed analysis to focus on more specific questions, particularly regarding the most vulnerable groups or individual indicators.

a. General analysis

- The starting-point of this analysis is to measure the necessary progress in terms of balances (social and personal), the prime factor of well-being or ill-being, by pinpointing the unbalanced situations that generate ill-being.
- Understanding of the imbalances or balances is essential for analysing progress to be achieved in narrowing the gaps as regards access to essential resources. This brings us to the first of the vital elements that generate the "virtuous circles" of well-being demonstrated in Figure 315: equitable access.
- The analysis then moves on to the relational improvements needed (personal relations and relations with institutions), revealing their importance for social and personal balances as well as for access to essential resources via activities (economic or other). The three remaining key elements shown in Figure 315 are particularly useful reference points for this analysis.

- Lastly, analysis of attitudes and commitments casts further light on the scope for enhancing the "virtuous circles" of well-being, particularly through reduction of the differential between perception and satisfaction.

As a result of these analyses, we can pinpoint the need to reinforce certain key elements that potentially provide a means of promoting virtuous circles of well-being, especially those shown in Figure 315 and/or others that each elaborative process may reveal in its particular context. Conversely, the analyses also identify sticking-points, that is elements precluding the development of virtuous circles of well-being or enclosing the area in a vicious circle of ill-being. These may be, for example, marginalisation of certain social groups, "ghettoisation" of certain areas, over-concentration of resources nullifying all possibility of restoring social balance, existence of intercultural, intergenerational or other conflicts, lack of trust between persons or towards institutions, forms of institutional or political deadlock, etc.

Identifying the crucial elements and the sticking-points is fundamental to the framing of action strategies, because it emphasises the prime importance of enhancing or overcoming them, as the case may be.

b. More specific analyses

More specific analyses can then be performed on certain indicators or sets of indicators (health, diet, etc.), or on more narrowly defined groups (vulnerable groups, children, etc.), especially indicators that relate to the key elements or the sticking-points identified so that the action strategies can be fine-tuned. These analyses necessitate closer consideration of the interdependent links between indicators. This can be carried out using the typology presented above, adding details case by case.

1.3. Conclusions

Analysing the types of interdependence between indicators of progress in well-being for all is an essential basis for framing strategies and action plans. The following aspects should nevertheless be taken into account:

- the complexity of these analyses, drawing on often invisible or implicit forms of interdependence, requires them to be carried out in consultation with those affected, namely the citizens. This corroborates the value of elaborative processes; accordingly, these must not be limited to the construction of indicators but also extend to their measurement and to the resultant strategic planning. Applying a consultative, participatory approach to the strategies of well-being for all is precisely what later allows co-responsibility to be brought into the actions themselves;
- the analyses do not suffice in themselves to devise action strategies to promote well-being for all. They must be amplified by taking account of future generations and the analyses of the state of and pressure on resources (see below).

Finally, our examples have concerned situational indicators of progress towards the objective of well-being for all. However, analyses of the same type can also be performed on other objectives of progress, in particular the specific goals concerning the level of sectors/themes and the societal functions of collective bodies (levels B and C of Figure 334; see also Part 5, Chapter 2, of the guide).

2. Combinations of scales of meaning – The example of material resources indicators

Let us now consider the case of certain indicators which, while virtually independent of each other in terms of results, have interlinked scales of meaning.

2.1. Linkage of resource indicators by meaning

The case of material resources is especially meaningful in this respect. For each resource, the requisite decisions are governed both by the state of the resource and by the pressure exerted on it. The two relevant indicators are interdependent in respect of their meaning, although they can each have values that vary independently. Referring back to the generic definitions given in Table 427, here Table 434 represents a scale of meaning that combines the two indicators.

Table 434 – Combination of two scales of meaning: state of and pressure on a positive material resource

Scale of meaning for pressure on the resource					
5. Use of resource with sufficient room for manoeuvre for contingencies	5A	5B	5C	5D	5E
4. Use of resource such that it can be reproduced but without sufficient room for manoeuvre for contingencies	4A	4B	4C	4D	4E
3. Use of resource balanced to ensure its reproducibility	3A	3B	3C	3D	3E
2. Use of resource exceeding its reproducibility but with some rules for its regeneration	2A	2B	2C	2D	2E
1. Use of resource exceeding its reproducibility, without or disregarding rules for regeneration	1A	1B	1C	1D	1E
	A. State of resource demanding an end to its use and requiring specific measures to prevent its disappearance	B. State of resource demanding limited use to ensure reproduction	C. State of resource just enough to allow use within specific limits and requiring alternative solutions	D. State of resource allowing some freedom of use but with the risk of reversion to an average or bad situation	E. State of resource allowing freedom of use with little risk of deterioration
	Scale of meaning for state of the resource				

KEY (synoptic scale of meaning)

Ideal situation: reproducibility and safety margin assured

Good situation: positive trend but no safeguard for contingencies

Average situation: risk of deterioration to a bad or very bad situation, but with some room for manoeuvre

Bad situation: risk of deterioration to a very bad situation if no change or in the event of the unexpected (no room for manoeuvre)

Very bad situation: risk that resource may disappear

Impossible

The resultant scale of meaning makes it possible to understand the context and the type of action that could be taken.

This scale of meaning may be broken down more narrowly for each type of resource relating to material assets: natural and economic resources (see Figure 321). As regards negative material assets, the accompanying CD-Rom presents the same combination of scales (particularly important in the case of greenhouse gas emissions) and formulations more specific to different types of resources.

2.2. Synopsis

When applied to all the resources that constitute collective material assets (positive and negative), analysis will reveal some in a perilous situation ("very bad") consequently demanding a prompt and radical change. This helps clarify the concept of "critical level" introduced in Part 3, Chapter 1, and in a global context relates especially to greenhouse gas emissions and use of non-renewable energy sources. Given their relevance to all territories, resources which have reached a critical level (to be more simply called "critical resources") must be able to be taken into account in all local elaborative processes, since they require the swiftest possible transition to a good or ideal situation as regards the pressure exerted on them. Other instances of "critical resources" can be identified at local level and likewise accommodated in the priorities (such as water resources).

To make the connection with action strategies, this analysis must be made for the resource both generally (in the spatial management context) and individually on the basis of the right of equitable access to the resource.

The identification of "critical resources" has implications for the entire path of progress. The urgency of rectifying the situation presupposes that a schedule be laid down with quantified objectives set in relation to the spatial management context. This is true today for the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions at world level.

3. Taking account of the multidimensional quality of the effects of actions and activities

Actions and activities are by nature the driving force of progress. They are what will allow achievement of the objectives of well-being for all, future generations included. The analysis of their input is thus where indicators must be most inclusively and comprehensively considered. In other words, it is a matter of identifying,

applying and evaluating the actions that meet all the expectations inherent in the objective of societal progress. Accordingly, it is necessary:

- to view their individual performance from a global standpoint, over a range of criteria and not just one;
- to evaluate not only their performance but also their relevance;
- to analyse them as a whole and not just singly.

3.1. Analysis of performance

The approach proposed in the last chapter for analysing the impact of activities reveals their multiple effects on the different components of well-being. We have still to include the analysis of the pressure they exert on material assets, first and foremost on "critical resources", in order to arrive at a performance analysis for any kind of activity in relation to an objective of well-being for all. We shall call this "SWEBA performance" (sustainable well-being for all) to distinguish it from performance founded on market prices and added value.

By means of a SWEBA analysis, several types of action can be correlated with the need to reduce pressure on resources, particularly non-renewable ones, a priority option in the 21st-century context.

3.2. Analysis of relevance

SWEBA performance evaluation of an action or activity needs to be supplemented by an analysis of its relevance. Indeed, since each has an impact on certain criteria of well-being and not on others, and exerts pressure on specific resources, several questions arise in that respect:

- Do the criteria of well-being impacted by the action correspond to the indicators for which there are situations of ill-being and, if so, does the action have an impact on these situations?
- Do they correspond to the criteria identified as key elements of well-being?
- Do they help overcome the sticking-points?
- Finally, are the resources on which pressure is exerted "critical resources"?

Analysis of relevance is at first performed individually on each action or activity, so that possible improvements for each can be pinpointed. Next, it can be profitably extended to all activities or to a representative number of them, as the results of this acquire another meaning. This is to reveal the complementary relationships between the activities and to register the overall relevance of the activities present in a given territory or in the institutional frame of reference (see Part 5).

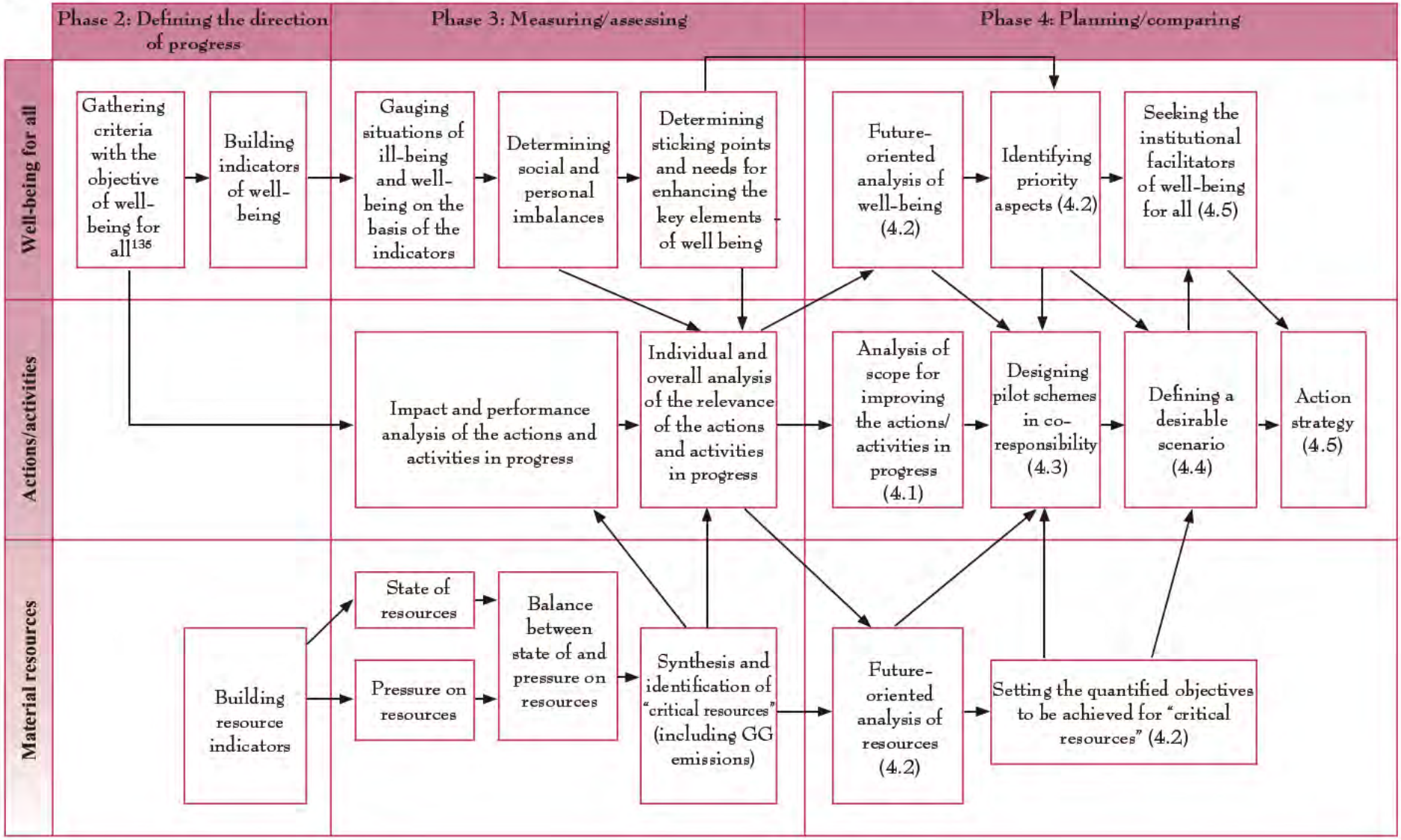
In Mulhouse (France), the impact analysis for 70 welfare actions conducted by various local players (municipal services, associations, enterprises, etc.) was conducted in 2007 using the criteria of well-being/ill-being expressed by citizens. This resulted in the identification of the possible complementary aspects having regard to their relevance, together with the critical points, namely situations of ill-being for which no action delivered an appropriate response.

3.3. Synopsis: general outline for the framing of an action strategy

In conclusion, analysis of the performance and relevance of activities is central to the whole problem of moving from indicators to actions. Taking into account the criteria and indicators of well-being for all (particularly the most decisive among them) and the pressure on resources (particularly where they have reached a critical level), it is possible to gauge the dynamics present and the interests at stake, and to determine objectives and scenarios. And, ultimately, to frame an action strategy.

All these stages are represented in Table 435. It relates to phases 2, 3 and 4 of the path of progress, those leading to an action strategy (it will be recalled that phase 1 involves the structuring and constitution of co-ordination groups). For the following phases, monitoring indicators are essentially those that come into play (see Part 5).

Table 435 – From the construction of shared knowledge to the concerted design of actions and action strategies[134]



134. This diagram stops at the action strategy. Proceeding to the action plan (phase 5) presupposes the players' commitment, also in terms of financial resources.

135 . The goal of well-being for all concerns the spatial level. Besides levels 2 (theme/sector) and 3 (players/institutions), there are other more specific goals (see Chapter 2 of the following part).

Conclusion

Part 4 of the guide offers food for thought as regards ways of moving from the construction of shared knowledge to a strategy for concerted action. This is done both by highlighting what the indicators signify and how they are linked with the action – not merely indicators as figures or a range of values – and by taking the diversity of the indicators into account as regards their form (quantitative and qualitative indicators) and their functions.

With this general logical framework for societal progress established, we shall now address the substantive methodological questions relating to its application.

Part 5

Rethinking methods

Introduction

With the reference and interpretation framework available to us, we shall now examine in practical terms how the processes of societal progress can be based on citizens and communities. The different experiments described in Part 1 will serve as a basis for methodological recommendations.

Part 5 will suggest methods giving local elaborative processes a true dynamic capacity. In other words these will:

- offer incentives, in that they make people want to join in the process and become a part of it;
- be inclusive, for they must invite all stakeholders to take part in a wide-ranging and proactive way, whatever their own situation, giving particular attention to the most disadvantaged members of society, and however receptive they may or may not have been initially to this kind of approach;
- be easily transferable, adaptable to any context whatsoever, and simple and inexpensive enough to be easily put into practice in every context (area or collective bodies).

This part is therefore based on the three levels of implementation of the processes of societal progress shown in Table 335:

- The area level studied in Chapter 1 is the logical starting point for elaborative processes, or least the level at which they can be integrated.
- Chapter 2 will look at the other two levels, namely, the processes relating to problems, sectors and themes, and those relating to collective bodies, showing the differences as compared with the first level.

In both chapters, methods are analysed in respect of the first four phases of the process.[136]

The other four phases (namely, the definition of responsibilities, the drawing up of an action plan, implementation thereof, and its evaluation and methodological capitalisation) will be dealt with in Chapter 3.[137]

None of the methodological observations made in this part is prescriptive or final. They are proposals on the basis of what seems, in the light of experience so far, most likely to enable the elaborative processes to bring societal progress towards well-being for all, in a context of broad and inclusive participation, renewal and transferability. Improvements are nevertheless possible, all the more so because some of the methods presented are of an experimental nature. For the fourth (planning and comparing) and subsequent phases, the proposals presented here need to be refined through further experimentation and discussion. Similarly, while the approaches proposed for the drawing up and use of well-being indicators with citizens have been subjected to a fair amount of experimentation and have stood the test of time, those relating to the state of resources and the pressure on them and, more generally, the taking into account of future generations, are still in the phase of proposals for experimentation. Fine-tuning will therefore be needed to make them complement the approaches to well-being.

The main purpose of the methodological indications is to enable instigators, leaders and facilitators to rationalise the conduct of the elaborative processes. They are intended to make it possible for these people to save time while still having an overview of the process. One aim is for there to be less, but more effective work.

136. This analysis is based in particular on applications of the methodology proposed by the Council of Europe, while drawing on the methods and knowledge developed by the other initiatives described in Part 1 of this guide.

137. A certain imbalance will be noted in the size of the three chapters, partly due to the fact that the know-how accumulated from existing initiatives is more extensive in the early phases of the process and at area level than in the other phases and at the other levels.

Another is to ensure direct interaction between stakeholders/citizens and maintain their continuing interest, so that they should need to commit less time and not face complex tasks which might discourage or demotivate them. Hence, it should be a general rule that, when results are presented, citizens should always have an opportunity to amend these and make other choices.

If, on the other hand, the methods proposed here seem too elaborate, too "ready-made", leaders and citizens may opt to propose methodological alternatives, trying out a more empirical approach. This will depend primarily on their degree of motivation and the amount of time available for this exercise. The right balance needs to be struck between benefit and workload, avoiding an initial underestimate of the number of meetings and hours required to conduct the process in full.

If the project is abandoned before it comes to fruition (implementation of strategies and action plans) because of an initial miscalculation of the amount of time and effort needed, the effect will be detrimental and people will remember the project as impossible, increasing their degree of passivity.

It is precisely the widespread view that effective participatory/deliberative democracy is a pipe dream that this guide endeavours to counter by putting forward simple, inclusive and relatively easy solutions. Although the objective has not yet been reached, for progress remains to be made in terms of methods, the way ahead has been indicated. More work will be able to be done after the guide has been published.

Chapter 1 – Methods of conducting elaborative processes at local level

1. Phase 1: structuring the process

The dynamics of the whole depend on this first phase. The level of mobilisation, participation and interest depends on the way in which the process has been set in train. This is why we shall give particular attention to this phase.

1.1. Starting the process and defining its framework

a. Forming a group to start the process

Any elaborative process involving citizens and communities starts with an initiative by one or more parties (individuals and/or companies): these may be local authorities, groups of citizens, NGOs, groups of research workers, etc. The group of instigators may come from within the living environment concerned (local authorities or groups) or from outside (for example, a non-local university), or it may be a mixture. It often arises out of a meeting or discussion (or more than one).

The elaborative process begun in Mulhouse (France) in 2006 was first mooted when representatives of the Council of Europe and the city of Mulhouse met during a meeting of the Committee on Social Cohesion of the Congress of Local and Regional Authorities of the Council of Europe, in October 2005. On that occasion, the mayor himself offered to apply the method proposed by the Council of Europe on a trial basis in his city.

In order to be able to move on from an initiative led by a few people to a participatory process, the key players in the living environment concerned must be mobilised. Especially, when the prime movers are NGOs or research workers.

In the Brittany region of France it proved possible for the instigators (researchers from an NGO called PEKEA) to put their project into practice only once they had gained the interest of the local authorities in two groups of municipalities.

b. Specifying the reference context

The reference context is the one within which the process takes place. Usually defined from the outset, it may be geographical (town/city, village, neighbourhood, etc.), and this is the kind under study in this chapter. But it may also be thematic (relating to a given branch or sector) or an entity (business, school, public service, etc.), and these aspects will be considered in Chapter 3. Generally speaking, it is a "living community", meaning a number of people who share various kinds of links, either because they live in the same place (geographical area) or because they are involved in the same sector or are part of the same structure.

It is in relation to this context that the process takes shape and the instigating group forms. The reference context may also become more specific subsequently, influenced by what seems most appropriate in terms of existing structures and players, and/or by the need to become closer to ordinary people.

In Gabon, the action started by the Directorate General of Well-Being of the Ministry of Social Affairs first began in districts of the city of Libreville. Very rapidly, however, it seemed more apt to organise it at neighbourhood level, as traditional authorities close to citizens exist at that level (neighbourhood heads known as chefs de quartiers).

The selection of geographical reference contexts may change as time goes by.

In Mulhouse (a city with a population of 110 000), for instance, the process covered the whole city initially, but was subsequently developed in individual neighbourhoods, firms, schools, public services, and so on, with action being adapted accordingly.

Development in the opposite direction, from the levels closest to citizens to a wider community, is also possible.

In Cape Verde, the process was begun at the level of rural communities (the equivalent of villages, with a population of between a few hundred and a thousand), subsequently expanding to the level of each island.

c. Careful positioning of the process

Not only the reference context, but also the objectives of the process need to be clearly defined: what exactly is the aim? Why are people going to be asked to get involved? The objectives may be very specific at the outset (such as seeking participatory solutions to certain social problems) or a wider approach may be adopted (finding out about all the social problems in the area).

In this guide, we propose as the objective for these processes shared responsibility (or co-responsibility) for the well-being of all, including future generations. Using such an approach, taking an all-embracing view of societal progress, it is easier to set out the ways in which different specific processes complement one another, centring on a unifying general line, as explained in Part 3. Thus, each experiment can be viewed from a single perspective.

d. Finding institutional, financial and methodological support

Once the project has been defined, the institutional, financial and methodological support required to implement it needs to be found.

Institutional support

In this context, the involvement of those responsible for the reference context is essential, whether they are local authorities responsible for the geographical area or managers of the collective entity (firm, school, hospital, etc.), for they give legitimacy to the process and enable it to be carried out in optimum conditions. Support sometimes has to be sought from other sources, for example when particular expertise is needed.

In Wallonia (Belgium), an elaborative process with the citizens of 15 pilot municipalities was able to be carried out thanks to the involvement of not only the municipalities themselves, but also the Walloon Institute for Evaluation, Forward-Looking Research and Statistics (IWEPS). Relying on regional social cohesion legislation for the funding of social cohesion plans, regional institutions facilitated the start of a pilot process which is to be extended to the whole region.

Financial support

The example given illustrates the link that often exists between institutional and financial assistance. Account nevertheless has to be taken of the fact that an elaborative process invariably brings resources into play. In practice, if the aim from the outset is a broad one of co-responsibility for the well-being of all, the capacities of each and every party will clearly be needed in order to achieve this. These capacities will be made clear as implementation continues. Thus, relatively low levels of resources will suffice initially. This is important, as a fear of creating false expectations often holds such initiatives back, especially when processes have been started by public authorities which have an obligation to meet citizens' expectations.

The resources which need to be available at the outset are for operating costs: meetings of the co-ordinating group and with citizens, remuneration of a facilitator (see below), etc. The sums are relatively small, and the support of public authorities or other sources is needed. Sometimes the funding body may become the instigator.

The Ostad Elahi Foundation (Paris),[138] *which specialises in ethics and human solidarity, decided to help to develop the elaborative approach in several secondary schools on the basis of the experiment at the Lycée Albert Schweitzer in Mulhouse. This led it to establish links with certain education authorities.*

Methodological support

There are several possibilities in this respect, including:

- twinning with an existing experiment: the city of Timişoara in Romania, for example, developed the process with the support of its French twin city, Mulhouse;
- networking: one example is the CIC (Community Indicators Consortium) in the United States, which brings together a very large number of local initiatives and develops exchanges between them. More recently, the International Meeting of Territories of Co-Responsibility, a network set up in Europe, has ensured that methodological lessons are learned and methods disseminated.

What is more, the very purpose of this guide is to provide appropriate methodological support: another resource available to readers is the Council of Europe website (https://spiral.cws.coe.int).[139]

1.2. Setting up a co-ordination/consultation structure

Raison d'être, remit

The use of elaborative processes with a cross-cutting objective of co-responsibility for the well-being of all leads to an active search for participants and the promotion of consultation among them. The setting up – by the instigators – of a co-ordination/consultation structure is vital in this respect. A structure of this kind, a framework for true inter-sectoral partnership, representing the functions of the area, leads the way and takes the decisions at the various stages of the process.

Moreover, the difficulties encountered by elaborative processes very often stem from inadequate affirmation and openness by the co-ordination structure. This may happen for instance when the structure is regarded as an offshoot of the public authorities and/or the instigators. On the other hand, a process regarded by all as having the support of every single stakeholder truly does give rise to both shared responsibility and participation.

138. www.fondationostadelahi.fr.

139. The IT tools on this site are also available on the CD-Rom which comes with this guide.

The setting-up process

The necessary care and time must be taken to set up and establish the co-ordination structure in order to ensure that all the stakeholders are fully behind the concept.

Generally speaking, an initial meeting with the main participants from the reference context (using every means, when the context is a geographical one, to ensure due representation of both more vulnerable and better-off groups) may suffice to present the purpose of the exercise and achieve consensus on the whole process. At that meeting, the group is invited to consider how representative it actually is and to ensure that no social sector is excluded or unrepresented. A second meeting then takes place with those whom the group feels should be included.

Two such meetings are systematically held in the context of the Future Search activities run in some urban neighbourhoods in the United States: a first "getting to know you" meeting to take ownership of the process, where representativeness is discussed and improved, and a second meeting at which all participants are effectively represented.[140]

Subsequently, the co-ordination group becomes the consultative body where decisions are discussed and taken collectively. Membership varies according to type of reference context, and size may change as time goes by.

In Mulhouse, the area co-ordination group of around 15 people initially expanded gradually as the inclusion of new players and partners crucial to the process came to be necessary. Subsequently, in view of the group's size, a decision was taken to set up a smaller management committee which would meet more frequently, whereas the intervals would be longer between larger meetings involving the co-ordination group.

Formalisation

Co-ordination structures are often set up on an ad hoc basis, retaining an informal status. Formalisation is nevertheless conducive to their legitimacy and longevity. When a formal partnership or consultation structure already exists, there are three ways in which its use offers advantages: greater representativeness, recognition, and development and widening of its role as new methods and tools are added; avoidance of duplication which might give rise to confusion or even conflicts of interest thwarting the proposed course of action; and avoidance of the need for formalisation, since this has already been achieved.

In the 14th *arrondissement* of Paris, it was decided to make use of neighbourhood councils (local bodies genuinely engaging in consultation with citizens), each of which has become a consultation channel for the elaborative process in its own neighbourhood. Thus, both for citizens and for higher tiers of authority, these structures are more representative, more visible, more legitimate and better recognised, and the process makes them more effective, more relevant.[141]

In certain cases, it is advantageous to formalise as the co-ordination group a body that already enjoys legal status and official recognition, which can then actually inspire and run local initiatives, including their financial side.

In Cape Verde, regional partnership committees (RPCs) which have a specific status under legislation ("the RPC law") have been set up on each island in the context of the national anti-poverty programme, with the support of the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). These are genuine partnership structures for consultation, decision making

140. Visit www.futuresearch.net.

141. This project awaits funding before it can continue.

and management, and include representatives of municipalities, community associations, devolved authorities, NGOs, businesses and other local players. They have the financial independence that they need to take decisions on the basis of shared responsibility throughout the process.

Positioning

Once the co-ordination group has been set up, and possibly formalised, its first job is to position itself correctly in relation to the objective of well-being for all:

- definition with citizens themselves of well-being criteria and indicators;
- consideration of future generations in the well-being objective;
- analysis of resource renewal capacity;
- assessment of the impact of current policies/activities in relation to citizens' criteria.

As these are the points where the choice of methods differs from the conventional approach, proper clarification is needed. This guide may serve as a reference point in this respect.

Functioning: facilitation and expertise

Over the long term, the process needs at least one facilitator, who should be appointed by the co-ordination group which is still the decision-making and management body, while the role of the facilitator(s) is to make the process effective. Similarly, the experts' role, especially in the methodological sphere, needs to be clarified so that citizens can fully understand what is going on.

Depending on the objective of the process, facilitation and expertise need to be dealt with differently. Where a public policy or a specific subject (such as action to be taken against pollution by motor vehicles) is concerned, experts will have a role to play both before and afterwards, helping to distribute information material and analysing the results of the discussions. This involves an experts/citizens/experts cycle (Bobbio and Pomatto, 2007).

However, where elaborative processes relating to well-being for all are concerned, dialogue begins with open questions – in respect of which participants' knowledge and experience are needed to form a vision shared and validated by all – here it is more a matter of a citizens/facilitator/citizens cycle.

Training

Prerequisites for achieving societal progress with citizens and communities are an understanding of the concepts and implications of participatory processes and the roles of each party and the acquisition of methodological skills, so it is beneficial to allow for training time for facilitators and, more generally, for members of the co-ordination group. There are several possible approaches. One of the most worthwhile, especially when the deliberative process is to be started in several communities, is to arrange training for groups of 40 or 50 people, providing hands-on experience of the process both within each specific group of trainees and then in the field. Not only does training enable all the facilitators and/or co-ordinators and co-ordination group members to acquire skills, it also tests these and offers an opportunity for group discussions of how to gear methods to context.

In the Belgian region of Wallonia, the representatives of the 15 municipalities interested in working with citizens on well-being underwent this kind of training, first in the classroom and then in three pilot municipalities.

Specialised working groups

The co-ordination group may decide to set up working subgroups on specific subjects of importance in its area. These are usually set up later, often in phase 4, when certain issues or problem areas need to be examined in greater detail. However, bearing in mind that account needs to be taken of future generations, at least one working group of members with the relevant expertise should be set up from the very start of the process to consider resources, particularly those in a "critical" situation.[142] These will be called "critical resources/assets working groups", and their work may include discussions of indebtedness.

1.3. Getting citizens involved

Ways of involving people

Once the structure of the co-ordination group has been decided and the group itself formed, the first question to be answered before the process can begin is how to get citizens from every background involved, from the most vulnerable to those most comfortably off. This requires a special effort, to avoid ending up with "always the same people": those who habitually have their say, participate and get involved.

While "everyone can take part" is a sweeping and persuasive statement (Bobbio and Pomatto, 2007), if participation is restricted to people regarded as "competent", "active" or "interested in the common good" the opportunity is denied to the main intended beneficiaries of these processes, namely those in the weakest position, whose competence is not acknowledged. On examination, however, the participation shortfall also extends to those in the strongest position: entrepreneurs, property owners and, more generally, all those who – visibly or less so – have means of influencing decision makers and are therefore less inclined to expose themselves to collective discussions.

Various mechanisms for getting people involved (or rather for sample selection) have been suggested, including deliberative processes within geographical areas. Fung (2003) put forward three: voluntary participation, selective recruitment and random selection. Each has its own problems, produces a different participant configuration and different dynamics.[143] In this guide, we suggest a combination of voluntary participation and selective recruitment, thanks to active commitment by the co-ordination group, facilitators and, where applicable, public authorities.

This is why the co-ordination group should consist primarily of individuals who themselves represent local society and can legitimately bring others along. In some cases, theatrical performances, fairs and other kinds of gathering can be used to attract people, as has been done in the province of Ascoli Piceno (Italy). In general terms, it is with the support of the public authorities (particularly municipalities) that people are invited to get involved (see Part 1, with particular reference to Europe, Australia and Canada).

142. See the definitions of critical level and critical resources in paragraph 2 of Chapter 3, Part 4.

143. Voluntary participation, while it is the form which best protects individual freedom, results in the selection of those who have time and those already working with the authorities and receiving support from them. These problems may be reduced if the government departments concerned undertake to make an active search for participants in their own areas or in places where they come together.
Selective recruitment (microcosm) implies the broadest possible reflection within the group of the interests and viewpoints of the reference society. Thus an agent, or facilitator, is needed to find representatives of the various roles and stakeholders, without showing any prejudice, and including extremely small or minority groups otherwise likely to be overlooked.
Random selection (of small groups), through a sampling process legitimised by the drawing of names, ensures a mixture of participants encompassing ordinary people. The theory here is that anyone provided with the relevant information and engaged in dialogue with others can contribute opinions and help the group to find intelligent solutions.

In Timişoara (Romania), the large co-ordination group (around 60 people) representing every sector of society, including the civil service, and organisations which work in all environments, even the most difficult ones, ensured the involvement of citizens from every social and ethnic category, representative of local diversity, partly thanks to active identification by the facilitator of local interests and identities, so that long-standing Roma migrants who did not have Romanian nationality, Aids patients, homeless persons, etc., were also included.

Number of participants needed to develop indicators

The development of indicators based on citizens' own criteria is a fundamental aspect of the processes analysed here. The "statistical representativeness" of a smaller or larger group and its legitimacy as a basis for criteria applicable to the whole area are questions that are often raised. As it is "shared feeling" which matters, there is less emphasis on statistical representativeness than on de facto representativeness of people's different roles and social affiliations. The number of citizens to be invited will therefore depend on the number of "homogeneous groups" to be set up, meaning groups sufficiently representative of varying local conditions to enable a variety of criteria indicative of actual situations in respect of well-being for all to be devised. Experience in the field shows that participants may vary in number between 60 and 250. But some people take the view that statistical representativeness is immaterial: the aim of elaborative processes is to bring in people with experience, ideas, values and aspirations to build up a common vision, and not to form a correctly calculated sample within which interaction might be insignificant (Bobbio and Pomatto, 2007).

The legitimacy of the process also depends on its capacity to give a voice to those who lack the ability to put their views via institutional structures and in public life. Rather than describing them as "passive citizens", we shall think of them as "citizens who have never had the time and confidence to speak out", or "citizens of whom little notice has been taken".

Furthermore, the selection question is different in institutional contexts, as the next chapter makes clear.

Understanding the context and purpose of the exercise: the key concept of co-responsibility

As soon as people are first invited to participate, they need to be clearly told of the exercise's *raison d'être*. The points to be put forward and discussed include:

- the need to give new thought to societal progress in terms which go beyond GDP;
- the need to produce an appropriate definition of well-being for all, including future generations, and to consider society's capacity to achieve it as the main objective of societal progress;
- achievements and boundaries where this objective is concerned, based on context indicators (see Part 4 of the guide);
- the need to begin a consultation and dialogue process;
- the benefits and implications of the concept of co-responsibility;
- the more general issues, especially that of material resources/assets;
- the substance of the exercise and arrangements for its implementation.

Making the exercise user-friendly and attractive

Discussions on these issues can be made lively and enjoyable.

In Brittany, PEKEA called in a drama group which put on a play introducing the question of societal progress in the 21st century. At the end of the play, a discussion was started of how to begin an elaborative process to build new progress indicators in the two groups of communities concerned.

The process can also be launched through an invitation to an open discussion, perhaps subsequently leading to building up a shared vision of well-being for all and to the construction of indicators.

In some towns and cities, in France and elsewhere, "humanity dialogues" have started to be developed under UNESCO patronage, to which three rules are applied: freedom of speech; goodwill (willingness to listen and respect for oneself, for others and for nature); complete equality vis-à-vis questions relating to humanity.[144]

2. Phase 2: defining progress

2.1. Defining well-being for all: collecting criteria

In line with the approach already described, the intention is to make use of citizens' own criteria to define well-being for all in their geographical area. Some general methodological principles are set out below, followed by a consideration of their application.

a. General principles for collecting well-being criteria[145]

Principle of individual and interactive expression

Elaborative processes derive legitimacy first of all from the fact that the participants in discussions on well-being for all are free and equal individuals.

The process of building up one vision shared by all citizens, whether of well-being, of the probable future or of anything else, thus begins with a phase during which individuals think independently and reach their own view. Then comes an interactive phase of comparison culminating in a mutually agreed overview.

There are at least two advantages to this combined individual and interactive approach:

- it leads to a two-way process of stimulation: individual thinking enriches the collective vision, while interactive thinking encourages new individual ideas;
- it enables each participant to grasp the complexity and variety of the situations in which people who live in the same place find themselves.

Principle of representative and mixed participation: dialogue between homogeneous and heterogeneous groups

It is vital that all should have their say. But how can this be achieved in a mixed environment, the kind in which some people or groups of people do not find it easy to contribute? This is why homogeneous groups are set up containing people of similar age (young, elderly), socio-economic background (unemployed people), occu-

144. Humanity dialogues (http://dialoguesenhumanite.org/?q=11-notre-demarche).

145. Further analysis of the epistemological reasons for selecting this methodology for the collection of well-being criteria can be found in Council of Europe, 2008, pp. 48-55.

pational category (entrepreneurs, civil servants), cultural background (migrants, minorities) or physical state (persons with disabilities, Aids patients), so that group members feel at ease during discussions.

Such homogeneous groups not only facilitate discussion, but also enable an initial overview to be reached allowing for all the criteria, even where socio-economic differences clearly exist within a single such group (for example, young people).

From the outset, nevertheless, it must be made clear that all participants can base themselves on their individual experience, and not just on those aspects of their personality which tie in with the general characteristics of the group.

In Seneffe (a town in Belgium's Wallonia region) discussions were enriched within a homogeneous group of artists by the contributions of some who were in other paid employment. It was clear that members of the group were not speaking as artists, but as citizens, enabling them to cover a whole range of aspects.

The optimum size for a homogeneous group is between seven and 10. There is generally too little interaction in a group with fewer than seven members. If there are more than 10, each person's scope for expression is too limited.

Principle of freedom of expression: working on open questions

The methodological approach suggested in this chapter is successful when the questions relating to well-being for all are open ones and when participants all base themselves on their own experience and aspirations. Looking again at the example of Timişoara, contrasting criteria were advanced by a Roma woman who wanted to be able to stop eating food taken from dustbins and a female entrepreneur who hoped to be able to eat certified organic foods. Here, freedom of expression takes on a dimension which reflects not only plurality of interests, but also variety of social experience. The facilitator's role in such cases is twofold: enabling people freely to express their experience and ensuring that each "overview" leaves room for difference and for a variety of conditions.

Conclusion: different techniques used than in more conventional data collection

Summing up, the approach suggested here differs from both research based on individual interviews in which set questions are asked and surveys and opinion polls. In practice:

- it is based on a simultaneously individual and interactive way of thinking/perceiving (unlike opinion polls, which attach great importance to personal replies and avoid the exercise of influence by one individual on another);
- it is open to a wide range of participants, as even the most marginal individual has experienced well-being and ill-being during his or her lifetime;
- consequently, overviews are more inclusive than cross-cutting;[146]
- it gives participants free rein to talk about personal experience;
- the aim being to build up shared knowledge, the focus is not only on perceptions or preferences, but also on the effort begun and its potential for continuation of the process over the longer term.

Thus discussion based on contrasting or even conflicting individual views will, if the process is conducted appropriately, lead to identification of extremes of social experience in terms of access to goods and services, living conditions, feelings, and so on. Interaction between participants, highlighting contrasts in each person's

146. A "cross-cutting overview" covers only what is regarded as essential for all, whereas an "inclusive overview" extends to both generally agreed and individual viewpoints.

social experience and tacit knowledge, may result in an understanding of the extent of the disparities to be remedied in order to ensure well-being for present generations, as well as in the devising of more inclusive options or proposals.

b. Application

Collecting criteria (first meeting with citizens)

The principles set out below have been applied when criteria were collected from homogeneous groups of citizens:[147]

- whenever possible, all the groups concerned met at the same time in an appropriate setting for group work. While this has the advantage of saving time and achieving synergy, further meetings are frequently necessary, for instance with groups unable to attend or for whom travel is impossible (elderly persons in residential homes, prisoners, etc.);
- each group works with one or two leaders, if possible members of the co-ordination group;
- no attempts are made by leaders to influence group members' replies;
- three open questions are put: (1) What does well-being mean to you? (2) What does ill-being mean to you? (3) As a citizen, what do you or can you do to ensure your own well-being or well-being for all? See Part 4. The exercise is carried out in such a way as to collect criteria separately on each question,[148] as described below:

1. For each question, participants note down their criteria separately on pieces of paper (one criterion per piece of paper); they may write as many as they consider appropriate.
2. Once they have done this, their notes are collected and mixed up (so that anyone who wishes to remain anonymous may do so) and then read out by a leader; each is discussed and may be fleshed out by the group before being displayed on a large sheet of paper visible to all (on a table or an easel), preferably grouped according to subject. This task is carried out by the group as a whole, which decides where each note is to be displayed so that criteria are brought together.
3. During this exercise, each participant may add more notes to the pile if he or she so wishes.
4. Once this has been done, all are read out again to ensure that the summary obtained is an accurate one as far as the group is concerned; then the group moves on to the next question.
5. This exercise generally takes about one hour per question, totalling between three and three and half hours, or sometimes more, depending on context and participants' interest in discussing the overview. It may be spread across several meetings, with participants readily returning if the first meeting was well conducted in what is usually a highly motivating exercise.
6. Once the exercise is finished, each group displays on the wall its three sheets of notes (one for each question), so that the members of the other homogeneous groups can see them.

Classification of the criteria and general overview

It is usually the leaders themselves who assign the criteria thus collected to the different dimensions (families) and indicators of well-being.[149] The requisite data-processing tools are included on the CD-Rom which comes with this guide, particularly the "ESPOIR" software and the "Criteria identification key". Updates can be found on the https://spiral.cws.coe.int website.

147. The description given is of application of the method in its most advanced form, which is the result of numerous experiments.

148. The order in which the questions are put does have some importance. In situations where ill-being is experienced on a daily basis, it is preferable to start with the second question ("What does ill-being mean to you?") before tackling the first question ("What does well-being mean to you?"), which seems more abstract. This was suggested by the Cape Verde leaders, in the light of local living conditions there, and has proved very appropriate.

149. The families correspond to the eight dimensions of well-being presented in Figure 311 (Chapter 1 of Part 3).

The ESPOIR software both facilitates systematic classification and prevents criteria from being left out or assigned twice (each criterion being assigned to a single indicator). It makes a degree of automation possible, as well as a printable overview showing all the criteria expressed by the various homogeneous groups, according to indicator and family of indicators.

As well as organised information, some rules on assignment are provided, relating particularly to the criteria whose classification is not immediately obvious. These rules are intended to eliminate any ambiguity in the assignment process, to obtain indicators which can be used for comparisons between areas and to facilitate, if applicable, the building of indicators at higher administrative levels. To this end, the ESPOIR software is supplemented by the "Criteria identification key".

In Belgium, the processes begun in 15 Walloon municipalities with a view to creating indicators of progress in well-being at municipal level and clarifying these indicators at regional level led to the drafting of an initial version of the "Criteria identification key", so as to avoid inappropriate interpretations of the way in which criteria should be attributed.[150]

Validation of the overview (second meeting with citizens)

Once it has been prepared and printed, the overview is presented at a second meeting to the groups which had produced the criteria. One copy per group is distributed, and each group is asked to read it and suggest amendments if it considers, in view of its understanding of well-being, that some criteria are misplaced. Each group can thus add any criteria that it feels had been left out.

The leaders give an oral summary of the final corrected version.

It is now possible, at this stage, to invite the citizens concerned to repeat the exercise on a fourth question relating to well-being for future generations, worded as follows: "You have defined well-being in your area as shown in the overview. Should other criteria be added so that this well-being is accessible to future generations?" Each homogeneous group applies the same principles to this question as to the previous three, and the paper notes are then added to the overview sheet.

The fourth question was put in the Walloon municipalities concerned, making it possible for sustainability criteria to be emphasised, and enabling greater consistency to be achieved in both the elaborative process and the appropriation of the objective of well-being for all, as expressed in the overview.

Respect for participants' wishes to remain anonymous

Participants or whole groups sometimes express a wish to remain anonymous, which must be respected. Quite simply:

- within each homogeneous group, the notes should be read out by the leader;
- if a whole group wishes to remain anonymous, it should be allowed to do so, although this will make the exercise less comprehensive.

150. The "Criteria identification key", prepared in co-operation between the Council of Europe and the Walloon Region, is reproduced in the accompanying CD-Rom.

2.2. From citizens' criteria to the construction of evaluation grids, shared references and indicators

a. Impact evaluation grids

As stated in Part 4, the well-being or ill-being criteria expressed by citizens may also serve as a basis for impact assessment exercises in a local field of action/activity, in terms of assessment after the event (*ex post*), during the preparatory stage (*ex ante*) or while the action/activity is in progress.

Several approaches have been tried out with a view to drawing up an impact assessment grid:

- when the number of criteria is small, an impact assessment may be made of each, as was done, for example, in Mulhouse;
- it may also be based purely on the negative criteria, making it an assessment of impact in terms of reduction in ill-being; this is meaningful where the process is intended to reduce situations of ill-being, and this is what was done in Cape Verde in the effort to reduce poverty;
- when there are too many criteria to analyse each individually, either the main criteria may be chosen or they may be grouped according to ideas, a single criterion being selected per idea; this is the approach used in the Romanian city of Timişoara.

Table 511 – Example of an impact assessment grid on the criteria of three dimensions of well-being (access to essential resources, living environment and personal balance) with three examples of application[151]

Indicators	Well-being criteria expressed by residents	Action 1: Services in the home	Action 2: Public training in care	Action 3: Participatory arts workshop
Access to essential resources				
Health	– Non-discrimination in health ..... – Health education.....	....++.....	++... .....++..	....
Housing	– Decent housing for all	.....	.....	.....
Education/ training	– Access to training..... – Fair treatment in terms of skills training (equality of opportunity)..... – French-language training ..... – Knowledge of the country and its laws, the neighbourhood, the town.....	....	....++..... .....+.....	....
Employment	– Fair treatment in the employment sphere. – Fulfilling employment.....	....++.....	....	....
Income	– Fair treatment in terms of income.....	.....	.....	.....
Mobility	– Mobility, ease and freedom of movement.	.....	.....	.....
Culture	– Access to culture for all..... – Fair access to culture (such as municipal or neighbourhood theatres).....	....	....	.....++..... .....
Living environment				

151. Joint assessments made in Mulhouse in 2007. Reasons were given for each positive (or negative) impact identified, but the reasons have not been included in the table to avoid an over-abundance of information.

Town/city on a human scale/ proximity	– Town/city on a human scale ..... – Proximity.....	....	....	....++.....
Accessibility of infrastructure	– Access to urban infrastructure, especially for persons with difficulties (those with disabilities, the elderly, etc.)	.....	.....	.....
Cleanliness, absence of pollution	– Unpolluted living environment (also free from noise pollution)	.....	.....	.....
Opportunities for socialising, social mix	– Absence of ghettos..... – Socially mixed housing ..... – Socially mixed schools ..... – Undivided neighbourhoods ..... – Environment conducive to integration ..... – Meeting places, opportunities for self-expression..... – Venues/times for festivities	....	....	....++..... ....++.....
Opportunities for meetings and discussions	– Places where members of different generations can meet and take part in activities together ..... – Promotion of exchanges between members of different generations and cultures ..... – Opportunities for learning together (lectures) ..... – Opportunities for developing citizenship .... – Creation of opportunities for discussion and dialogue ..... – Availability of venues for discussions, consultations, joint decision making on all the town's major issues/policies	....	....++..... .....+.....	....++.... .....+..... .....+..... .....
Personal balance				
Personal independence	– Independence as a principle..... – Getting by on one's own ..... – Freedom of choice	...++..... ...++..... ...++.....	...++..... ...++..... .....++.....	...+..... ...+..... .....
Management of time	– Right to holidays and to get away from one's usual environment ..... – Less stress and anxiety ..... – Right to stand back and take time out	...++..... ...++..... ...++.....	....	...+..... ....
Life project	– Finding a meaning for life ..... – Having a project, ambitions ..... – Ability to dream, have aspirations ..... – Having the will to learn	...++..... ...++..... .....++.... .....++...	....++....	....++.... .....
Social and family life	– Rich and balanced social life (family/friends) ..... – Bringing up one's children ..... – Reconciling working and family life	...++..... ...++..... .....++.....	....	....
Right to privacy	– Right to privacy: respect for people's privacy in the street, without filming or surveillance ...	....++.....	.....	.....

Key: the meaning of the symbols + and ++ is explained in Part 4. Where no symbol appears, impact is nil. No cases of negative impact have been reported.

b. A charter of ethics

The production of a charter of ethics on well-being for all, based on the criteria corresponding to the third question ("What do you or can you do to ensure your own well-being or well-being for all?") would be another way of adding to the value of the work done. The criteria would thereby become reference points for action in day-to-day life.

This method was devised when the approach was applied with the staff of the zoo and botanical garden in the French city of Mulhouse. The ensuing charter of ethics (see the CD-Rom) was discussed in the various homogeneous groups, which approved it; it was unanimously concluded that if it were effectively to be applied, there would be a radical shift towards well-being for all. Consideration is being given to how to put this into practice.

It is easier to work in this way when the process is based on a specific entity such as the aforementioned zoo and botanical garden, rather than when a whole area is concerned. In the latter case, however, there are benefits for societal progress.

c. Indicators of progress in well-being

Classifying criteria according to category

Once the overview has been finalised and approved by the citizens concerned, the process of constructing indicators of progress in well-being begins, using the transversal scale of meaning referred to in Part 4 of this guide.

Methodological rules on building these indicators are given for indicative purposes, in the same way as was done for the assignment of criteria. The four-step classification proposed (possibility, obtainment, quality and sustainability) for classifying the criteria according to level (see Part 4) very much depends on the local context. Hence the benefit of involving at least a few persons familiar with the locality in this exercise, especially if the leaders are not from the area.

In Cape Verde, when the first exercises were conducted in rural communities, leaders from urban areas had classified house ownership as a criterion for sustainability of the home. This was subsequently disputed by the representatives of the communities concerned, who said that anyone with a home, even a rudimentary one, was de facto its owner, making this a possibility criterion, not a sustainability one. Subsequently, facilitators from within these communities were trained, enabling such errors of interpretation to be avoided.

Use in full of the criteria put forward by citizens is a key methodological rule to be taken into account. The risk nevertheless exists of certain criteria not being expressed (thus inhibiting understanding of the different situations that exist by reference to an indicator), but if during the collection exercise attention was paid to every one of the homogeneous groups representative of all the conditions of human life and all the socio-economic and ethnic categories in the geographical area, the outcome tends to be that there are too many criteria.

Continuing along this same line of thought, the criteria should not be (re-)interpreted by the leaders, but reproduced as they stand in their positive and negative aspects (see Chapter 2 of Part 4).

In Cape Verde, the "sufficient rainfall" criterion has often been regarded as a well-being criterion. Some leaders sought to quantify it by grading the corresponding amounts of rainfall. It emerged that this was meaningless to the communities concerned, which had no means of measuring rainfall, but were perfectly well aware every year of whether or not it had rained enough for their crops to grow and be harvested.

Defining steps

Definition of the five steps, stages or levels of each indicator is an exercise requiring particular care so that the understanding and interpretation of each step, which must be unambiguous, are concise and clear enough. Chapter 2 of Part 4 contains an example of steps (see Table 429). Two kinds of difficulties may be encountered in this respect:

- first, the existence of too few criteria for the number of steps. If the number of criteria is below four, the indicator is usually considered to be insignificant to local well-being and is dropped. In other words, it is also possible to reduce the number of steps or reconsider the allocation of criteria;
- second, when the reverse happens, the existence of too many criteria makes working out steps a complex task. In such cases, criteria need to be grouped according to ideas, and the one most representative of each idea identified (more details are given in the "Criteria identification key"; see the CD-Rom).

d. Building indicators of the state of and pressure on material resources

Parts 3 and 4 have shown that the well-being of future generations is a vital part of any appraisal of the well-being of current generations. As we have already seen, these are two sides of a single coin. Hence, identification of the critical components of our material assets to be taken into account in the search for well-being for all must be part of any effort to achieve societal progress.

In addition to the exercises which can be carried out with citizens in relation to the criteria to be taken into consideration for the well-being of future generations, there is a need for indicators of the state of resources and the pressure on them, particularly so as to identify those which are at a "critical" stage and will require a specific approach (see Part 4 of the guide). This extends not only to non-renewable energy sources producing greenhouse gases, but also to others identified at local (or regional, national, etc.) level as being in a "critical" situation.

The construction of these indicators is not particularly a matter for citizen participation, depending more on knowledge of the issues relating to each resource. This is why the main parties concerned are the material assets working groups. Citizens' participation in the conscious effort to achieve collective management plays a key role, which is why it is so important to validate this knowledge through straightforward, accessible and easy-to-use indicators. The approach put forward in this guide, including the scales of meaning presented in Part 4, starts to take us in this direction and needs to be fleshed out and added to on the basis of its application on the ground.

2.3. Validation and preparation for the next steps

Validation of the indicators is a vital step when it comes to broadening interaction between citizens through reorganisation of the working groups.

Validation of the indicators

This stage is the subject of a third meeting with the same citizens, reorganised into what we term "multi-profile groups", each member of which represents one of the homogeneous groups. If we assume that x homogeneous groups met on the first occasion, each comprising y members, there can be y multi-profile groups comprising x members of the homogeneous groups. The values of x and y usually lie between seven and 12.

Multi-profile groups are set up because it is necessary to take account during the indicator approval process of the opinion of every socio-professional category and age-group, both sexes and people of all ethnic origins. Within these groups there can be interaction between all kinds of people whose situations of well-being or ill-being will enable clear distinctions to be made between the different steps on any given indicator.

The indicators, usually numbering between 30 and 40 (see Table 512), can be divided up, with a few going to each multi-profile group (possibly one family of indicators per group), making validation possible over a shorter period of time.

The validation process involves making sure that members of the group accept, for each indicator in turn, the description of each of the five steps, incorporating any changes on which there is consensus, until the indicators are acceptable to all. At this stage, the focus is solely on the wording of the five steps, without further consideration of the criteria and their classification, the latter actually being just a technical device to facilitate preparatory work on the indicator. Participants are of course free to change the wording of the steps as they see fit.

The results of the work of the multi-profile groups are then read out to all participants, to check that they agree to the changes made.

Table 512 – Well-being indicators derived from the experiments conducted between 2006 and 2010[152]

A – Access to essential resources		**B – Living environment**	
A01	Food	B01	Cleanliness/pollution/noise
A02	Medicines and health care	B02	Basic infrastructure and equipment
A03	Housing	B03	Infrastructure and equipment for services
A04	Clothing	B04	Meeting and leisure places
A05	Education/training	B05	Weather and natural phenomena
A06	Employment/work/activity	B06	Space and landscapes
A07	Cultural/leisure/sports activities	B07	Production and work conditions
A08	Purchasing power/access to finances		
A09	Assistance and personal services		
A10	Mobility		
A11	Information/exchanges		

C – Relations with and between institutions		**D – Personal relations**	
C01	Fundamental rights/recognition	D01	Relationships within the couple/sexual, personal relationships
C02	Functioning of justice	D02	Family life/family relations
C03	Consultation/democracy	D03	Friendship/friendly relations
C04	Transparency/communication	D04	Relations within the neighbourhood
C05	Organisation, management, finances	D05	Relations at the workplace
C06	Access, information, contacts		

152. This list systematically includes all the indicators arising through application of the methodology proposed by the Council of Europe between 2006 and 2010. Each geographical area and collective entity in practice uses only some of them. Appended in the CD-Rom is a full description of these indicators in the main living environments concerned (areas, sectors, collective players).

E – Societal balance		F – Personal balance	
E01	Affirmation and transmission of identities and values	F01	Physical balance and health
E02	Courtesy, respect and tolerance	F02	Independence/freedom
E03	Solidarity, sharing knowledge and resources	F03	Time and balance between activities
E04	Social mixing/non-ghettoisation	F04	Mental/emotional balance
E05	Economic balance	F05	Spiritual life and religion
E06	Demographic balance	F06	Balance in relations with society
E07	Equity and social mobility	F07	Personal development
E08	Inclusion/exclusion		
E09	Peace/violence		
E10	Relations between society and environment		

G – Feelings of well-being/ill-being		H – Attitudes and initiatives	
G01	Self-esteem/shame	H01	Self-improvement/self-respect
G02	Satisfaction/frustration	H02	Private activities and initiatives
G03	Calmness/fear	H03	Sociability
G04	Stress/peace of mind	H04	Meeting/listening/showing solidarity
G05	Happiness/sadness	H05	Responsibility towards common goods
		H06	Commitment within civic life
		H07	Dynamism, collective will

Other validations and decisions on the next part of the process

As well as indicators of progress in well-being, the following should also be presented and validated with citizens:

- the evaluation grid for the criteria relating to the impact of action and activities (see above);
- the indicators of the state of resources and pressure on them, drawn up by the material assets working groups (if such groups have been set up).

These presentations and validations may take place at the same third meeting with the multi-profile groups, through a discussion in each group followed by collective discussion.

At the same time, the whole process and the next steps can be considered, and relevant opinions and suggestions collected. This may be followed by surveys (see below) in which the citizens present can be invited to take part. This has the advantage of maintaining the cohesion of the group which participated in the three meetings (the "lead group") and providing continuity as it is given the chance to assist the co-ordination group in leading the activity. There is even better reason for this in that these are the people who created the well-being indicators and will therefore be able to explain to survey respondents what the process is all about.[153]

153. Depending on local culture and practice, it may be worth issuing membership "certificates" to members of the lead group as acknowledgement of their membership of the group.

Dissemination

Both the activity and the indicators, once validated with participants, may be publicised and debated locally, and even with the media, with a broader invitation being issued to local people to join in the process. This also gives the lead group a chance to explain the potential benefits and describe the prospects opened up by the exercise.

3. Phase 3: measuring and evaluating the current situation

3.1. Evaluating the performance and relevance of existing activities

As already stated in the previous part, the performance in terms of achieving "sustainable well-being for all" (SWEBA) of any action/activity depends on both its impact on well-being and the pressure that it exerts on resources, particularly "critical" resources.[154]

- Impact assessment is based on the well-being or ill-being criteria, using the grid designed for this purpose (see section 2.2.b of this chapter). It is a joint effort by the lead groups/persons responsible for the action and the beneficiaries (with a minimum of one representative of each), the aim on each occasion being consensus, and with any comments likely to enrich and/or qualify the appraisal being noted.
- Pressure on "critical" resources is analysed using the consumption/disposal figures available (or to be collected).

Analysis of the relevance of the same action/activities (or policies) serves two purposes: to find out how relevant they are, first to the well-being situations of the persons concerned, and second to the sticking points and key elements of well-being. Both of these questions can be answered during impact assessment and using the same sheet (see the example below). The relevance or otherwise of the action is apparent from the impact assessment.

For a better understanding of the linkage between impact assessment and analysis of relevance see Table 513, based on assessment of an action in Cape Verde involving the fitting of tanks to collect rainwater on the roofs of a number of homes; here we consider two examples of indicators, one directly linked to the action (housing) and the other encompassing certain indirect impacts (health).

154. See section 3 of Chapter 3, Part 4.

Table 513 – Analysis of the impact and relevance of the fitting of rainwater collection tanks in Cape Verde, showing two indicators (health and housing)

Indicators	Results of indicators			Criteria	Assessment of the impact of the action in relation to each criterion		Assessment of the relevance of the action in terms of the indicator
	Bad or very bad situations	Is this a					
		sticking point?	key element?		Measurement[157]	Description of impact	
A2 – Health	Illness, poverty, without access to care	Yes, for anyone wanting to break out of the vicious circle of poverty	No	Absence of illness	+	Women no longer have to carry water for kilometres so are now free from back pain	High relevance, as it is the health of women who are poor and have difficulty accessing health care which has improved
				Access to health services	0		
				Availability of doctors	0		
				Availability of nurses	0		
				Access to treatment	0		
				Absence of discrimination in health care	0		
A3 –Housing	Overcrowded housing for one-parent families, without basic services	Yes, for anyone wanting to start a gainful activity	No	Housing without water supply	++	Direct effect of water tanks	Lower degree of relevance, as it is addressed to other types of families (greater relevance if this action is coupled with social housing)
				Housing without toilets	+	Makes it possible to have toilets	
				Housing without electricity	0		
				Housing without any garden	+	Makes watering possible	
				Overcrowded housing	0		
				Owned housing	0		

It is in practice impossible to assess all current action and policies, which is why a number need to be selected, particularly those of interest to the lead group and beneficiaries, with care being taken to ensure that the resulting sample is representative of all the different activities and players in the area (distributed among the various groups, associations and firms in different sectors).

Once these assessments have been completed, the co-ordination group produces a synopsis showing:

- where action and policies are complementary;
- the criteria and indicators which are the subject of too few replies where very bad or bad situations are concerned;
- the trends on which forward-looking analyses can be based.

These conclusions may be presented to and discussed with citizens.

155 . For the meaning of impact measurement and scoring, refer to Table 429 and to section 4 of Chapter 2, Part 4.

3.2. Measuring situations of well-being and ill-being

Individual surveys and collective approaches

The first use to which indicators are put is to measure situations of well-being and ill-being. The aim is to take measurements relating to the different situations (steps) so as to see how the population is distributed across the steps. For this purpose, a survey is made of a sample comprising persons representative of the local (or neighbourhood) population. Respondents are asked to specify, for each indicator, which of the five steps on the scale of meaning equates to their situation (very bad, bad, average, good or ideal). Experience has shown that there may be between 30 and 40 indicators, so the number of questions will be the same. Not only does this approach through "self-evaluation" facilitate data collection based on citizens' own perception, but it also involves survey participants in creating shared knowledge.

Participation by members of the lead group in the conduct of these surveys gives a strong boost to the elaborative process. It clears the way for shared knowledge within each homogeneous group of the social category that it represents.

Applied Survey Research (ASR) has conducted surveys in certain disadvantaged groups in the United States, carried out by people from the same groups, one example being homeless persons. This kind of approach is particularly useful for developing an elaborative process to build up knowledge about the situation of a given group that is shared by the same group and transmitted to others.

Representation of diversity can be ensured if each homogeneous group helps to identify the sample to be interviewed: this facilitates the conduct of the exercise in all social environments. Furthermore, this option keeps survey costs down.

In practical terms, this can be done at a fourth meeting with the citizens concerned. Assuming that they were asked, at the end of the third meeting, to consider how many each of them could interview, drawing up an initial list of names accompanied by basic information, the lists can be pooled at the fourth meeting to provide the complete sample. Its validity is then checked by a statistician through comparison with local figures, and adjustments and additions may be proposed to make it as representative as possible of the diversity of local situations, while keeping within sampling rules. Training in survey techniques may also be given at the fourth meeting, at which scheduling and any logistical methodological assistance that will be needed are also defined, and the deadlines for analysis and the production of findings are set.

The disadvantage for which this kind of method may be criticised is that the sample is not a random one. Adjustments to make it representative may offset this drawback, even if this means proposing an additional sample.[156] On the other hand, this approach strengthens the elaborative process by creating a third and broader circle of participants, the survey group, in addition to the lead group and the co-ordination group. Each respondent should be given an explanation of why the survey is being carried out, what has led up to it and what it is expected to achieve, so that they feel that they have a role to play; they should also be invited subsequently, perhaps during a more social event, to acquaint themselves with the findings and the discussions to which they have given rise.

156. Co-opting respondents rather than drawing names at random may lead to some bias in the sample. In order to clarify this issue, IWEPS intends to organise some surveys on random samples in municipalities which apply this approach, so the findings can be compared with those of surveys whose participants were co-opted by the lead group, as described in this guide. Analysis of the comparisons (an analysis which will be available only after this guide has been published) will enable more accurate pointers to be given in respect of sampling methods.

The precautions to be taken to keep data confidential depend on the individual local context. The co-ordination group may decide, for instance, to make surveys anonymous and to disseminate only consolidated statistical findings, etc. In most cases, however, this problem will not arise. On the contrary, in a spirit of willing participation, respondents agree to make their perceptions known and to exchange with others, provided that the object of the exercise has been made clear at the outset. Furthermore, the sharing of survey findings within a homogeneous group representing a given social category is another way of developing shared knowledge.

Self-evaluation of situations of well-being offers another opportunity to consolidate elaborative processes while increasing the numbers of citizens participating in them. IT resources can also be used successfully to generate a domino effect.

In the groups of municipalities in Brittany's Val d'Ille and the canton of Pipriac where work is being done on indicators of well-being for all, the municipal council decided to post its survey of well-being situations on its website, inviting citizens to reply online. This aroused greater interest and resulted in larger numbers of replies to the survey.

3.3. Analysing data

Data analysis is also intended to strengthen the elaborative process. The exercise will be all the easier if data collection was participatory and interactive. Respondents will be invited, as already indicated, to take a personal interest in the analysis of the results and the follow-up to the survey.

Statistical analysis and production of processed information

The processing proper, however, will gain from statisticians' support. Following initial processing, the results should be compared to existing statistics with a view to possibly supplementing the findings of the survey and pointing up areas needing verification through small-scale supplementary surveys.

In accordance with the conclusions of Part 4 of the guide and in relation to the dimensions of well-being, the next step is to:

- conduct a general statistical analysis for each indicator and social group, highlighting significant items;
- take stock of personal and social balances, overall and according to social category, so as to detect situations of imbalance;
- highlight those essential resources and living environment indicators which help to produce these imbalances, and ascertain which population groups are worst affected;
- seek explanations for imbalances in the other indicators, especially those concerning relations and participation;
- produce an initial report covering both the situations which are sticking points in a process of well-being for all, particularly in terms of disparities/imbalances, and the key elements which may set in motion virtuous circles towards well-being for all.[157]

In order to facilitate this technical work, software (ESPOIR) is available on the SPIRAL website and on the CD-Rom which comes with this guide.

157. The key elements are defined in Part 3 of the guide (see Figure 315) and the sticking points in Part 4 (Chapter 1, end of section 1).

Results should be presented as concisely as possible, showing:

1. the most important and significant findings;
2. the imbalances and sticking points;
3. the key elements of well-being.

Measurement and overview of situations concerning resources

On the basis of the table in Part 4 (Table 435), the use of resource-related indicators includes the following tasks:

1. measurement of state and pressure indicators and identification of "critical" resources;
2. definition of objectives in terms of action for "critical" resources, taking account of the findings;
3. definition of the deadlines for achieving these objectives (this is useful particularly when moving from action to action strategies and is therefore, in principle, dealt with in the subsequent phase).

This work does not involve specific participation by citizens and is a matter for the material assets working groups. However, validation of the results with citizens is vital before moving on to the subsequent phases of projection and comparison. There needs to be more detailed interpretation of the key elements of well-being for all and the sticking points identified during data analysis. Meetings, if possible held at the level at which the surveys were carried out, will provide an opportunity to discuss the results which emerge and supplement these.

4. Phase 4: planning and comparing

4.1. Improving the impact and relevance of existing activities

The assessment of impact and relevance is intended to initiate discussions about how to improve existing activities. This can be done at the same time as the assessment, with lead group members and beneficiaries being asked to consider how an action or policy could meet a wider range of criteria, for example giving thought to changes enabling the action concerned to have a positive impact on the criteria in respect of which its effects are nil or negative. The aim is to establish what changes should be made to trigger a positive effect.

In Mulhouse an assessment of the impact and relevance of action to combat obesity in disadvantaged families through education about diet and food shopping showed its positive impact on the dietary and health criteria which were its purpose and objective. Nevertheless, the manner in which it was conducted meant that it had little impact on other well-being criteria expressed by citizens, such as social cohesion, recognition, and so on. In order to increase impact on these criteria, rather than covering only education about shopping in conventional retail outlets (such as supermarkets), other possibilities were discussed, such as solidarity contracts for buying food from local producers. This shows how, by creating an opportunity for mutual acquaintance and solidarity, a single action can deal with the isolation which is one of the critical aspects of the well-being of disadvantaged families.

Another kind of improvement is a reduction of the pressure that the action brings to bear on resources. There is considerable scope for improvement here, as this aspect is not one usually taken into account.

Pressure on resources is affected not only by the action itself, but also by its effects. In the example already mentioned, the solidarity with local producers advocated during education about diet can help to reduce the distances travelled by the food products purchased by the beneficiaries of the action, bringing a reduction in greenhouse gas emissions.

Once this stage is behind us, the decision-making and commitment phase can begin (see phase 5 in Chapter 3, Part 3).

4.2. Forward-looking analysis

A synopsis of the assessment of impact and relevance can also be used for simple forward-looking exercises. It is certainly by analysing the elements on which action and policies generally have an effect (positive, negative or neutral) that certain general trends can be detected, as can their consequences if they continue.

If, for instance, businesses in the area are shedding staff, unemployment must be expected to rise.

This is a rather obvious example, but the aforementioned synopsis should make it possible to detect critical developments which it would be difficult to identify otherwise.

Lack of "recognition" (almost always the well-being criterion most referred to during exercises involving citizens) from certain collective players, of whatever kind (businesses, public institutions, etc.), whether suffered by certain categories of staff, beneficiaries or citizens in general, may give rise to "vicious circles" of ill-being which remain undiscovered until visible indicators emerge (an increase in the number of suicides or mental illnesses, for example).

However, these trends are only one of the elements to take into consideration when looking ahead. Account also needs to be taken of:

- general developments in the area: population, land occupation, economic activities, access routes, environment, etc;
- exogenous influences: changes in the national and international context, for instance;
- developments in terms of resources.

All these factors and all this information can simply be divided into four categories on the basis of SWOT analysis principles[158] to make them easier to grasp. Then the possible development of each over the next five or 10 years can be analysed in the light of past trends. In this way, the best and worst-case scenarios in terms of both the well-being or ill-being of residents and material assets can emerge.

Subsequently, the conclusions reached about sticking points and key elements of well-being can be reconsidered, with better account being taken of the relative importance of each to future challenges and risks.

In other words, the aim is to identify those to which priority consideration should be given in order to avoid worst-case scenarios and foster positive long-term development in the area.

In the context of an elaborative process, this forward-looking work has everything to gain from being participatory, particularly the identification of pilot activities conducive to an ideal scenario.[159]

4.3. Devising and carrying out shared responsibility pilot activities

Although phase 4 (planning and comparing) is not an action phase in the true sense (action comes more in phase 6 according to the pattern set out in this guide), pilot activities can be started during this phase to test new shared responsibility approaches in fields where experience needs to be developed before a fuller strategy

158. SWOT = Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats, see the note to Table 335.

159. In practice, the participatory forward-looking approach can take the following path: first, basic information is collected and organised by the co-ordination group with the help of working groups and/or experts, and then this information can be passed on to citizens, who are asked to consider it and say which items may affect their area's future. Once their replies have been summarised, a full range of scenarios from the best to the worst case is produced by the co-ordination group, which then puts these to the citizens concerned for validation/discussion, followed by reconsideration of the sticking points and key elements identified during the measuring and evaluating phase (phase 3) so as to decide which are priorities for the future. The final stage is to invite them to produce an initial theoretical ideal scenario with a view to sustainable well-being for all, and to consider shared responsibility pilot activities to refine the scenario, thus linking up with the subsequent tasks. To prevent a proliferation of meetings, it may be worth combining some of them with those of the previous phase. Participation must in all cases be maintained, with a clear view of the process as a whole being given every time.

is put forward. Thus small-scale trials can be carried out of certain tools which will be vital to strategies for achieving the desired societal progress. The tools to be created should both reduce disparities in terms of well-being and cut the use made of "critical" resources.

Pilot activities are a practical step following the elaborative processes begun with citizens to define well-being indicators, prior to the introduction of an action plan (phase 5). They are all the more important in view of the fact that, in many cases, citizen participation exercises produce no tangible results because of the difficulties of implementing complex strategies, leaving participants doubting the value of this kind of effort.

Taking shared responsibility for well-being for all as a starting point

The aim of pilot activities is to react to the sticking points and key elements identified in phase 3 and redefined during forward-looking analysis, for which experiments are necessary. Planning and implementing these activities require new forms of that shared responsibility which is the main driver of the virtuous circles of well-being and of society's active involvement in a process of progress (see Parts 3 and 4).

In the French city of Mulhouse, once the situation had been gauged and impact assessments conducted, emphasis was placed on devising and carrying out shared responsibility pilot activities on certain subjects identified as critical. This led to a particularly appropriate innovative approach in this city, where projects included "A whole neighbourhood to bring up a child", the Multipartite Social Contract,[160] "Shared responsibility for well-being for all in a lycée, in publicly owned firms, in the health sector", and "Shared responsibility in respect of consumption between citizens and the public and private sectors".

Incorporating the objective of non-use (or reduced use) of fossil fuels

This objective plays a key role in the planning and selection of pilot activities. It has to be squared with the analysis of sticking points and key elements, with a view to consolidating shared responsibility processes, in line with the ideas put forward in Part 3 of the guide.

A pilot activity to create employment through social cohesion in disadvantaged neighbourhoods might, for instance, be based on the aim of using fewer or no fossil fuels.

The Transition Towns movement offers a particularly interesting example in this respect, as it was started specifically to consider how to cope with the passing of peak oil production and to look ahead to what will be the most decisive factor in the next few decades: the need to stop using fossil fuels and reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Starting with discussions at local level, citizens go on, in partnership with municipalities and local businesses, to devise and implement a whole range of radically new solutions for meeting their needs without using non-renewable energy sources. The movement began in Ireland and is gradually spreading to other countries, enabling experience and know-how helpful to other areas' initiatives to be built-up over time with a view to a non-fossil-fuelled economy of well-being.

Other examples include local climate plans and climate groups, linked to, and often even encouraged by, local authorities, pursuing the same aims as Transition Towns.

160. The Multipartite Social Contract is a shared responsibility approach to social integration of persons experiencing exclusion, in any form (they may be unemployed, deep in debt, receiving zero or minimum income, or ex-convicts, for example). This approach, first mooted in the context of the European dialogue platform on ethical and solidarity-based initiatives for combating poverty and social exclusion, run by the Council of Europe and the European Inter-network of ethical and solidarity-based initiatives (IRIS), and first tried out in Strasbourg in 2006-07, then in Mulhouse, takes advantage of specific contributions by the various kinds of public and private players within the area, whether or not they specialise in social inclusion, and places beneficiaries at the same level of partnership and shared responsibility as the other players.

Drawing on and benefiting from other areas' achievements and experience

In more general terms, action in other regions provides inspiration; hence the importance of networking to facilitate information dissemination and exchanges.

Many networks are already helping to disseminate ideas for pilot activities, among them Transition Towns (already mentioned), CittàSlow, Sustainable Cities, various networks of ethical and solidarity-based initiatives and, of course, networks more specifically involved in elaborative processes with citizens and communities (the Community Indicators Consortium in the United States and the network of Territories of Co-responsibility in Europe).

Exchanges of knowledge within an area also promote creativity and innovation in terms of new pilot activities and shared knowledge-building. Knowledge exchange networks are being set up in France, both at local level and in living communities.[161]

Trying out new tools and levers for preparing action strategies

Some current experiments are suggesting new areas to explore which may be helpful in preparing action strategies.

A local "complementary currency" which coexists with the national one may help to strengthen both social cohesion and the local economy and to adapt prices to the "sustainable well-being performance" of the systems whereby goods and services are produced and distributed (this amounts to the taking into account for pricing purposes of external factors both social – based on well-being criteria – and environmental). Thus it is a means of giving a new boost to local demand, giving rise to new jobs for those who have been excluded from the labour market during a situation of economic crisis and unemployment.[162]

Prior evaluation and fine-tuning the development of new activities

Analysis of "sustainable well-being performance" can be used as a basis for prior evaluation of pilot activities, both for selection purposes and for gearing their planning to objectives. Prior analysis of impact on each well-being or ill-being criterion will ascertain the complementarities needed and the improvements to be made to reduce disparities, situations of ill-being and pressure on "critical" resources.

Such analysis of all pilot activities makes it possible to identify and turn to advantage possible synergy between new activities and those already under way. Analysis of "sustainable well-being performance" is a vital tool during the planning of pilot activities.

4.4. Defining possible scenarios and the ideal scenario

Fundamental principles

Pilot activities take time, sometimes several years, to have any real impact. Account must be taken of this when defining what is realistically possible and what could be the aim in an ideal situation.

If we work out the ideal scenario for the objectives of well-being for all, including future generations, in the light of the given area's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, this gives us something on which to base pilot activities and subsequent action plans.

161. Article (in French only) about knowledge exchange networks (http://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reseau_d'echanges_reciproques_de_savoirs).

162. Two sites which can be visited to find out more about "complementary currencies" are http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Complementary_currency and http://complementarycurrency.org/links.php.

As stated in Chapter 3 of Part 2, different approaches are adopted by groups of citizens when they give thought to their community's future, approaches which are fairly well structured and widespread, many based on the Future Search[163] *techniques developed in the US and then taken up in various other countries. These techniques are based on an agreed scenario derived from a shared vision of the future (drawing on a simple open question: "What do you think your community will be like in 10 or 20 years?"), which can then be used to define an action plan and commitments.*

Formalisation of the objective of well-being for all and its translation into indicators worked out with citizens (including its non-material dimensions) in order to analyse current situations and grasp how far there is still to go to achieve an ideal situation in terms of societal progress requires forward-looking thinking based on principles of equity, reduced disparities and sustainability.

Similarly, affirmation of well-being for all including future generations (without using "critical" resources) means that the ideal scenario is based on an ambitious plan which, while it may initially seem to be a utopian vision, best reflects the challenges of our century and makes individual and collective ambitions meaningful.

The ideal scenario will benefit if it, too, is devised by participatory means.

Determination of quantified objectives with specific deadlines

When an ideal scenario is defined, some objectives are quantified and deadlines set for achieving them. These relate in particular to the use of "critical" resources, for this determines society's future capacity to ensure well-being for all. It is therefore vital to quantify the reduction in their use (cuts in, for example, greenhouse gas emissions), providing a basis for the determination of specific quantified objectives for the ideal scenario as a whole.

4.5. Devising an action strategy

An ideal scenario, with quantified objectives spread over a period of time, leads to the decision-making and commitment phase (phase 5 of the process), as targets are specified and local participants and citizens have an opportunity to set out their commitments and define complementarities between their activities.

However, we need to give thought to the conditions in which the ideal scenario will be feasible before we move on to this fifth phase (which will be dealt with in Chapter 3). Its achievement in practice depends on effective involvement of participants and citizens, including public authorities and all who hold decision-making power. There is no guarantee of commitment, even if the process has been conducted through consultation and participation. And some things depend on decisions and policies at levels other than the local one. In practice, we find that elaborative processes built up with citizens and communities often come up against certain difficulties in moving on from intentions to commitment and actual implementation.

Hence, the need to devise an action strategy[164] which is progressive, so that stakeholders effectively become involved. This is certainly the most delicate part of the process, requiring clear identification of the tools which will facilitate the integration of societal progress objectives into the decisions of participants in the area concerned: public authorities, businesses and citizens.

163. See www.futuresearch.net and www.sfnan.org.

164. A distinction is made between action strategy and action plan: a strategy sets out the main lines relating to key issues, without specifying substance or the various players' commitments, whereas an action plan describes the lines and implementation of the strategy and each individual's commitments and responsibilities. It is thus the product of phase 5 (commitment and decision making), while the action strategy is the outcome of phase 4 (planning and comparing).

Thus, a number of key issues have to be identified, on which the consultation and mobilisation processes need to be focused more specifically. Here we come to the second level of elaborative processes, that of specific issues and sectors, dealt with in the next chapter.

5. Conclusion

In line with the objectives of this fifth and final part, this first chapter has looked at ways of ensuring dynamic elaborative processes which are inclusive, offer incentives and are easily transferable. We have seen how the process should gradually be extended to greater numbers of participants and residents, starting with the setting up of the co-ordination group, moving on to the homogeneous and multi-profile groups of citizens, then to the group of persons surveyed – also taking account of project beneficiaries and promoters (self-evaluation of the impact of existing activities) – and finally to the working groups on specific issues.

In this process, participants' activities and roles interlink with a view to a complete process from initial mobilisation to the devising of an action strategy and action plan, as shown in Table 514.

Table 514 – Recapitulation of forms of participation in the first four phases of the process

Phases	Tasks	Co-ordination group	Homogeneous and multi-profile groups	Group of persons surveyed	Beneficiaries and promoters of projects and activities	Specialised working groups
Phase 1	1.1. Beginning the process	Mobilisation by the instigators				
	1.2. Co-ordination structure	Setting up				Setting up of material assets working groups
	1.3. Mobilisation of citizens	Contacts with citizens	Setting up of groups			
Phase 2	2.1. Definition of the objective of well-being	Leadership of meetings with citizens	Collection of well-being criteria and overview			
	2.2. Building of indicators	Building of well-being indicators				Decision to create indicators of state of resources and pressure on them
	2.3. Validation/ dissemination	Leadership of meetings	Validation of indicators			Validation of indicators

	3.1. Evaluation of activities under way	Organisation and leadership			Subsequent self-evaluation of impact on well-being criteria	Subsequent evaluation of pressure on "critical" resources
Phase 3	3.2. Measuring situations	Co-ordination of surveys	Invitation to conduct surveys	Self-evaluation based on questionnaires		Measurement/collection of data indicating the state of resources and pressure on them
	3.3. Analysis of results	Analyses with statisticians' support				Identification of "critical" resources
	3.4. Dissemination/discussion of results	Leadership of meeting	Discussion and analysis of sticking points and key elements of well-being			Validation of results
Phase 4	4.1. Improvement of existing activities				Joint consideration	Support for efforts to find ways of reducing pressure on "critical" resources
	4.2. Forward-looking analysis	Forward-looking analysis of well-being	Group work on: – future scenarios – shared responsibility pilot activities – an ideal scenario			Forward-looking analysis of "critical" resources
	4.3. Devising and carrying out of pilot activities	Integration of pilot activity leaders into co-ordination group			Prior self-evaluation of impact on well-being criteria	Prior evaluation of pressure on "critical" resources and proposed ways of reducing this
	4.4. Definition of ideal scenario	Finalisation of ideal scenario				Quantification of objectives and deadlines where "critical" resources are concerned
	4.5. Preparation of action strategy	Finalisation of action strategy and of key problem identification; support for setting up of corresponding working groups	Discussion of action strategy and invitation to players and citizens to take part in working groups on key issues			Setting up of working groups on key issues

Chapter 2 – Methods of conducting elaborative processes relating to the other levels

As stated in the previous chapter, it is discussion on which action strategy to adopt so as to achieve the ideal scenario that shapes the decision on which problems to deal with in a given area. The response to each problem corresponds to a new cycle of progress. And these same cycles may be created within collective players. This chapter will look at these two levels of the progress process (problems and collective players), at this stage only in the first four phases (structuring the process, defining progress, measuring and evaluating, planning and comparing). These four lead to phase 5 (decision making and commitment), which, according to the logic of this guide, should relate to the three proposed levels of intervention (area, problem, player). This is why the four remaining phases (decision making and commitment, action, subsequent evaluation, capitalisation) are dealt with in respect of all three levels in Chapter 3.

As the general methodological principles set out in the previous chapter also apply in both the cases just mentioned, we shall in this chapter look only at the complementary methodological aspects needed to understand how to proceed at these two levels.

1. Specific issues

Bearing in mind the fact that the indicators of progress in well-being are intended to show both the discrepancies in well-being situations and ways of improving conditions for those for whom they are worst, elaborative processes at this level particularly relate to:

- improvement of the conditions in which those who are socially marginalised live; ASR in the United States works with citizens to identify the problems encountered by certain marginal groups within the community (homeless persons, pregnant girls, etc.), to which collective reactions are needed;
- improvement of services in individual sectors such as health, education, transport, etc., with a view to making access equitable; action on well-being in one sector makes the extent of differences clearer and leads to the involvement of participants directly concerned by the well-being generated by sectoral activities;
- improvement of the management of shared assets (land, water, the historic heritage, landscapes), also with a view to social and environmental equity and to shared awareness of their value and the need to pass them on to future generations;
- improvement of inter-sectoral links so as to deal more appropriately with the multidimensionality of well-being indicators.

We shall thus analyse the features of this kind of process, phase by phase, with a view to inclusiveness, incentives and a transferable methodological reference framework. One of the main methodological questions is the interlinkage between specific processes within an area. Interlinking is frequently impeded by questions of prerogative, hierarchy, sectoral organisation, and so on. While the building of indicators for the area concerned may make things easier, for example by showing the links which actually exist between specific and sectoral action for well-being for all, proper attention must be given to the subject. Some of the ideas vital to such an exercise will be considered in this chapter.

1.1. Phase 1: structuring the process

a. Starting the process and defining its framework

The group of instigators

An elaborative process relating to one sector, theme or problem may derive from a process in a given area, as described in the previous chapter. This case could be described as ideal, interlinkage being certain from the outset. Nevertheless, such a process may also stem from a specific discussion, as very often happens for initiatives in response to urgent problems, without being part of a more general approach to well-being. In the first case, the instigators of the process may join the area's co-ordination group, while in the second, the relationship between instigators and area co-ordination remains an open question.

The reference context

The reference context encompasses all the participants in a single geographical entity affected by or involved in the action, such as homeless persons, a city's health sector, the children in a particular neighbourhood, and so on.

In the French city of Mulhouse, an elaborative process was begun on the theme of "A whole neighbourhood to bring up a child" so as to develop shared responsibility (by families, schools and neighbourhood residents) for bringing up the children of a part of the town which had difficulties. A project on a theme (bringing up children) was based in a clearly defined geographical area (the part of the city known as Les Coteaux). Following the pilot experiment, this process will then be able to be extended to other parts of the city.

Clearly, every player within the neighbourhood had some kind of involvement, being either directly or indirectly concerned by the children's situation.

Positioning the process

The motivation for setting up elaborative processes needs to be clear from the outset, as does the interlinkage with other processes and with the area. At all events, reference to well-being for all is essential, especially to prevent action from being confined to sectoral objectives or to a single aspect of the condition of the persons concerned, particularly where weaker groups are concerned.

Finding institutional, financial and methodological support

This kind of process needs the backing of existing knowledge and expertise. Close links need to be established between the co-ordination group and the holders of expertise. It is also vital to involve the participants who control resources and have decision-making powers in the field dealt with, while endeavouring to extend the circle of citizens, whose growing awareness may change their perception of responsibility for the problem area concerned. As the example already quoted shows, neighbourhood residents will gain a better understanding, and feel more supportive, of certain distressed social groups, the management of the shared heritage, the reduction of CO_2 emissions, etc.

Where a public policy or the public interest is concerned, the involvement of public authorities in both mobilisation and the provision of expertise is essential.

b. Setting up a consultation structure

Since, in many cases, the problems to be dealt with concern a large number of individual and collective players, the co-ordination group should include them as well as beneficiaries/users in the broadest possible sense.

In its European Landscape Convention, the Council of Europe for example advocates the establishment of "procedures for the participation of the general public, local and regional authorities, and other parties with an interest in the definition and implementation of … landscape policies".

The numbers and categories of persons concerned obviously vary, depending on the scope of the subject. Taking landscape as an example, this number may be very high and include, as well as residents, all other users, such as managers of tourist activities, hunters, stockbreeders, etc.

c. Mobilising citizens

There are at least two reasons why it can be easier to mobilise citizens in respect of a specific problem or sector:

- the first is that it is easier to identify categories and roles;
- the second is that the problem is more tangible and immediate than the general aim of well-being for all, and may be more motivating and of greater interest in the short term.

Channels of mobilisation

Institutions, networks and specialised organisations may provide an efficient channel for mobilising all the kinds of players concerned. In the same way as for areas, participants can be organised first in homogeneous groups, then in multi-profile groups.

Information about the context, content and goal of the exercise
– The key concept of shared responsibility

Two kinds of information need to be presented and discussed, either at the stage at which citizens are mobilised or when homogeneous groups are set up:

- the exercise's *raison d'être*: Why take the participatory approach? What place does the exercise have in a process of societal progress for the well-being of all? How then is the question of shared responsibility to be dealt with?
- technical or specialist information useful for understanding the issues relating to the problem; such information may be supplied as the need arises, so it is worth establishing co-operation with or including in the co-ordination group specialists familiar with the challenges associated with the field concerned, and relying on the institutional expertise that exists.

1.2. Phase 2: defining progress

a. Defining the objective specific to the subject/sector

In line with the approach described in Part 4, the progress objective is defined by obtaining from the persons concerned the three relevant types of criteria, relating to the objective itself, to its opposite and to what is or could be done to move towards the objective.

At the local health monitoring centre in the French city of Mulhouse, four questions were put to approximately 150 people from two neighbourhoods: "What does being in good health mean to you?", "What does being in poor health mean to you?", "What do you or can you do to be in good health?" and "What do you need in order to be in good health?".

The answers provided a more detailed insight into the inequalities brought to light by the progress indicators during the city-wide exercise, and inspired a discussion of the impact of health policy on the population.

Similarly, it is very beneficial to conduct complementary exercises on the well-being indicators whenever an activity is to be started with a group which has quite specific characteristics.

In the "A whole neighbourhood to bring up a child" project already mentioned, the first step was to put three of the same questions to the children to find out how they defined well-being. This was done in their schools, with homogeneous groups set up in each class.

A subject may, however, need to be tackled because problems relating to a specific social group have been identified by conventional indicators.

With ASR in the United States leading the way, elaborative processes and practical activities have been started following the identification of social problems highlighted by conventional indicators, one example being teenage pregnancies in certain social categories: citizens took action on this problem.

Even in such a case, where the issue to be dealt with has been clearly identified and delineated, putting questions about their well-being to the teenage girls concerned is a way of helping them to take a broader view of their marginalisation and distress (allowing for every component of their ill-being and well-being), to take a step back and to look beyond this stage of their life.

Under the Multipartite Social Contract (MSC) approach developed by the Council of Europe, which is addressed to persons in specific difficulties (debt, unemployment, imprisonment, etc.), the same three questions are put to beneficiaries in order to evaluate the impact of the process on them, focusing not on the problem which affected their lives, but on their well-being.

b. Building indicators

Indicators of societal progress

In the case analysed here, progress indicators may be of two kinds:

- they may relate to the contribution of the problem under study to the objective of well-being for all;
- they may relate to the objectives specific to them.

The first indicators are drawn up using the method already described (Part 4 and Part 5, Chapter 1).

The health progress indicators defined with citizens from Mulhouse show how strong the relationship is between health and the myriad aspects of well-being, including in the listening, communicating and sharing dimensions.

The second indicators, which tend to be quantitative, may be produced using a scale of meaning, although they may simply be selected from those which already exist. At a later date, once an action strategy has been defined, the scale of meaning takes on the tangible form of quantified objectives.

In the United States, ASR is working on a method whereby quantitative indicators are selected by citizens to define the general objectives of progress (phase 2), and not until phase 4 (planning and comparing, the equivalent of stage 8 in their

process) are quantified objectives collectively agreed for these indicators, which equates to giving them a two-step scale of meaning (see Table 335).

Grid for analysing the impact of activities

Impact analysis grids are drawn up using the same principles as described for the area level.

c. Validation and preparation for the next step

As for the area level, indicators need to be validated by participants meeting in multi-profile groups.

1.3. Phase 3: measuring and evaluating the situation that exists

The principles, tasks and approaches for this phase are similar to those used at area level, the only difference being that the criteria and indicators specific to the subject are used as well as those established at area level.

The measurements and evaluations thus made provide more detail than achieved at area level about the issue or sector concerned, and illustrate the relationship between it and the multidimensionality of well-being.

When for example in the health sector the indicators are simply specific questions on that subject, there is a risk of a merely sectoral viewpoint which ignores all the interaction with other material and non-material components of well-being. Hence, the recommendation from the World Health Organization (WHO) that a comprehensive approach to health be taken through well-being.

Similarly, tackling the problem of a disadvantaged group without considering its societal context brings a risk of merely curative action. Here again, targeted approaches benefit from being part of a vision of well-being, included as complementary elements of an area's elaborative process.

1.4. Phase 4: planning and comparing

a. Improving existing activities

What has just been said is also true here. In practice, analyses of impact and possible improvement make use of criteria laid down at area level (where these exist), then, more specifically, those which relate to the subject under study.

b. Producing forward-looking analyses

Forward-looking analyses of a subject also help to flesh out forward-looking exercises relating to the area.

c. Devising and carrying out shared responsibility pilot activities

Since pilot activities provide lessons about shared responsibility, links between them and a more general approach to well-being in an area will lead to results being put to good use and transferred.

d. Defining the desirable/ideal scenario for the sector

Similarly, the main aim is to define the ideal scenario for the sector or the specific problem area.

e. Preparing an action strategy

Developing tools

As already noted in respect of area level, creation of the ideal scenario presupposes that certain vital tools are developed. This is easier to do for a sector or a problem area.

Sharing responsibilities between participants

Once the preceding phases have been completed, the responsibilities of each participant can be agreed. This distribution can thus give rise to a cycle of progress within each group concerned by the specific issue (link with the third level of cycles of progress). That is how elaborative processes can develop within them. This is the subject of the next section.

2. The collective players level

In this section we shall look at collective players (businesses, public services, schools, and so on), as we try to reconcile their own aims (namely, their vocation or societal function: a school's educational function, a firm's performance) with the well-being of the persons involved (those who work there and/or benefit therefrom), as stated in Chapter 3 of Part 3.

This guide has so far confined itself largely to analysing well-being for all involved within a given entity, somewhat neglecting the links with its societal function, at least in formal terms. This is mainly because an interrelationship of this kind is not immediate and can be ascertained only during ad hoc discussion. This relationship must nevertheless be explored, particularly in the context of analysis of well-being in an area, since the two are inseparable.

The Stracel company in the French city of Strasbourg was the first to develop an elaborative process for the well-being of all based on the Council of Europe's method, initially with the aim of trying to reconcile the objective of well-being within the company with that of economic performance. As the approach was focused on well-being for all, several indicators relating to this kind of reconciliation emerged, as can be seen from Table 521.

Table 521 – The 24 indicators of well-being within a firm, placed in order by the workers themselves according to positive or negative level of evaluation

More satisfactory

Individual	Team	Firm	Society
What goes beyond duty	*Team spirit and solidarity*	*Belonging*	
What relates to duty	*Respect and tolerance in human relations*	*Living environment*	
Interesting nature of work	*Information sharing*	*Adaptation, empowerment, implementation*	
Workplace	*Relations with others*		
Personal development, self-fulfilment			
Personal balance in relation to required workload	*Consultation*	*Peace of mind about the future*	*Balance between working and social life*
Pay		*Services provided by the firm*	*Balance between family and working life*
		Assistance and support in the working environment	
		Recognition	
		Definition and listing of objectives	

Less satisfactory

This example[165] shows that it is necessary to take account of certain imbalances, both internal (between personal balance and workload) and external (vis-à-vis family and social commitments) when reconciling performance and well-being objectives. Other aspects vital to reconciliation also emerged (over and above the question of pay), such as recognition and the management of hierarchical relations (consultation through dialogue; definition and listing of objectives, etc.). However, as no ad hoc work had been done on the societal function of the firm, indicators regarding its relations with its area have not been produced.

The promotion of reconciliation between groups' or institutions' objectives and the well-being of the persons concerned is an area to be explored in detail, especially as the question of hierarchical relations arises within such structures, and it is their organisation that determines such matters as whether initiatives can be taken and responsibility exercised, all of which are decisive for well-being.

Elaborative processes may be the starting point for identification of the aspects of well-being which require reconciliation. All the more so for the fact that these structures, in the same way as a local geographical entity, are an area of life shared among different persons and roles: the workers of a firm at every level of responsibility; the pupils, teachers and maintenance staff of a school; the doctors, nurses, nursing auxiliaries, maintenance staff and administrative staff of a hospital, and so on, and that consultations between them are essential

165. The full results of this project, including an action plan devised following the exercise, are on the CD-Rom accompanying this guide.

to well-being for all. It would nevertheless be highly beneficial, insofar as is possible, to extend the process to players who have different kinds of links with the entity or institution but are not formally part of it, such as external decision-making bodies (the education department responsible for services), the users of a medical facility, suppliers, etc.

Processes within entities or institutions are different from those within geographical areas in that:

- account is taken of the collective entity's own objectives (its societal vocation): the question is raised of reconciling these objectives with that of well-being for all who share a given living environment;
- the persons concerned have specific roles within the collective entity: employees (with some differences between managerial and other staff), teachers, students, service staff, etc. This has implications when the co-ordination group and homogeneous groups are set up, and some room for manoeuvre is needed when adjusting management machinery and internal relations in order to overcome hierarchical obstacles to voicing opinion about well-being for all;
- the number and status of the persons to be included are known, making it easier to get them involved but more importantly to comply with the principles of participation by every hierarchical level and the rules on confidentiality.

This being so, we shall now study the different phases of the process.

2.1. Phase 1: structuring the process

a. Starting the process and defining its framework

The group of instigators

The instigator may be from within or outside the collective entity or institution. In every case, interest and support must be obtained from the management or senior members of staff, including from the perspective of the entity or institution's own objectives.

It was a teacher at Mulhouse's Lycée Albert Schweitzer who persuaded the head teacher to test within the school the approach already applied in the city.

Specifying the reference context

The reference context is the entity or institution itself. If this is too small, however, it may be worth grouping together several which have the same function, are of the same nature, are located in the same neighbourhood or belong to a single network or sector.

In Paris, for instance, several micro-firms and small firms from the Paris Développement Durable network got together to develop an elaborative process on well-being indicators, with members from the different firms forming first homogeneous and then multi-profile groups to devise common indicators.

The greatest involvement possible of external players with whom a special or strategic link exists enriches the process.

If a business produces goods and services for local use, it will be particularly relevant to include users of the goods or services, especially if loyalty and solidarity have been built up.

b. Setting up of a co-ordination structure

The co-ordination group is representative of the skills and roles within the entity or institution, and possibly those of key external players.

A French example is a Strasbourg restaurant with a social/solidarity and rehabilitation/training function called "Les 7 Pains", where the co-ordination group is made up of representatives of trainees, supervisory staff and the restaurant's customers. This wide representation makes it possible to work on shared responsibility for the well-being of each category (not just those undergoing rehabilitation), extending beyond the strict limits of the business and including those having regular links with it, either as customers or as employees.

c. Getting people involved

The homogeneous groups will correspond to the different functions or roles within the structure or relating to it: in the case of a firm, for example, there will be homogeneous groups of workers (according to occupational category), managerial staff, customers, suppliers, shareholders, members (if an association is involved), etc. In a school, there will be differentiation between teachers, pupils, administrative staff, maintenance staff, and perhaps pupils' parents.

Staff involvement is usually more easily achieved than getting people involved at area level, although serious problems may occur in respect of the availability of time, the rigidity of hierarchical relations – as already indicated – and the way in which some people defend their own interests (for example, shareholders against workers).

Thus, it can happen that an entity's or institution's *modus operandi* makes it difficult to set up homogeneous groups. One case which arose was that of a transport company whose drivers tended to be away from their base. The same kind of difficulties occur in hospitals, where the working hours and workload of some categories of staff (nurses, nursing auxiliaries) make it impossible to gather them together. Alternative solutions have to be found, with meetings being held at specific times, such as outside working hours. It is always possible to use individual surveys, but much of the collective nature of the process is thereby lost.

2.2. Phase 2: defining progress

a. Collecting criteria

Complying with any wishes for confidentiality

Criteria are collected from the different homogeneous groups, as in the approach already suggested for geographical areas, on the basis of the three questions: "What does well-being mean to you?", "What does ill-being mean to you?" and "As a citizen, what do you, or can you do to ensure your own well-being or well-being for all?"[166]

When the process takes place on a small scale, there is often a wish among some people or even a whole homogeneous group to preserve confidentiality. In such cases, this wish must be respected, especially when the context does not necessarily lend itself to complete trust.

166. The question often arises of whether well-being within the collective entity is meant, or well-being in general. This is left for the co-ordination group to decide, according to the context in which the process is taking place. It nevertheless always seems more beneficial to take account of well-being in general, as there is a lot of interaction between life inside and outside the collective entity (reconciliation between working and family life, parents' support for the children they are bringing up, diet at home and at school, etc.).

Mulhouse's zoo and botanical garden, where an exercise was conducted in 2009, is an entity with a wide variety of categories of staff, some of whom have little contact with each other, including zookeepers, administrative staff and employees in contact with the public. Some of these categories made confidentiality a condition for taking part.

Well-being for all within a collective entity

When the exercise is carried out in a circumscribed area, its impact is fairly immediate and visible. Experiments in different kinds of collective entity (firms, schools, hospitals, public services, etc.) showed the usefulness of the exercise in identifying sources of ill-being. Particularly so when these are connected with poorly defined or unpopular hierarchical relations, with inconsistent or unclear instructions, with lack of recognition for effort or ideas contributed, with mutual prejudice and misunderstanding (between teachers and students, for instance), etc. By initiating dialogue about ill-being and well-being which goes beyond hierarchical boundaries, the process helps to break deadlocks and take a detailed look at issues of relations and the balance between working and family or civic life, between expectations and results, etc. Thus it creates scope for action, particularly in the organisational and relational spheres.

At the Mulhouse zoo and botanical garden, a "relation with superiors" indicator led to several activities: "continuing meetings with colleagues and superiors and being allowed to request these when necessary"; "holding consultation meetings"; "being able to take a project right to its end"; "communicating more about future projects", etc. (see the whole action plan and charter of ethics of the zoo and botanical garden in the files on the CD-Rom).

The process opens up considerable scope for improvements, particularly in situations where there is a strong feeling of ill-being.

One of the reasons which led the head teacher of the Lycée Albert Schweitzer in Mulhouse to take an interest in the method was the difficulty of solving numerous problems arising from pupils' own conditions and their relations with each other and with the school. The files on the CD-Rom include the indicators produced within the school and proposals for action; a video is also available[167] *which shows the benefits of the process and of transferring it to other schools.*

The link between well-being within collective entities and at area level should be explored next with a view to a better understanding, consideration being given to such questions as how to improve pupils' well-being or lessen their ill-being within an area or a neighbourhood and how the improvement of well-being within structures might have an impact on well-being in more general terms.

Collective players' societal functions and responsibilities

The role of a collective entity in society (that is, its societal function) is a subject rarely mentioned, and by exploring it we can provide new meaning and a feeling of belonging and sharing which may facilitate a shared responsibility approach within the structure itself.

It is, however, not always easy to discuss this subject:

- because definition of the role of the collective entity is generally thought to be a matter solely for its leaders, officials or owners;
- and because the collective entity's role is implicit, and the benefits of making it more explicit are unclear.

How then to assert the advantages of such a discussion? Embarking on a process of defining well-being criteria and indicators is a good starting point for a discussion of societal function. But it is difficult to tackle this

167. See www.telecampus.fr/archives.php?annee=2008&video=1.

question in isolation if it is not viewed as part of a wider process of societal progress. The societal function of a school, for instance, may be specified through clarification of the education that society expects it to provide. The process is thus one which establishes links between exchanges within the collective entity and those outside.

When indicators of well-being for all were devised with the citizens of the Romanian city of Timişoara there was a high percentage of ill-being criteria based on relations between citizens and public institutions, and measurements of the indicators provided by the subsequent survey then confirmed this situation. This highlighted the need to redefine both the well-being of persons working in public institutions and the perception of their societal functions and responsibilities. The logical continuity of the exercise – as advocated in this guide – has not been possible to date, mainly because of the difficulty of having a free discussion of the societal function of such entities. Timişoara is not the only example: it is often difficult to speak of people's well-being in relation to an institution and its societal function.

Such processes will be able to improve structures' capacity for change for the sake of the well-being of both their staff and the public (particularly where these structures provide services). To take this aspect further, one so essential to the progress of well-being for all, citizens can be involved in processes whereby expectations of collective players are defined.

Open questions should provide the basis here, too, for they facilitate free expression of ideas by participants and give rise to different perspectives on the functions and responsibilities of a structure at the same time as thought is being given to how to define each more precisely. A recognition of multifunctionality may lead entities and institutions to a better evaluation of their performance and their impact on the well-being of all within an area.

The Les 7 Pains restaurant in Strasbourg already referred to above has thus highlighted its multiple functions: integration through employment, supply of quality food, preservation of the local culinary culture and support for local producers.

An easy way of formalising these open questions is to use the letter X to represent the kind of collective entity concerned (an X may be a producer of goods or services, a school, a hospital, an outpatient centre, a public service, etc.) and put the following three questions about it: "In your view, what is an X that is functioning well?", "In your view, what is an X that is functioning poorly?", and "What can or do you do to get it to function better?"

In Cape Verde the exercise was carried out with each community's CDA (community development association). These associations bring together all residents (or least one person per family) to deal with local problems, and especially to combat poverty in a spirit of solidarity. Putting the three questions to residents in homogeneous groups ("In your view, what is a CDA that is functioning well?", "In your view, what is a CDA that is functioning poorly?", and "What can or do you do to get it to function better?") enabled a number of criteria to be identified on the basis of which it was possible to build progress indicators for each CDA.

These three questions enable a diverse set of criteria to be collected, including positive ones relating to expectations of the collective entity and negative ones relating to undesirable effects, including for future generations.

Taking a firm as an example, it is possible to express and take into account criteria relating to its different functions (production of certain goods and services, job creation, social cohesion, etc.), others concerning good or poor management, internal democracy, corruption, etc., and damaging effects in terms of pollution, adverse consequences for health, and so on.

b. The building of indicators

Situation indicators

The building of progress indicators follows the process already described in Part 4 and the previous chapter, especially where personal well-being is concerned. The CD-Rom includes indicators of progress in well-being which have been built up within various collective entities using the Council of Europe methodology.

These progress indicators need to be able to be supplemented by others, based on criteria relating to societal functions and responsibilities. Here again it is possible to define for each indicator a scale of progress ranging from very bad to ideal. Experiments carried out to date have not gone far enough for really specific conclusions to be drawn in this respect.

The example of community development associations (CDAs) in Cape Verde, however, highlights the need to define new families of progress indicators where collective players are concerned. Seven have been identified for CDAs: resources (human, physical, financial, knowledge), links and partnerships within and outside the community, organisation/management, democracy and governance, objectives and activities, results and performance).[168] *Other experiments will make the relevance of this classification clearer, as well as the adjustments that need to be made for different entities and contexts.*

The integration into the collective player indicators of the various dimensions of the well-being of the persons involved and those concerning societal functions and responsibilities makes it possible to consider progress in terms of reconciliation between these different objectives, although they may initially seem contradictory.

The case of Minamata (Japan) described in Part 1 of this guide, where the firm's performance had an extremely damaging effect not only on the well-being of the public and its own workers, but also on the whole local environment, provides an illuminating example. The consequences of the disaster caused by the firm led people to look at the question of progress in different terms, seeking to reconcile the needs of economic development (jobs, income) with well-being for all, including future generations. Using the three questions to review the progress criteria would enable the foundations of this necessary reconciliation to be expressed in practical terms.

Insofar as the need to reduce pressure on "critical" resources is properly taken into account in the criteria, the collective entity's progress indicators are closely comparable with indicators of progress towards a "sustainable well-being performance", as defined in section 3.1 of Chapter 3, in Part 4. This presupposes that the exercises whereby criteria are identified through the answers to the aforementioned three questions were carried out in full knowledge of the facts. The people of Minamata, whose lives and health suffered the consequences of a failure to take into account the effects of mercury pollution of seawater, included this fact in the progress criteria for the firm concerned. But what if some production systems' damaging effects are ignored? Unlike exercises on well-being based primarily on the individual's experience, those relating to the good or poor functioning of collective players thus require a certain amount of preparation in terms of information and knowledge of the implications of the choices that may be made.

Grid for analysing the performance of activities

In the same way as an analysis grid relating to the impact of activities is drawn up in geographical areas on the basis of their own criteria for well-being, it is possible to establish a grid for a collective entity (on the basis of

168. The procedure is the same as that used for indicators of progress in well-being, with adapted ESPOIR software (ESPOIR CAD) to take account of the new families of indicators and interaction between them. See appendix in the CD-Rom and https://spiral.cws.coe.int/tiki-list_file_gallery.php?galleryId=16.

the criteria relating both to the well-being of the persons concerned and to societal functions and responsibilities) with a view to analysing possible shared responsibility activities to be set up within it.[169]

Here again, if reduction of pressure on resources, especially "critical" resources, is properly taken into account in the criteria, the grid becomes de facto one for analysing the "sustainable well-being performance" of the collective entity's action/activities.

2.3. Phase 3: measuring and evaluating

a. Measuring situations

The same principles as for the other levels are applied during this phase.

As the number of people concerned is smaller, it is easy to carry out comprehensive surveys relating to indicators of progress in well-being, offering greater reliability and accuracy than sample-based surveys. It is therefore very unlikely that situations of ill-being will be overlooked. On the other hand, as the people know each other, caution is called for in terms of confidentiality. The subject needs to be discussed in advance, so that the way in which results will be processed, presented and validated is mutually agreed.

The indicators of progress in societal functions and responsibilities which are qualitative should be evaluated with representatives of all the bodies concerned. Quantitative indicators can easily be measured using existing data.

b. Measurement of performance and of the relevance of activities in the collective entity

The analysis grid used to measure the "sustainable well-being performance" of action/activities is a particularly useful management tool for both internal and external use, and for evaluation after the event (*ex post*), during the preparatory stage (*ex ante*) or while an action/activity is in progress. Measurements can, furthermore, be participatory, supplementing more conventional forms of monitoring.

In the same way as for a geographical area, performance analysis can be supplemented by an analysis of relevance for each activity individually and for all of them collectively, in the light of situation measurements.

2.4. Phase 4: planning and comparing

The measurements referred to above provide information for use in analysing the adjustments needed to ensure progress in well-being within collective entities and institutions.

To this end, the procedure set out below could be followed:

- propose ways of improving the performance of existing activities;
- define and implement pilot shared responsibility activities;
- make a forward-looking analysis of possible developments, taking account of exogenous elements, and define an ideal scenario for progress;

169. See in this context the examples of action plans from Alsace (France): those in the Stracel company, at Mulhouse's zoo and botanical garden and at the Lycée Albert Schweitzer.

– define an action strategy to bring that scenario into being.

At the Lycée Albert Schweitzer in Mulhouse well-being was measured and then around 20 pilot shared responsibility activities were identified when the findings had been validated, and subsequently confirmed and put into practice: not only discussion days, workshops, guidance, but also amended class times, decoration by one class of an area of the school, participation in recycling, greater status and encouragement of pupils, improvement of communication, etc. (see files on the CD-Rom).

Forward-looking thinking and the definition of an ideal scenario have everything to gain from the involvement of the broadest spectrum of players, including users and customers/consumers. Indeed, involvement of these last-named (phase 5) through encouragement of loyalty can be crucial to making a process of progress possible.

Certain partnerships between producers and consumers, such as Italy's "Solidarity-based purchasing groups" and, more generally, local mutually supportive partnerships between producers and consumers, are true instruments of societal progress for firms, enabling concerted programmes to be drawn up and implemented. Thanks to this kind of partnership, farmers who use conventional methods have been able to move towards production systems which use less non-renewable energy and are more environment-friendly (such as organic farming), something very difficult for them to achieve within the logic of an anonymous market. They have also been able to improve their own and consumers' well-being, mainly through the creation of solidarity and a social link between town and country.

3. Overviews

Where a process is already under way in a geographical area, overviews relating to collective entities or institutions may provide material for an area action plan. More about this in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 – Methods of conducting the last four phases of elaborative processes

Having studied the principles for setting in motion the first four phases of an elaborative process, whether this relates to a geographical area, a single issue or an institution, we now come to the fifth phase, that of decisions and commitments. This is dealt with (in respect of not only phase 5 but also the ensuing phases 6 to 8) for the three levels together, insofar as – in an ideal setting – these levels should all come under a well-being action plan based on the interrelationships between the visions for area, sector and collective entity.

1. Phase 5: decision making and commitment

1.1. Definition of responsibilities

Collective entities as the starting point

Defining responsibilities in collective entities or institutions is a good starting point to ensure integration between levels. A particular feature of collective entities is that they have a de facto consistency based on their internal rules of operation, naturally giving them a capacity to make commitments and decisions. Such decisions can, of course, be imposed from above, but an elaborative process for the well-being of all will always tend to counteract this state of affairs and foster consultation and collective decision making. Everyone gains from this, including those whose traditional role is to manage the entity.

At Stracel the elaborative process led the company's manager to conclude that, even in those cases where he already knew about or had solutions or responses to certain problems, it was far more effective to wait for these solutions to emerge from consultations than to impose them himself.

In addition, elaborative processes within entities and institutions also lead staff members to give thought to their commitment as citizens and to establish a clearer link between well-being in their professional life and well-being in their area.

The domino effect at other levels

Commitments and the identification of responsibilities within any collective entity clarify their positions in the elaborative processes relating to themes or areas, thus smoothing the transition to phase 5 (decision making and commitment) at these levels. Furthermore, the fact that the process was conducted within the collective entity on the basis of an effort to reconcile well-being for all and societal function, the latter – in an ideal vision – having been predefined in action strategies at theme or area level, makes it much easier to achieve the commitments needed for those "action strategies".

For instance, when the objective is production of goods and services without using non-renewable energy and each individual or collective player has incorporated this objective into both performance criteria and the decisions taken, it is possible to move on to a phase of commitment and definition of responsibilities in an area. This is obviously not a completely linear process, and there may be a degree of interplay between consultation on the theme or in the area and consultation among collective players.

Nevertheless, when responsibilities and commitments are to be defined within a sector or theme, the exercise takes longer, especially when the effort to achieve societal progress involves changes in both the interrelationships between the individual and/or collective players concerned and the perceptions of the dimensions of well-being relevant to the issue.

The local health monitoring centre in Mulhouse is working, for example, on the links between fairness in the health sector and well-being for all, while taking account of the complexity of the aspects that an improvement of well-being implies in terms of the responsibilities of the various kinds of players in the sector.

1.2. Provision and allocation of resources – relevant consultation

The provision of resources is a crucial question, especially when the commitments made require both material investment (in terms of money or other assets) and non-material investment (in terms of time, efforts to change practices or traditional methods, training time, etc.).

Experience has shown that the relevant discussions are more useful if needs and resources are treated separately: they are more productive when actual needs, the inequalities to be dealt with and the changes have been identified as necessary before the discussion turns to available and usable resources, with priorities being defined in the light of needs, not the reverse. It is therefore better not to tackle these questions until action strategies have been clearly defined (phase 4) and commitments by collective entities and other players have been specified, at least in terms of principle.

When the focus has been placed on the available financial resources before the needs have even been agreed, the process has often stalled. Then funding support or a financing opportunity might well be lost in a clash of interests likely to be won by those best placed, widening the disparities instead of reducing them. It is by coming up with an overall project instead that a process of consultation can be consolidated.

It may help to facilitate this kind of approach if it is placed on a formal basis with shared rules.

Cape Verde's community development associations are grouped together in official regional partnerships (known as regional partnership committees), within which municipalities, devolved authorities, NGOs, etc., are also represented. An annual work schedule is discussed each year in the light of the communities' own anti-poverty strategies, on the basis of which each player with resources available (municipality, ministry, NGO, emigrants' association, and so on) states what it can make available to put these strategies into practice.

Public authorities may, however, prevent elaborative processes from running continuously when the priorities identified by citizens are clearly not the same as those already programmed by the government. Fearing an inability to meet new demands, these authorities sometimes suppress any prospect of the exercise being carried out by selecting a few priorities which, for example, instead of requiring additional financial resources, require changes in the arrangements for the activity which will broaden its impact.

The most effective way of smoothing discussions about the link between the priorities which emerge from the processes involving citizens and the resources available, particularly when these are public funds, is to introduce a form of consultation, through a participatory budget for instance. This innovative approach to relations between authorities and citizens, which can be used to supplement elaborative processes, nevertheless presupposes preparatory work (phases 1 to 4).

In Camerata (Italy) projects are better formalised and implemented for the benefit of the public interest thanks to a participatory budget. One example is a project put forward by a group of youngsters wanting a place to meet: discussion of

this objective gave it another dimension extending to every young person in the community in full transparency, whereas, in a conventional process, the instigating group would have acted alone, using more traditional channels to request support from their elected representatives, and not necessarily involving any other young people.

Quite clearly, the problem of the availability of resources arises in different terms if the priorities selected also require a fairer distribution of material resources so as to reduce discrepancies between situations. Over and above case-by-case funding decisions, more fundamental questions of distribution arise, relating particularly to statutory regulatory and fiscal instruments.

1.3. Definition of the action plan

The action strategy becomes an action plan (in an area, on a specific issue or in a collective entity) when resources are allocated, responsibilities clearly explained, a timetable adopted and indications given of how to proceed. Whereas the action strategy is a set of desiderata for meeting challenges, without any guarantee of success, the action plan is a coherent set of activities, or types of activities, predefined by common consent, with resources available for action.

Table 531, for example, sets out a few activities which are part of the well-being action plan at Stracel (see the CD-Rom for the complete version).

Table 531 – Initial draft action plan drawn up following the elaborative process whereby well-being indicators were devised and measured in the Stracel company (Strasbourg)

Activities	What these involve	Key players	Monitoring indicators
Making instructions and technical specifications at production stations more coherent and understandable to all	Complete rewriting of the list of instructions and setting up of a single database	Certain identified persons	Existence of an appropriate and up-to-date database
Getting employees more involved in operational decisions through working groups	Setting up 4 to 6 groups with clear objectives, starting date and deadline Encouraging working groups in situ Reporting on progress in the company's newsletter	All employees	Numbers and variety of working group participants
Recognising each team's strengths	Identifying teams' performance, strengths and improvements to be planned	Certain identified persons	Objective comparative indicators
Creating links between and within departments so as to improve the general atmosphere	Organising an annual event for all (attended by all employees not on call, held off the company's premises at a time when the plant is out of action)	Certain identified persons	
Improving problem resolution in situ	Getting a team of experts from different sectors to carry out visits to solve problems in the various departments	Certain identified persons	Number of problems solved by this team

An action plan, as Stracel's example shows, may entail only changes relating to what is done, how problems are solved, how new ideas are introduced and how improvements are made. Thus it may be one which emphasises how interrelationships affect well-being for all.

Similarly, within an area, an action plan is not merely a list of specific activities, but sets out lines of action, with their resources and key players, with a view to developing shared responsibility for the priority objectives identified in the strategy.

It is important for an action plan to be able to involve all participants and citizens in one way or another. All of Stracel's workers, for instance, were invited to say what they were willing to commit themselves to in the action plan. Such involvement may be gradual, and it must be possible for the action plan to be opened up and to offer an incentive to all who are willing to make a commitment. Certain approaches could be developed in this specific direction (awareness-raising, leadership, training activities, etc.).

1.4. Formal or contractual commitments

Formal commitments mark the transition from phase 5 (decision making and commitment) to phase 6 (action). When they are set out in one or more documents (contracts, memoranda of understanding, etc.), this gives them visibility and legitimacy.

Commitment gains from having a collective dimension encompassing the whole action plan. This is all the more likely if the concept of collective commitment is part of the process from the outset.

At Mulhouse zoo, the fact that a charter of ethics agreed by all was drawn up as soon as the ill-being and well-being criteria had been expressed made it easier to produce an action plan acknowledged and validated by all which included a number of specific activities based on the major principles set out in the charter, together with a formal commitment. This action plan also shows which of the activities suggested by staff cannot be undertaken for legal reasons or for lack of resources.

More specific contracts may also be put in place for particular responsibilities. Commitment contracts are also useful to formalise links between areas, sectors and institutional players. Signatories may be, for instance, a public authority and either a collective entity or a sector's co-ordination group, with the interrelationship between each project and the well-being of the area being highlighted.

Considerable attention should be paid to the planning and drafting of these contracts. It is particularly recommended that they contain an explicit reference to the process as a whole, especially the objectives of well-being for all, including future generations, shared responsibility and the place in this process of the activities which are the subject of the contract.

Commitment contracts can be particularly useful for getting people involved and broadening elaborative processes, for example when specific contracts are used, for the partners are themselves invited to lead and act as "ambassadors" for the process, offering the co-ordination group a number of local intermediaries. Projects' promoters thus become one more group among the participants in the process, alongside those already mentioned in Table 514.

For the purposes of clarification, it may be useful to enter into commitment contracts with the co-ordination group, assuming that it has a formal existence and its own financial resources, as is already the case in certain programmes.[170]

2. Phase 6: action – Implementation and monitoring of activities and action plans

Implementation of action plans is a crucial phase for the legitimacy of elaborative processes: this is when societal progress as defined, agreed and accepted during the previous phases and at the different levels is to be achieved in practical terms.

In order to keep the parties involved and strengthen and expand their efforts, follow-up and support methods must also be open to participation, which should be encouraged. Participants should include not just the co-ordination group at each level concerned, working directly with the persons involved, but also other citizens or players (even from other areas) interested in transferring results or broadening existing partnerships.

Monitoring indicators (particularly useful during this phase) need to be created jointly by the stakeholders and should make it easier to produce overviews showing the complementary activities needed, the obstacles to be overcome and any adjustments needed along the way.

3. Phase 7: *ex post* evaluation

A participatory dimension must be retained for the evaluation of action plans during or after their implementation, which should strengthen the elaborative processes. There will be cases in which it may be worth leaving evaluation until several years later, so as to take account of longer term effects which would not have been immediately apparent.

Re-evaluating situations

For *ex post* evaluation of action plans to be meaningful, the first step must be to gauge the increase in well-being and resources in the area, and this requires a re-evaluation of situations, along the same lines and using the same methods as in phase 3.

Re-evaluation is based on a new survey similar to that conducted during phase 3. It is helpful if, as far as is possible, the same indicators and survey channels and samples are used again. This not only brings economies of scale, but also makes more valid comparisons with the phase 3 results and measurements of the progress achieved.

170. The development of the European Union's community initiatives, for example, is based on the setting up of formal partnerships, mainly local or focusing on specific subjects, to introduce action plans spanning several years. In certain cases, such as the Leader Initiatives (relating to local development in rural areas), the partnership takes the form of a Local Action Group (comparable with the co-ordination group), the existence of which is formally recognised and which is allowed to manage funds independently for the implementation of a local development strategy and action plan over several years, devised by it in consultation with the various local players; these may be amended in line with needs. The plans provide, amongst other things, for projects for which the arrangements are determined locally in order to facilitate innovation and the involvement of players in collective consultation processes.

Re-evaluations should go hand in hand with a fresh assessment of the state of resources, particularly those described as "critical".

Assessing the implementation and impact of an action plan

The second part of the *ex post* evaluation relates to the implementation of action plans, their impact, why they achieved or failed to achieve their objectives, and their relevance.

Monitoring indicators will make it possible to ascertain the extent to which initial aims were achieved.

When impact and relevance are assessed, all the activities carried out in the area will be analysed, as it is also essential to include those activities which existed beforehand and the objectives of which had incorporated well-being for all.

The evaluation of impact and relevance may also cover a sample of representative activities on the basis of joint self-evaluation by stakeholders. Since evaluation is an integral part of an activity, it can be done at any stage (during the activity), according to needs and in agreement with the parties concerned. A number of evaluations are likely to be already available during the *ex post* evaluation phase of the process, making it possible to rely on these and perhaps supplement them so that the sample is broad and the area overviews are meaningful. Thus a basis exists for measuring the progress achieved in terms of performance and relevance of area activities, and especially their impact on well-being and the reduction achieved in pressure on critical resources.

Overall evaluation: achievement of objectives, meeting of commitments, difficulties

An overview of achievements results from the evaluation of situations and that of the impact and relevance of action plans, and this overview is to be compared with the ideal scenario described in phase 4 of the process: to what extent has this scenario actually been achieved? If it has not, is the area's development appropriate to the challenges that it faces in terms of well-being and conservation of resources, and particularly the meeting of the deadlines set for "critical" resources (the objectives being the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions)?

This kind of overview can relate not only to an area, but also to each sector or collective entity, highlighting areas of complementarity. Here it is changes in human and hierarchical relations, forms of recognition, etc., that will be evaluated (with the charters of ethics drawn up being used as reference points).

The next step is to grasp why successes and failures occurred, understand the problems encountered and learn lessons from these, particularly working out what other kind of back-up or support (networks, other administrative tiers, etc.) is needed to enable the area or activities to succeed. There is always a possibility of an area being unable on its own to control its development when unexpected outside factors come into play, or if political support and legitimacy are inadequate.

These more qualitative evaluations of reasons, lessons to be learned, relevance, etc., should be a joint effort by all the entities concerned. It is vital that the different levels be interlinked: the evaluation of the action plan of each collective entity, each sector/subject provides material for use when the area action plan is assessed.

Identifying new directions that may become necessary

Evaluation encourages giving fresh thought to what could be done in future. It is thus possible to start again with phase 4 of the process (planning and comparing), thereby setting in train another progress cycle as shown in Figure 334.

4. Phase 8: stocktaking and capitalising

It is, however, possible as well, following the measurement and *ex post* evaluation phase, to move into a phase of taking stock of the elaborative process itself and capitalising on the methods used (phase 8). This option is desirable, for instance, after several progress cycles and/or when an opportunity arises to compare results within a single area or between different levels of responsibility.

Stocktaking and relations between levels

This phase stands out for entailing joint discussions not only at local level (involving different areas, issues and players), but also involving all the different geographical levels (local, regional, even national and supranational). To review the process, we need to focus on the possibilities and limitations at every level, and therefore to reconsider the role of each level in societal progress with a view to better functioning overall, based on the principle of subsidiarity. Consultations between levels relate particularly to what has been learned from small-scale experiments and to the conditions for extending the approach and making it more systematic.

When the experiment conducted at Mulhouse's Lycée Albert Schweitzer was reviewed, it became clear that it was both beneficial and necessary, in the longer term, to incorporate elaborative processes involving teachers, pupils and staff into the curriculum as one component of education for citizenship, a move which was also necessary for the approach to become permanently established and transferable. Current discussions with the French Ministry of Education and certain education authorities may perhaps bring progress along these lines.

The question of subsidiarity as it affects relations between the lowest levels therefore needs to be reviewed so that the scope of responsibilities can be clearly understood and elaborative processes can be expressed and extended.[171]

Furthermore, this phase serves to highlight the prospects for networked functioning of areas and local players, which is increasingly vital not only to an understanding of the extent of societal phenomena, but also to the planning of appropriate reactions and solutions. Without an exchange of experience and discussions among the players involved in elaborative processes in different areas, the stocktaking process would inevitably serve little purpose.

171. There are those, such as Pierre Calame (and the Charles Leopold Mayer Foundation for the Progress of Humankind), who put forward the concept of active subsidiarity, according to which it must be possible to build subsidiarity actively between the various territorial levels. In Calame's view, active subsidiarity gives rise to a number of simultaneous shifts, from thinking:

– in terms of the distribution of powers to thinking in terms of the linkage between geographical scales;

– in terms of a juxtaposition of separate standard-setting activities by different ministerial departments to thinking in systemic terms of leadership within an environment where activities by the authorities are combined;

– in terms of obligations to provide resources to thinking in terms of obligations to achieve results;

– in terms of a hierarchical system to thinking in terms of a network;

– in terms of a discontinuous process of deciding, implementing, evaluating and correcting public policies to thinking in terms of continuing learning and management of memory and collective intelligence.

Source: www.institut-gouvernance.org/fr/analyse/fiche-analyse-32.html.

This is therefore a phase offering a special meeting and intersection point for all the top-down, bottom-up and horizontal approaches which are necessary for societal progress, as Chapter 2 of Part 3 of the guide has shown.

Capitalisation

Capitalisation is a key stage of the structuring of non-material assets in the process of societal progress, as reflected in Figure 321. It comprises a collective review of common methodological advances, which become shared references for all. This does not mean that it occurs only in this phase. It can also happen at any stage through a pooling of experience, but a joint review enables the advances that have been made to be included in a recognised reference framework, thus strengthening the foundations of societal progress.

In this context, the organisation of the different processes and initiatives in networks, or even in interlinked networks, in the form of databanks, websites, publications, etc., plays a vital part in facilitating transfers of ideas and know-how, thus encouraging the development of new activities while making it easier for those in their early stages to get started, drawing on experience gained elsewhere and benefiting from the lessons of time.

Redefinition of roles and of the structuring of progress

As the roles of the different levels and the methodological advances made are reconsidered, the stocktaking and capitalising phase may lead to a redefinition of both the roles of the different levels and the interrelations between them. This leads on to rethinking the structuring of the process of progress as a whole, and a return is made to phase 1 of the process, for example by giving a formal and better defined existence to the co-ordination group, as a local area partnership. Thus, all the cycles of progress and consultation have taken place, the societal progress made has been noted, and a new cycle begins.

Conclusion

The methodological framework put forward in this part of the guide suggests that elaborative processes with citizens and communities can be given new impetus, thus meeting, in conjunction with the two preceding parts, the four kinds of needs identified if these processes are to become factors of societal progress: need for recognised and shared objectives, need for completeness, need for consistency and need for dynamic capacity.

A change of this kind, however, will not be possible without true determination to interact, especially between the bottom-up approaches based on elaborative processes with citizens, the top-down approaches enabling other levels' reference frameworks and responsibilities to be better known and horizontal or networked approaches through exchange and partnership.

As has been made clear throughout this guide, the need for interaction is present at every phase of the process, particularly in the following contexts:

Phase 1: structuring the process

- In order to affirm the process, the status of co-ordination groups would sometimes benefit from being legitimised and recognised in legal frameworks specific to area partnerships.
- Elaborative processes within public and/or public-service institutions (schools, services used by the public, etc.) should, in order to achieve greater effect and be fully productive, be recognised by higher administrative tiers as integral parts of a system of governance.

Phase 2: defining progress

- The building of well-being indicators at local level leads to general reconsideration of well-being for all and calls into question reference frameworks relating to rights and responsibilities, as well as the substance of public policies.
- The definition of "critical" resources indicators is based on genuine co-operation and acceptance of responsibility by the different tiers, not only in respect of overall resources, but also for making common reference frameworks transparent, thus facilitating their application at local level.

Phases 3 and 7: measuring and evaluating

- The evaluation of situations at local level may provide a basis for new ways of evaluating well-being at other levels (regional, national, European), thus giving wider scope to public participation.
- Evaluations of the impact of local public policies cast light on the relevance of more general policies, enabling these to be better directed and fine-tuned.

Phase 4: planning and comparing

- Forward-looking analyses benefit from spanning different levels, so that the findings are consistent and economies of scale are achieved in the research carried out.
- The starting of pilot shared responsibility activities will be fostered by horizontal exchanges disseminating ideas and methods and by political instruments enabling such activities to be legitimised and have specific objectives set for them. The higher levels play a major part in setting up the markers by which certain key pilot activities will be guided (such as recognition of the forms of solidarity-based economy). In return, pilot activities provide invaluable guidance to general policy makers.
- The setting of quantified objectives and deadlines for achieving them, especially where "critical" resources are concerned, necessitates co-ordination between different geographical areas.

Phase 5: decision making and commitment

- The putting into practice of action plans is largely determined by the availability of funds, which are decisively affected by the kinds of contracts used (framework contracts, finance plans over several years, etc.) and the degree of independence of the higher and lower tiers, as well as by the fiscal and regulatory systems set up at different levels.
- Co-operation networks (like devolved co-operation) make it easier to transfer resources and knowledge to disadvantaged countries or areas, ensuring better geographical distribution of assets and know-how. Elaborative processes within specific areas can facilitate such exchanges.

Phase 6: action

- The monitoring of activities which are similar and/or relate to the same objectives will benefit from being co-ordinated and using relevant and compatible systems and indicators facilitating automated data compilation.

Phase 8: stocktaking and capitalisation

- Stocktaking and methodological capitalisation of progress through every phase of the process requires close co-operation between all levels.

General conclusion

This guide is the first product resulting from a process both of comparison of various initiatives worldwide and of experimental application in the field. It is thus primarily intended to give food for thought. While it is far from perfect, it opens the way for new practices, concepts and tools. The conclusions set out here are not comprehensive, merely indicating those points which it seems important to reconsider and which have emerged from the complex web of questions studied. The main ones are:

- elaborative processes involving citizens and communities are a vital foundation for the emergence and affirmation of a concept of societal progress towards well-being for all, including future generations, and associated political practices. Such progress is needed more urgently than ever in the 21st century;
- these elaborative processes will, however, not be able to assert themselves unless they interact with general political frameworks, not only to build up the necessary shared reference points and political and legal instruments, but also to facilitate the networking of these initiatives and transfers of knowledge, experience and resources between areas, including those which are the most disadvantaged;
- this interaction will also foster renewal in public policies, ensuring that these are more geared to citizens' expectations and that democracy is strengthened, through the affirmation of a deliberative and participatory democracy which is a vital supplement to representative democracy.

There is therefore a crucial need today for a general framework which makes clear the interaction between civic and political processes, particularly by providing scope for combinations of bottom-up approaches (based on active participation by citizens), comprehensive top-down approaches (facilitating the introduction of shared reference points and the exercise of shared responsibility) and horizontal approaches (networked or cross-cutting) asserting both partnership-based exchanges between local processes and the interrelationship between the various public policies.

The Council of Europe Action Plan for Social Cohesion fits specifically into this vision. It should make it easier here in Europe to extend, transfer and network such approaches, which are still currently limited to a few initiatives.

Furthermore, the affirmation of new rights (those derived from public expectations and the right to fair access to resources) and new responsibilities gives rise to a wish for a general reference framework to play a vital role in the assertion of societal progress towards well-being for all, including future generations. The European charter on shared social responsibilities, currently in preparation at the Council of Europe, may be an important step in this direction, complementing both UNESCO's Declaration of 12 November 1997 on the Responsibilities of the Present Generations Towards Future Generations and the Charter of Human Responsibilities.[172]

The networking of elaborative processes in the various areas is another key component of the system to be developed. The network of "Territories of Co-Responsibility"[173] launched in 2009 and the other networks which exist, such as the Community Indicators Consortium (CIC) in the United States, Transition Towns

172. The European charter on shared social responsibilities is to be published in 2011. For the Charter of Human Responsibilities, go to www.charte-responsabilites-humaines.net/spip.php?rubrique94.

173. For more information, visit the Council of Europe's SPIRAL site: https://spiral.cws.coe.int/tiki-index.php?page=Territories+of+Co-responsibility and see the TOGETHER project on the URBACT programme site: http://urbact.eu/en/projects/quality-sustainable-living/together/our-project.

(which started in Ireland), "CittàSlow" in Italy, Sustainable Cities in Europe and other more specialised networks on specific subjects, should be able to work together and combine their approaches with the public authorities' support.

A common reference framework remains to be set up for critical resources, with the help of working groups made up of experts, NGOs and others, organised for every area. The work of the United Nations (Kyoto Protocol and Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, or IPCC) is making a vital contribution to this. A link should also be established with the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), which is developing norms which will be helpful to the development of shared standards.

The sharing of knowledge produced by elaborative processes at the different levels could also prove to be a key factor for societal progress, facilitating the preparation of new indicators for the implementation of relevant policies. The Wiki-Progress platform proposed by the OECD is an interesting example in this respect.

Finally, this guide itself is a contribution to the affirmation of a general conceptual and methodological framework for societal progress towards well-being for all, including future generations. Published at a time when elaborative processes with citizens and communities have become established, albeit more firmly in some places than others, it must be viewed not as a definitive basis, but as a starting point, a first version of what could become a common reference tool making it easier to understand the benefits of such processes.

It is in this spirit that it will be possible at a later date to update the guide (online) by capitalising on the experiments already under way or about to start.

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Over the last 60 years, the idea that the creation of material wealth is essential for ensuring the well-being and fundamental rights of citizens has been broadly predominant. In this organisational model, based on an increase in quantitative wealth, there is an implicit link between growth, individual well-being and collective well-being. This view of constant improvement presupposes a commitment by states and businesses to the fair distribution of the benefits of growth. Accordingly, states – as guarantors of the collective well-being – have focused their efforts on improving gross domestic product (GDP).

Today, globalisation has destroyed the ethical link between growth and national well-being. A "negative" perception of GDP has developed as a result of problems of pollution, environmental destruction, increased inequalities between social groups and especially the realisation that growth alone is unable to secure material well-being for all or optimism for the future.

At a time when confidence has suffered significantly and when the old benchmarks are being challenged, this guide, following on from the Methodological guide entitled *Concerted development of social cohesion indicators* (2005), addresses the concept of societal progress for the well-being of all by involving citizens and human communities in defining what this means and how it can be brought about. It explains how we can move from the idea of well-being pure and simple to well-being for all, and describes the interactions between personal and collective well-being so as to build a shared vision of the future and an ability to work together based on deliberation, devising measurement tools and consultation, in an approach which takes into account both present and future generations.

This guide seeks to foster an approach to progress in order to make it more easily manageable and give it a more human face.

With this guide, the Council of Europe is making a contribution to the current debate on progress and well-being from its own perspective, which is to renew and strengthen democratic processes and the ability of citizens to be involved in the decisions relating to the challenges facing society.

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