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Towards a wellbeing economy: Reflections on wellbeing budgeting in New Zealand and Australia

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Abstract

Purpose: This paper examines the Australian and New Zealand government's wellbeing budget reforms.

Design/methodology/approach: The paper describes the development of wellbeing budgeting in Australia and New Zealand based on an analysis of official websites, documents and media sources.

Findings: Both governments have experienced challenges identifying measures representing different areas of wellbeing and recognising the connections between the measures applied. They have found it difficult to access reliable data. The development of wellbeing budgeting also raises questions about participation, data reporting, and presentation, which can impact its efficacy.

Research limitations/implications: The paper outlines practical challenges governments face in creating and using wellbeing budgets. It proposes a future research agenda to deepen our understanding of these issues and their social and economic implications. The scope of the study is limited to publicly available documents.

Originality: This is one of the few studies investigating wellbeing budgeting, which has evolved as an important tool for public governance. Therefore, the study's findings may draw substantial interest and attention from practitioners, researchers and government policymakers wanting to integrate these reforms into their governance machinery.

Keywords: Australia, NPM, Wellbeing budgeting, New Zealand

1. Introduction

Several governments, mainly in developed countries, have recently implemented public sector reforms based on a wellbeing economy (Wallace, 2019). The wellbeing economy aims at placing human and planetary needs at the centre of activities and ensuring that the collective wellbeing of current and future generations is equally met (WEALL, 2022). While many governments have established wellbeing frameworks to inform policy (Hayden *et al.*, 2022; Stiglitz and Durand, 2018), New Zealand and Australia have taken a step further and aim to integrate wellbeing discourses into their budgeting processes. Both countries have a long history of budgetary reforms, most of which were shaped by New Public Management (NPM)

(Carlin and Guthrie, 2003; Guthrie et al., 2005; de De Percy et al., 2021; Guthrie et al., 2005; Ng, 2022) For instance, Carlin (2006) states that the idea of NPM-based accrual output-based budgeting evolved in Australia in the early 1990s as an alternative financial management system through which to optimise the resource allocation process.

Like NPM reforms, the wellbeing reforms are based on calculation and quantification (Lapsley and Miller, 2024) and developing performance measurement (Guthrie et al., 1999). Yet, these are distinct from NPM in at least two crucial ways. First, wellbeing reforms represent a shift in government thinking regarding how the governments envisage their role in society and the interventions that make this shift in focus manageable. For instance, as part of implementing the wellbeing reforms, including budgetary reforms, new quality-of-life metrics covering education, health care, and housing have been introduced alongside GDP (Bache and Scott, 2018; Sointu, 2005). Second, the wellbeing budgets aim to empower communities by providing opportunities to share their perspectives, assumptions, and ideas on how the nation's wellbeing should be defined and measured and inform resource allocation (Scott, 2012; Wildavsky and Caiden, 2004).

The idea of a wellbeing economy has attracted much interest from scholars in many disciplines, including accounting. For instance, Sharma (2021) explores how public entities can manage and measure wellbeing outcomes. Other studies delineate how public accountants have experienced the process of a transition towards wellbeing budgeting (Gill and Sharma, 2023), as well as how social capital can be effectively mobilised to embrace the wellbeing economy (Sharma and Frost 2020, 2023). However, the complex issues surrounding the integration of wellbeing into public budgeting processes have not yet received much attention, which is surprising given the potential social and economic implications of such reforms (c.f. Searle et al., 2021). Drawing on official webpages of the Australian and New Zealand governments, publicly available documents and media sources, we have investigated the Australian and New Zealand Governments' wellbeing budget experiences. Like Olson et al., (1998) and Guthrie et al., (1999), our objective in this paper has been to compare reform experiences across countries, considering their distinctive contexts and histories. This is crucial to gaining insights into how specific reforms are translated and applied in practice in different countries and evaluating their impact on accountability and the provision of public services. By comparing the two countries'

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¹ For a brief history of wellbeing and public policy, see Weijers and Morrison, (2018).

approaches, the study responds to Humphrey and Miller's (2012) call for more cross-national studies to understand the translation and consequences of specific reforms. We argue that comparisons described in this paper will interest governments and policy makers wanting to integrate wellbeing into their governance machinery.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section 2 provides a literature review incorporating the evolution of the wellbeing economy and prior work on government budgeting. Section 3 describes the research design. Section 4 explains how wellbeing budget reforms have unfolded in New Zealand and Australia. The final section concludes the paper by comparing the two countries' experiences and delineating the avenues for future research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Evolution of the wellbeing economy

The wellbeing economy can be traced back to the Greek philosopher Aristotelian's notion of 'eudaimonia' (Simpson, 2000). Central to this notion was the need to orchestrate material resources for self-realisation, happiness, and prosperity (Simpson, 2000). Starting from the 19th century, particularly with the advent of the Keynesian era, such human flourishing and potentiality transformed, and wellbeing was translated in narrow welfare terms measured by GDP (Hämäläinen, 2014; Hämäläinen and Michaelson, 2014; Kamp et al., 2023; Laurent, 2018; Lepenies, 2016). The idea was that people could only improve their living standards by improving their material conditions (Marcuse, 1991). Although widely adopted as a measure of social progress, GDP has been criticised for its failure to capture unequal power dynamics (Castells et al., 2012), social injustice (Exton and Shinwell, 2018) and ecological degradation (Hayden et al., 2022). Others perceive the objectivity of GDP as negating the subjective and affective aspects of people's wellbeing, including their joy and sorrow in day-to-day practice (Aitken, 2019; Stiglitz et al., 2019; Stiglitz and Durand, 2018; Stiglitz 2018; Stiglitz et al., 2019). This practice of numerating societal wellbeing in GDP terms was further normalised as part of the market-led developments within NPM (Guthrie, et al., 2005; Hyndman and Lapsley, 2016; Lapsley, 2009; Parker and Guthrie, 1993). More recently, it has been criticised for marginalising societal and human aspects in the reinvention of the public sector (Steccolini, 2019).

The publication of the Brundtland report in 1987, followed by the launch of the OECD Better Life Initiative, called for an alternative way of measuring social progress (Frijters and Krekel, 2021). However, a paradigm shift in the public sector from NPM to a wellbeing economy approach is relatively recent. Moving beyond the technocratic quantitative mechanism, the approaches to the wellbeing economy seek to reconcile economic prosperity, ecological justice, and the efficiency dimension of sustainability holistically, particularly when measuring social progress and national quality of life (Coutts and Wallace, 2016; Miller and Rose, 2008). Table 1 below summarises key differences in Keynesian welfarism, NPM, and Wellbeing based on five key dimensions.

INSERT TABLE 1

The shift towards a wellbeing economy gained further momentum in 2018 after the establishment of the Wellbeing Economy Alliance (WEAll), with Australia and New Zealand leading the way. This shift marked a clear signal by some governments of their commitment to moving beyond NPM and reinventing people's quality of life through the pursuit of wellbeing economy (Bache and Scott, 2018; Sointu, 2005). More research must be undertaken to investigate various wellbeing reforms introduced by governments. One exception is a study by Sharma (2021), which draws on two case studies of the Ministry of Pacific Peoples and the Ministry of Social Development to understand how New Zealand public entities manage wellbeing outcomes and measure their performance to achieve their objectives. Another study by Gill and Sharma (2023) focuses on the public accountants' experience and their identity change in establishing a wellbeing economy. Dormer (2019) considers the significance of the wellbeing discourses within the public management realm of New Zealand. This study intends to add to these studies on the wellbeing economy, delineating how the governments in Australia and New Zealand have sought to integrate the notions of wellbeing into their budget.

2.2. Budgeting in the public sector

Consistent with the paradigmatic shift in public governance from Keynesian welfarism to NPM to a post-neoliberal wellbeing economy (refer to Table 1), the public budget has evolved from traditional budgeting to output-based budgeting (e.g., zero-based budgeting) and wellbeing

budgeting. Over the years, Wildavsky has researched various aspects of budgeting (Wildavsky, 1966, 1978, 1979), highlighting issues surrounding the preparation of budgets, as well as the political ramifications of budgetary reforms. During the 1960s, particularly during the Keynesian welfarism phase, public budgets were prepared annually, developed using line items, incremental, and adhered to cash principles (Wildavsky, 1978). At the time, budgeting provided public entities with a techno-legal rational management control structure upon which the welfarist social objective could be enabled and enacted through top-down administrative hierarchical accountability (refer to Table 1). Such budgeting systems were designed to prevent corruption and abuse of power but continued to draw criticisms for overemphasising monetary control over policies and social outcomes. Wildavsky (1978, p. 501), for example, contends that traditional budgeting is 'mind-less, because its lines do not match programs, irrational, because they deal with inputs instead of outputs, short-sighted because they cover one year instead of many, fragmented because as a rule only changes are reviewed, conservative, because these changes tend to be small'.

The 1980s saw the emergence of neoliberal thinking as a panacea for economic crisis and eroding governance (Hood, 1995). Many Western states were experiencing budget deficits, inter-alia, stagnation, inflation, unemployment, and weakening productivity. The continuity of welfare provision was questioned (Caiden, 1998). Governments were argued to be a part of the problem rather than the solution, and the superiority of the private sector was conceded. The downsizing of governments was proposed by imposing NPM and New Public Financial Management (NPFM) concepts such as liberalization, privatisation, deregulation and structural change (see, e.g., Hood, 1991, 1995; Guthrie et al., 1999; Hood, 1991, 1995). Guthrie et al., (1999) state that accounting-based financial management reforms embedded within NPFM have served as a conduit to operationalise the very ideas of NPM in practice. Traditional budgeting was problematised for its techno-centric rigidity and inelasticity unconducive to the evolving market configuration, demanding a novel modality of output-based budgeting mechanisms (Bromwich and Lapsley, 1997; Carlin and Guthrie, 2003; Hood, 1995) such as zero-base budgeting (ZBB) and accrual-based planning and programming budgeting (PBB) (Wildavsky, 1978). Budgetary reforms were proposed were concerned with linking the budgets with reporting results and financial and non-financial short-term outcomes.

In their review of public sector accruals in OECD, Adhikari and Gårseth-Nesbakk (2016) have placed Australia and New Zealand, together with the UK, at the forefront of reforms based on

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having adopted full accruals for both financial reporting and budgeting. Carlin (2006) mentions that the idea of accrual output-based budgeting evolved in Australia in the early 1990s as an alternative financial management system capable of 'transcending the shortcomings of past budgeting technologies and actively contributing, of itself, to the optimisation of the resource allocation process' (p. 2). The rationale of accrual budgeting, when proposed, was that it would result in the creation of measurably improved performance information and bring improvements in the overall functioning of public financial management. Blöndal Blondal et al., (2008) claim that a move towards full accrual budgeting, introduced in the 1999/2000 budget, was strongly driven by officials at the Department of Finance and supported by the professional accounting community. The Department believed introducing accrual budgeting would enable them to identify the full cost of programmes, not just the cash outlays, and make it easier to price and compare them with private sector provisions.

New Zealand's first budget developed on output-based information was for the 1991/1992 financial year (e.g., Warren and Barnes, 2003). Champoux (2006) states that in 1994, the Fiscal Responsibility Act extended the accrual system, requiring the government to 'articulate its fiscal strategy and report progress towards its objectives on an accrual basis' (p. 6). In June 2004, the NZ government published its first accrual-based fiscal forecasts based on GAAP (The Treasury, 2019). The Treasury (2019) suggests the benefits of adopting accrual budgeting include that it "focuses on costs to be incurred rather than funds to be obligated or spent. Accrual budgets provide a more comprehensive financial picture of proposed activities and the impact of those proposals on the operating costs of individual entities (p. 5)".

There have been ongoing debates among academics regarding the extent to which these new budgeting methods have enhanced democratic accountability, professionalization, and public service core values in Australia, New Zealand and beyond (Adhikari and Gårseth-Nesbakk, 2016; Lapsley, 2022). For example, several scholars claim that the significance of accrual-based budgeting has been overstated. In the case of Australia, Carlin (2005) has raised concerns about how the quality of management information has improved following the introduction of accrual output-based budgeting, especially given the cost. Other scholars (e.g., Anessi Pessina and Steccolini, 2007; Kober *et al.*, 2010) have raised questions about the technical challenges associated with accrual output-based budgeting, given that deliberations in Parliament have often continued to use a cash basis. NPM-driven reforms have been increasingly criticised in the West and developing countries, in the wake of the pandemic and cost-of-living crisis

(Adhikari *et al.*, 2023; Grossi and Argento, 2022Steecolini, 2019; Lapsley, 2022; Steccolini, 2019). Grossi and Argento, 2022; Adhikari et al., 2023). Publicness and digital governance have prompted governments to reconsider how they govern the public sector and the trade-offs between improving human life and promoting efficiency and economic growth.

Government interest in wellbeing is gaining traction as it becomes clear that traditional economic measures do not assess quality of life (Ball, 2020). The notion of a wellbeing economy suggests a more holistic approach to public and social life that considers how a nonquantified and long-term perspective on citizen welfare can also be integrated into budget processes and complement GDP (e.g., Catasús Catasus and Grönlund Gronlund, 2005). Therefore, a new discourse on budgeting, the wellbeing budget, has evolved, extending the focus of policymakers and researchers beyond economic values to other socio-cultural and ecological dimensions such as climate change, mental health, indigenous rights, and social cohesion (Steccolini, 2019). Advocates of this approach to budgeting argue that citizens should be envisaged as liberal beings who can share their political will, thoughts and hopes about the kind of public service the Government should offer. Unlike previous budget approaches, the wellbeing budget approach needs to involve grassroots civilian participation to understand how wellbeing is perceived and how different dimensions of it are interrelated (Ang and Wickramasinghe, 2021; 2023). -Studies concerned with wellbeing and grassroots-level participants are, however, scarce (Ang and Wickramasinghe, 2021;2023). We intend to address these gaps in this study by exploring how wellbeing is integrated into the budget process, including at the grassroots level by the New Zealand and Australian governments.

3. Research Design

The data for this paper havepaper have been derived through analysingis from the official websites of the Australian and New Zealand Treasury Departments, publicly available documents, and the media. Our aim was to understand how the notion of wellbeing has been defined and understood by the policymakers and other stakeholders, how their wellbeing frameworks developed, to what extent the citizens are involved in the wellbeing economy and the budgeting process; and how various wellbeing areas measured and linked to broader wellbeing concerns of the population (e.g., ecological, social, political and economic). Table 2 presents a summary of the websites and documents examined.

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In addition, we conducted a content analysis of 120 stakeholders' submissions to the Australian Treasury as part of their second consultation. Our analysis focused on identifying public perceptions of the government's recommendations and suggestions for measuring particular dimensions. We also consulted previous studies addressing different aspects of the wellbeing budget, for instance, Sharma (2021), Ng (2022), and Mintrom (2019), to deepen our understanding. As a result, we could trace the wellbeing budgetary reforms undertaken by these two governments over several years, the underlying objectives of such reforms and the challenges Governments have encountered in their development. The following section sheds light on these details.

4. Towards the Wellbeing Budgeting

4.1 New Zealand's Wellbeing Budgeting Reforms

In NZ, GDP is considered an integral part of the budget planning process and is used to measure economic success. For example, the 2023 budget reports a 0.8 per cent decline in GDP, and fiscal projections will remain within their net debt ceiling of 30 per cent of GDP (The Treasury, 2023c). However, since 2019, thea debate on public sector budgeting in New Zealand, as is the case in many other western countries (see, e.g., Touchton *et al.*, 2024), has shifted towards the wellbeing approach; the latter has been predicated on the assumption that people's quality of life cannot be determined by traditional economic measures (see, e.g., Ball, 2020). For instance, in the budget policy statement of 2023, the Treasury (2023a) has clarified that the approach aims to "improve New Zealanders' living standards by tackling long-term challenges and ensuring that what matters to New Zealanders drives Government decision-making... (p. 2)".

To ensure that wellbeing becomes firmly integrated into the NZ government budgeting processes, wellbeing budgeting has also been introduced within the Public Finance Act. The Act requires the government to specify how its goals for wellbeing guide its budget decisions and report on indicators for wellbeing being used to inform the budget process. The New Zealand government's long-term wellbeing goals have been identified as follows (The Treasury, 2023e, p. 28):

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- i) Transition to a sustainable and low-emissions economy,
- ii) Physical and mental wellbeing,
- iii) Lifting Māori and Pacific peoples' opportunities,
- iv) Child wellbeing, and
- v) Future of work.

Traditionally, the New Zealand Treasury is responsible for the country's budget and performs various budget functions (Sharma, 2021) such as providing economic and fiscal policy advice, managing the budget cycle, and developing the budget. Having been assigned the task of creating New Zealand's Wellbeing Report (The Treasury, 20192+; 202149), the Treasury developed several instruments. These include the Living Standards Framework (LSF), Living Standards Dashboard, Wellbeing Report, *He Ara Waiora* and the Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy.

The LSF, first introduced in New Zealand in 2011, has been designed to enable evidence-based improvement in policy development, including advice on budget priorities (Ng. 2022; The Treasury, 2022b, 2023b). The framework outlines the main drivers of wellbeing and their interdependencies. Another underlying objective of the framework is to support the Treasury in developing more comprehensive, evidence-based policy advice, including advice on budget priorities (Ng. 2022; The Treasury, 2022b, 2023b). The framework has been developed using data from international organisations such as the OECD and the United States Treasury, as well as the 2004 Australian Treasury Wellbeing Framework. Version two of the framework, developed following consultation with a range of domestic and international experts and released in 2018, consists of three levels: individual and collective wellbeing, institutions and governance, and the wealth of Aotearoa New Zealand. Sixty-two indicators have been included to measure individual and collective wellbeing, focusing on understanding trends, population group comparisons, distribution within the indicators and international comparisons. Eighteen indicators have been used to measure institutions and governance, whereas twenty-three indicators measure the wealth of Aotearoa, New Zealand. The LSF is intended to align with He Ara Waiora, a framework designed to help Treasury understand a Māori perspective on wellbeing. The intergenerational focus is central to the framework. The Treasury has also published several discussion papers to promote dialogue on the LSF. The intention was that information from these submissions would feed into the next revision of the framework. In 2021, the Treasury updated version two of the LSF (The Treasury, 2023a). Changes to the

Framework were intended to reflect Māori and Pacific perspectives and child wellbeing. The updated LSF, therefore, called for more investment in culture and community-based initiatives. Addressing mental health was another key concern of the updated framework, emphasising the need to implement preventative measures at an early age (Sharma, 2021). While aiming to provide a comprehensive framework, it does not, however, capture the broader immigrant perspectives.

The Dashboard, introduced in 2018, is the instrument used to measure wellbeing. According to the former Secretary to the NZ Treasury, it is intended to "bring greater rigour" to the budgeting process (The Treasury, 2018, p. 3). StatsNZ, the country's statistics authority, organizes the dashboard. The dashboard displays indicators that correspond to each part of the LSF. The indicators were selected based on public and expert consultation (The Treasury, 2022a). Six criteria have been used to guide decisions on which measures to include: (1) directly relevant to the measurement concept, (2) comparable to indicators used elsewhere, (3) sensitive to policy interventions and adaptable to change, (4) disaggregated to examine the distribution of results, (5) timely and (6) parsimony (The Treasury, 2022a, p. 8). The measures included cover a broad range of aspects related to wellbeing, such as cultural capability and belonging, environmental amenities, family and friends, income consumption and wealth, leisure and play, safety at individual and collective levels, firms and markets, civil societies, families and households at the institutional level, and the natural environment, as well as social cohesion at the national level. Comments from Treasury Secretary Caralee McLiesh indicate that the Treasury knows that measures that rely on an average Kiwi experience may not represent specific populations, such as young and old (McLiesh, 2022). For example, McLeish, (2022) reported that average work hours are different among young and old people.

The dashboard was recently adapted to reflect the OECD's Better Life Initiative. The decision to align the indicators with the OECD was deliberate and meant to enable greater international comparison. The decision to adapt this framework resulted from a survey of possible international and New Zealand wellbeing frameworks (Ng, 2022). The data in the dashboard is updated every six months. Many indicators outlined in the dashboard are consistent with the indicators of Aotearoa New Zealand, a set of 109 wellbeing indicators developed by StatsNZ. StatsNZ's selection and development of indicators aim to represent wellbeing, instead of selecting them based on data availability. One consequence of this approach is that there are 39 gaps in data, and at least 17 indicators are proxies that are not

reliable (Stats NZ, 2023). StatsNZ has made several attempts to understand and address these gaps (Stats_NZ, 2023). Since the Living Standards Framework Dashboard should support the Living Standards Framework, the Treasury changed it in 2022, including where indicators are in the dashboard and the addition of new measures (The Treasury, 2022a).

In 2020 the Public Finance Act (1989) was amended, requiring a wellbeing report, called Te Tai Waiora, to be published at least once every four years. For instance, the 2022 report provided an overview of New Zealand's current state of wellbeing relative to other OECD countries. Other issues were also reported, such as changes in employment, air quality, health, and loneliness among young people. However, concerns have been raised about data gaps such as unpaid work and leisure, cultural capability, and the lack of information about the change in wellbeing within one person over time (The Treasury, 2022b). The New Zealand government has indicated that wellbeing considerations are to be integrated into all budget processes, including setting priorities and evaluating proposals. The underpinning rationale for this approach is that it will help the government make evidence-based decisions and encourage new collaborations to address its priorities (Robertson, Hon Grant Robertson - Budget 2019). The New Zealand government has started issuing several documents on Budget Day, including the Wellbeing budget, the budget speech, the Budget Economic and Fiscal Update, the estimates of Appropriations, and the supplementary estimates of appropriations. Aside from the budget policy statement the government publishes annually, it publishes a long-term fiscal report every four years. This fiscal report should cover at least forty years.

According to Mintrom (2019), the New Zealand Wellbeing budget represents a shift from incremental budget adjustments. The current budgetary reports confirm this approach (The Treasury, 2023a). For example, existing spending has been reviewed as part of the current budget cycle, and some resources have been redirected to other wellbeing priorities. The government uses a multi-year funding approach in areas such as health and climate change to allow it to plan to address its multi-generational challenges. Malpass (2019) has reported that "all new spending proposals had to measure up to five priorities from the wellbeing framework". The idea is that money is allocated based on evidence-based work and that policies should be evaluated every four years to achieve more strategic and long-term thinking. This new approach to budgeting is designed to improve collaboration between departments, allowing them to submit joint funding proposals (Bloomfield, 2019). Ng (2022) reports that the primary outcome of budget reform has been a change in decision-making processes.

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However, more work is needed to understand better other factors influencing decision-making. According to Ng (2022), an OECD survey suggests there remain opportunities for broader consultation by the New Zealand government and a better understanding of the links between the measures.

4.2 Australia's Wellbeing Budgeting Reforms

In July 2023, the Australian Government released its first national wellbeing framework, Measuring What Matters (The Treasury, 2022a). The Government argued that measuring what matters "will help us better understand our economy and society and support more informed policy making and improved accountability" (p. 2). An underlying aim was The government aims to understand critical areas requiring attention through performance indicators and annual assessments of the state of wellbeing across different levels. The framework comprising 50 indicators arranged in 5 themes, including healthy, secure, sustainable, cohesive and prosperous, is to become part of the budgeting process and adapt to changing priorities, research, and data availability.

The idea of developing wellbeing is not new to the Australian Government. In 2004, the Australian Treasury developed a wellbeing framework to improve the quality of policy advice (The Treasury, 2004). However, it was abandoned when the government changed (Rae, 2023). The purpose of the current framework is to evaluate current performance, and when data is available, comparisons are provided. Some indicators track performance over two decades. Among the 50 indicators, three have been highlighted by the government as missing data, and there are some cases where proxy indicators are used because of the absence of data (The Treasury, 2022a). Since some measures are highly aggregated, the government has indicated that if reliable data is available, it will break it down to understand distributional differences. For instance, metrics may be disaggregated by women and First Nation people. There are also some suggestions that future versions may identify regional differences. The government has not ranked or weighted any metrics.

In releasing their framework, the government has emphasized that these measures are being considered "in addition to" and not a replacement for traditional indicators of the economy like GDP. In particular, the dynamic nature of the framework is highlighted with an assurance that it will continue to be refined. They also highlight the dynamic nature of the framework, which

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will continue to be refined. The indicators are presented in an online dashboard (https://treasury.gov.au/policy-topics/measuring-what-matters/dashboard) designed to be updated yearly and use different visuals (i.e. bar charts and line graphs). Although this framework shows a change in government thinking about how progress can best be measured beyond GDP, closer inspection reveals that some data are outdated. For instance, household income and wealth inequality measures report pre-COVID data.

To develop its framework, the government launched a consultation process. Besides reviewing the OECD wellbeing framework, the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals, and other countries (i.e., New Zealand, Wales, Canada, United Kingdom, India) approach towards wellbeing, a public consultation was deemed necessary to ensure that any framework developed responded to local conditions (The Treasury, 2022a). This public consultation may also build a coalition supporting a wellbeing budget (Stiglitz and Durand, 2018). The consultation was in two stages. Stage one occurred between 25 October 2022 and 31st January 2023, receiving 165 submissions from various stakeholder groups, like the Australian Nursing and Midwifery Federation and the Children's Policy Centre. In stage one, people were asked to propose indicators and suggest potential reference data sources, and if data was unavailable, how could the government get access to information. get that data? From these submissions and consultation with key organizations, such as the IMF and OECD, five themes were identified: prosperous, inclusive, sustainable, cohesive, and healthy. The Treasury argued that listing priorities according to themes is necessary to ensure they inform decision-making. The Treasury's also reported that their consultation also tried to identify key learnings from New Zealand's experience. The measures that will provide information input to the wellbeing approach depend on the following criteria: relevant, complete, measurable, comparable, reliable and understandable (The Treasury, 2022a). By relevant, the Treasury means applicable to their policy priorities. Complete indicators refer to whether they cover all policy priorities. Measurable means they should be objective. Reliable means that they data cannot be able to be interpreted differently by users. Understandable refers to whether the data is easily understood by stakeholders and users (The Treasury, 2022a).

Stage two began on 14th April and was completed on 26th May 2023. The Treasury indicated it intended to "engage even more broadly with the Australian public" (The Treasury, 2022a), and it proposed that people host a feedback session to understand how different community groups related to the themes identified in stage one. One hundred and twenty public submissions were

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received in stage two. A critical concern that emerged from the review was whether women and First Nations people are adequately represented. Concerns were also raised about how childhood outcomes influence a person's wellbeing throughout his/her life. Organizations such as the Australian Academy of Health and Medical Sciences urged the Australian Treasury to include indicators developed by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities because they believe these might differ from others proposed. Similarly, Australia's Mental Health Think Tank conceived that closing the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians and valuing First Nations culture is of paramount importance to Australia's future wellbeing. Cities People Love suggests that gender equality at home should be measured, given the high domestic violence rates in Australia. Several new concerns emerged from stage two consultations, such as inequality, social inclusion, safety, trust, and international connection. Alternative performance indicators were suggested by groups that submitted, like the social cohesive index, emission of greenhouse gas, rate of homelessness, pay rate for workers, etc. A review of submissions highlights how some stakeholders perceive indicators to be linked. For example, Australia's Mental Health Think Tank suggests that mental health is linked to other themes, such as prosperity and inclusivity, given that financial distress, poverty, and racial discrimination can more or less contribute to mental health issues. One of the most important outcomes of the consultancy process is that the stakeholders could recommend how the wellbeing framework can be established based on their own experience and practice. For instance, Monash Sustainable Development Institute proposed integrating measures that target 'future well-being' in line with the OECD framework to give more weight to future generations in decision-making. Likewise, the Salvation Army has called for expressing care when consulting community members who have experienced hardship and disadvantage and have a history of trauma.

While the "Measuring What Matters" framework considered various perspectives, at the time of writing, it is unclear how the government will integrate it into its budget processes. For instance, whether the government will focus on evidence from the consultation process, consider service consumption, or base decisions on scientific facts (Lapsley and Miller, 2024) has not yet been made clear.

5. Comparison of Wellbeing Budgets in Australia and New Zealand

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Wellbeing reforms represent new thinking about how governments see their role in society and the interventions (i.e., the budget) that make this shift in focus manageable. They represent a significant departure from prior reforms, which have tended to view wellbeing as a matter of self-responsibility and choice. Instead, wellbeing is perceived to have interrelated social and economic dimensions (Miller and Rose, 2008).

The concept of wellbeing is gaining legitimacy in various countries but integrating it within the budget process has proven challenging, and previous attempts in Australia were abandoned. Some suggest wellbeing reforms are simply a way to justify higher taxes (c.f. Martin, 2022). This review of the Australian and New Zealand wellbeing budget experiences has revealed differences in the approaches adopted (See Table 3 for a comparison) and in the problems that have emerged.

INSERT TABLE 3

New Zealand has developed several wellbeing budgets and still struggles with data availability and quality issues. Like New Zealand, Australia intends to use a series of quality-of-life measures to develop its wellbeing budget. However, it remains to be seen how sensitive its measures are to local knowledge and how the budgeting process will be modified to integrate them into the existing process. It is also worth noting that in New Zealand, the wellbeing budget requirement has become part of the Public Finance Act. This raises concerns about the possibility of future Australian governments abandoning this reform, particularly since it has happened previously. As reforms unfold in both countries, more research is needed to understand how and why they have been organised and what the practical implications of budget reforms for wellbeing are. Taking into account Australia and New Zealand's attempts, we argue that research could usefully focus on the following four themes:

- i) participation of citizens in defining wellbeing,
- ii) measuring and defining wellbeing,
- iii) use in government budget process, and
- iv) reporting and audit of wellbeing budgets.

In the concluding section, our discussion revolves around these themes and presents a range of research questions that can be used to understand and assess the effectiveness of the wellbeing budget approach. Table 4 summarize these themes and research questions.

INSERT TABLE 4

5.1 Participation of Citizens in Defining Wellbeing

It is accepted that a well-functioning and stable democracy is important for the wellbeing of the economy (see e.g., Loubser and Steenekamp, 2017). Since the 1960s, marginalised citizens' importance in decision-making has been underscored (see e.g., Arnstein, 1969). Often, the reforms initiated in neoliberal democratic economies have deprived specific segments of the population of access to basic needs. Such reforms have failed to involve citizens in governance, treating them as customers. Citizens' involvement in government is often limited to satisfaction surveys or the legitimacy of decisions by bureaucracy or political leadership (Kuruppu *et al.*, 2023). Touchton *et al.*, (2017) argue that, besides fair elections, new participatory institutions should be founded to broaden opportunities for poor citizens and ensure their wellbeing. Participatory budgeting (PB) has proved to be one of the mechanisms through which governments can engage citizens in resource allocation and improve their wellbeing (see, e.g., Kuruppu *et al.*, 2023)

Studies conducted in different contexts show that PB enables citizens to decide how a government delivers public goods and services to assure their wellbeing and increase transparency (Kuruppu et al., 2016; Touchton et al., 2024). As a result, PB could be linked to several aspects of wellbeing, namely physical, economic, psychological, or developing capabilities (Touchton et al., 2024). Institutions such as the World Bank, the European Union (EU) and the USAID have included PB in their governance reform agenda and in emanating localised-led development (Baiocchi, 2015; Kuruppu et al., 2023). However, participation depends on context-specific factors (Aleksandrov et al., 2018; Lassou et al., 2023). For instance, in some contexts, PB may involve consultation. In contrast, in other contexts, it may facilitate deliberative consultation in which the public sector, with no amendment, would endorse citizens' or PB councillors' decisions (Cabannes, 2004). This form of the budgeting system generates space for interaction among different groups in society and contributes to building social capital and promoting wellbeing of community members. This form of budgeting system generates space for interaction among different groups in society and contributes to building social capital that motivates us to care about wellbeing of each other (Sharma and Frost, 2020, 2023). Two dimensions, namely communication and empowerment,

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are essential for the effective involvement of citizens, as explained by Baiocchi and Ganuza (2014). The former refers to an open, transparent and egalitarian nature of budgeting processes, whereas the latter concerns citizens' ability to define the terms of participating procedures. In their seminal work, Fung and Wright (2001) pointed out that such a participatory approach promotes citizens' empowerment and deliberative democracy. Mentions are also made that the involvement of citizens contributes to increasing accountability and capacity and(or) the narrowing of information asymmetry. If implemented as intended, PB is, therefore, expected PB is, therefore, expected to avoid political patronage, clientelism and corruption (Célérier and Cuenca Botey, 2015; Kuruppu et al., 2016; Lassou et al., 2023). Besides transparency, Sintomer et al., (2008) have underlined the improvement of public services, active cooperation between individual administrative departments, efficiency improvement in administrative operations, and more responsive administrative behaviour as other benefits of PB. The improvements that PB can bring about in citizens' lives have also been highlighted in the literature. For example, the youth involvement in PB in Lisbon yielded the allocation of the entire budget for projects focusing on environmental sustainability (Falanga, 2024). Similarly, PB ensured the allocation of funds for health care and sanitation and contributed to reducing infant mortality in several Brazilian municipalities (Touchton and Wampler, 2014; Wampler and Touchton, 2019). However, Baiocchi (2015) states that a strong civil society and a willing government are paramount to engender such benefits associated with PB (Baiocchi, 2015). However, Adopting PB without contemplating the context-specific peculiarities may result in unexpected consequences. For example, elites such as grassroots politicians (Kuruppu et al., 2016), administrators (Orosz, 2002), representatives of non-government organisations (Kuruppu et al., 2023) or male leaders (Lassou et al., 2023) could dominate the PB process. Such behaviours are more likely to be observable in contexts where democratic deficit prevails (Kuruppu *et al.*, 2023).

In summary, introducing wellbeing budgets represents a shift in thinking about who should take part (i.e., the public) in policymaking, and how they can and should participate (Scott, 2012; Wildavsky and Caiden, 2004). While previous studies have provided a foundation for considering new ways to engage the public in government budgeting, there is a need for a better understanding of the methods used. The new budgetary process requires governments to consult the public to understand what matters to them. Gilbert and Guénin (2024) and Carlin and Guthrie (2001) argue, for example, that the effectiveness of public policy may depend on how people are invited to consult on the issues that matter to them. Do current methods, like

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those based on technology, exclude certain groups within the population? Various methods, such as surveys and focus groups, may appear to be more inclusive and ensure that the views of minority or disadvantaged people are understood. They may give the appearance of being democratic and seeking the opinions of those being counted about what matters (Stone, 2020). Still, what remains unclear by reviewing Australia's experience, is if there is sufficient knowledge by Australians about how and when they can participate in determining what matters (i.e., online or submission via the post). Besides this, it is unclear how frequently the government will involve community/stakeholders in defining wellbeing and how they will be involved. Yet, their participation is critical because wellbeing concepts are subject to change are becoming social norms because they are social norms (Sointu, 2005).

As outlined in the PB literature, PB offers the potential for individuals to learn more about marginalised segments in society, improve the well-being of citizens and strengthen the resilience of various communities (Touchton *et al.*, 2024). HoweverHowever, Still, PB_will requires trade-offs to be made regarding specific communities' expectations about the provisions of public services. As a result, scholars result, scholars may need to focus on evaluating new Scholars could usefully focus on evaluating new forms of citizenry engagement, and how governments can enrol and capture stakeholders' viewpoints.

5.2 Measuring and Defining Wellbeing

A recent study by Du Rietz (2024) highlighted the challenges the government faces in calculating indicators such as GDP. These challenges arise because of gaps in data, unreliable data, and abstract concepts. According to Du Rietz (2024), using epistemic strategies can help identify, repair, and understand gaps, which is critical for comprehending the results. The wellbeing budget frameworks have introduced many new measures to support decision-makers. The scale of data that governments must collect and analyse compared to GDP to develop an understanding of wellbeing indicates the risky nature of this new reform. Therefore, further research is needed to provide in-depth insights into the everyday processes of those involved in producing accounts.

Research is also needed to understand how wellbeing frameworks are designed, considering the interplay of social relations in data collection, analysis, presentation and use. To what extent

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is the wellbeing framework designed to capture local understandings of wellbeing, or is it based on internationally legitimised and readily available statistics (see Clohesy, 2020)? the addressing of such questions are important.

To what extent is the wellbeing framework designed to capture local understandings of wellbeing, or is it based on internationally legitimised and readily available statistics (see Clohesy, 2020)? In Australia, some measures have up to two decades of historical data, suggesting they may have been chosen because of data availability. This differs from New Zealand, where numerous indicators still need data. Stone (2020, pp 3-4) reminds us of the challenges of counting people and that counting "forces things into categories by ignoring their differences". She also explains that numbers provide a language for telling stories, such as whose wellbeing is improved and who is struggling. She warns we must ensure that what we count does not lose connection with lived experiences (p. 201), which may occur should wellbeing budgeting focus on readily available information instead of information that aligns with local wellbeing priorities. There may also be problems with indicators that require personal data, raising questions about the ethics of such practices.

Another critical issue for future research is understanding how missing data influences wellbeing budget processes. New Zealand, for example, has chosen various indicators in which no data currently exists, or the available data is unreliable. Are these priorities considered when there are no metrics? How does the statistical system shape understanding of social and economic reality so that those with inadequate or no measurement remain part of the budgetary narrative? Equally important is understanding the interdependencies between wellbeing indicators (Hämäläinen, 2014) and how many are needed to represent wellbeing. Let us assume that the agreement is that wellbeing requires over 100 measures, similar to New Zealand. This raises questions about how information is weighted in the decision-making process, how links are understood, and how they are managed. It also raises questions about how the co-production of this information affects accountability.

Further research should consider the frequency of data collection. This has been raised as a concern in Australia because the framework developed in 2023 contains pre-COVID data² which may not represent current wellbeing concerns.

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² https://www.sbs.com.au/news/article/australias-wellbeing-budget-has-been-revealed-what-does-it-mean-for-you/o5w3eanwp; https://www.news.com.au/finance/work/leaders/treasurer-jim-chalmers-defends-wellbeing-budget-amid-criticism/news-story/4e1d373bd3d9c82c3a9b5b8b9e28d288

Studies could usefully focus on the technologies used to collect data that informs the budgetary process. Although digitalization affords the possibility of capturing people's opinions on wellbeing, Kahneman (2012), warns that statistical systems are not robust most times because they do not include a sufficiently large sample of the population. Similarly, Waring (2018, p. 56) emphasizes that: "All economics, and every one of its models, is built with ingrain biases. Even when people create algorithms, they are already biased in terms of what they produce as data". Harford (2021, p. 142) reminds us that "what numbers are and aren't collected, what is and isn't measured, and who is included or excluded are the result of all-too-human assumptions, preconceptions and oversights". It is striking how many people still assume that statistics are facts, despite criticism by Alonso and Starr (1987), among others, who explain that statistical systems do not count; this process is social because people intervene in how data flows from original sources, how people aggregate and analyze it, and how they use it (see-also Saifer and Dacin, 2022). Research is therefore needed to understand the organization of activities involved in producing wellbeing budgets, paying particular attention to the social nature of data collection and analysis activities and to the ethical considerations that surround them (Saifer and Dacin, 2022).

5.3 Use in the Government Budget Process

As previously indicated, there is much at stake if wellbeing frameworks use information provided by disruptive technologies. Wellbeing budget research could investigate how disruptive technologies shape the work of statisticians (see also Alonso and Starr, 1987, p. 9). Treasury and policymakers are expected to use the information they create. If statisticians rely on algorithms, this leads to the possibility that intentional or unintentional biases have been encoded or that the data set used to train the algorithm is biased (Kahneman *et al.*, 2021). Researchers might focus on the interplay between humans and machines in this process. Advanced technology allows information to be collected and analyzed, often in real time. Still, people have limits, and brain overload can occur (Rutkowski and Saunders, 2018). Those responsible for developing wellbeing budgets may benefit from a better understanding of how cognitive load impacts the effectiveness of indicators and what trade-offs those responsible for developing wellbeing budgets make. Studies may also usefully consider new skills practitioners need to collect and analyze wellbeing data.

Since wellbeing issues are considered at the government level, wellbeing budgets can be used as a means by which Governments can break down barriers and enable cooperation between departments. However, wellbeing budgeting processes can enrol different government departments, leading to a reconfiguration of government power relations and the ability of different departments to access resources. Research into how these relationships have changed and are changing because of wellbeing budgeting is needed. Research could aim to understand whether this budget approach has made collaboration between departments more effective. The wellbeing budget is likely to have changed the organisation and processes of the Treasury and Statistics departments. However, little is known about how the work in these departments has been transformed to accommodate this new budgetary approach.

5.4 Reporting and Audit of Wellbeing Budgets

There are several important issues for future research focused on the reporting and auditing of wellbeing budgets. At one level, there is a vast literature that suggests budgets and information used to inform them are not politically neutral (Carlin and Guthrie, 2001; Schick, 2021; Humphrey and Scapens, 1996). With various measures and frameworks, there is the possibility that governments in their reporting only focus on those that give a positive impression of the effectiveness of this new budget approach (Hawke and Wanna, 2010) or those that are accessible (Dambrin and Robson, 2011; Du Rietz, 2024).

At another level, we currently know little about how those who prepare the information have considered the aesthetics of data (Saifer and Dacin, 2022). Who are the users, and how is information translated to meet users' (i.e., policymakers and other citizens) needs, or is it used to provoke a certain emotional response? For instance, Heath and Starr (2022, p. xvi) explain that "when experts are asked to communicate something they understand intimately... they wildly overestimate how much of their mental model of the world is shared by their audience". Like Heath and Starr, Frijters and KrekeKrekel (2021, p. 20) also indicate that "but a few specialists" know how information is collected and that the data is difficult to understand (see also Bache and Scott, 2018). Heath and Starr (2022) also argue that people can understand "very small numbers" (p. vii). This suggests that more research is needed to understand how numbers can be translated to tell stories that are accessible to the audience responsible for the

budget process and budget decisions. If more public participation is the goal, how can this information be translated and made understandable by the various communities that want and need to participate in the process? And, if the public is expected to engage in data, who should be held responsible for the aesthetics and their outcomes? Understanding these aspects of the processes involved in producing data is important since the emotion the measures provoke may influence what actions are perceived as legitimate and prioritized (Saifer and Dacin, 2022). Finally, the nature of the reforms raises questions about how much scrutiny the information provided by the measures is subjected to and by whom. Will the National Audit Office or others verify that the information represents a "fair view" of the country's wellbeing?

This paper responds to the need for more cross-national studies of accounting reforms (Humphrey and Miller, 2012). It advances our understanding of wellbeing budgeting by examining the experience of two countries, Australia and New Zealand. Because the wellbeing reforms are still in their infancy in these countries, the everyday processes required to produce this new form of budgeting are still under development and need to be better understood. Prior studies have explored how wellbeing economy is becoming embedded in public administration, but no research has been found that focused specifically on budgeting (Dormer, 2019; Sharma, 2021; Gill and Sharma, 2023; Sharma, 2021). The current paper progresses our understanding of wellbeing budgeting by conducting a cross-national study. Furthermore, the paper suggests that the reconfiguration of the budget process to integrate wellbeing has not been straightforward or without its challenges. Like other reforms, some actors or stakeholders people expect immediate, measurable improvements from this new budget reform, failing to recognise that it aims to change the policy narratives. Like NPM reforms, it seeks to strengthen the government's ability to problematise issues (Humphrey and Miller, 2012) and consider the broader impacts of its decisions (Hayden et al., 2022; McClure, 2021). These observations are consistent with those made by Guthrie et al., (1999) when they described the lack of coherence of NPFM reforms, arguing that their value lay not in a specific set of practices, but in the new 'financial' awareness they provide in d-public sector decision making. Lastly, the effects of these reforms on public debt can already be measured (Gilbert and Guénin, 2024), however, it will probably take some time for wellbeing to be fully integrated into budget processes and for change to happen. For instance, although the Australian government has provided little insight into how its budget processes will change to integrate wellbeing, there is some evidence in New Zealand that budgetary processes are changing since new spending proposals are now required to show how they address at least one of the five Government wellbeing priorities to

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be considered (Malpass, 2019). We encourage scholars to undertake studies to understand better these reforms' complex organisation and risks and how they make constituents' wellbeing concerns more (or less) legible. This is crucial to avoid many unintended consequences that often follow poorly understood and developed reforms (Guthrie, Olson and Humphrey, 1999).

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	Keynesian	New Public	Wellbeing
	Welfarism	Management	
Began	1960s	1980s	2000s
Aim	Welfare	Fiscal Austerity	Wellbeing (defined broadly – i.e., economic, ecological, sustainability)
Measurement	Input	Output (Tangible products or services such as the number of patients seen or the number of driver's licences issued) and short-term outcomes focus (e.g., current level of employment).	Outcomes focus on individuals and communities (i.e., Tangible and intangible short-term and long-term outcome improvements). The scope is broader than NPM, and measures focus on life satisfaction and include mental health and happiness, impact on current and future generations and the environment.
Values	Top-down bureaucracy logic to correct market failures and prevent economic downturns.	Market and competition logic focused on economic prosperity.	Social justice, equity, and environmental sustainability.
Service approach	Professional	Managerial	Participative
Intervention	State intervention and control of welfare for those currently in need	Wellbeing is a matter of self-responsibility and choice.	Grassroots citizen participation in defining state intervention (includes preventive measures and a future generational focus)

Table 1 Transition of governance regime in public management (adapted from Wallace, 2019, p. 21)

Title	Year of	Description			
	publication				
		alia Treasury			
Policy advice and Treasury's wellbeing framework	2004	 Provides the conceptual basis of wellbeing Outlines the wellbeing framework Shows the various performance dimensions and how they interact Suggest some policy implications. 			
Measuring what matters Measuring what matters	2022	 Describes the National Framework of Wellbeing Underlines how this framework draws on the OECD framework Outlines the criteria for good indicators Discusses the purpose and procedures for the 			
— second consultation process	3	second consultation			
New Zealand Treasury					
Embedding wellbeing in the Public Finance Act 1989. New Zealand- Consultancy Report	2018	 Outlines the government proposal for embedding wellbeing economy in the budget process Discusses the links between wellbeing objectives, fiscal policy and indicators 			
A Guide to the Public Finance Act	2019	• Outlines the legislative requirements of the Act concerning departments, Offices of Parliament and the Government as a whole			
Strategic Intentions 2021-2025. New Zealand	2021	 Outlines the strategic direction for the next five years Discusses the Government's wellbeing approach Indicates how success can be measured 			
Te Tai Waiora: Wellbeing in Aotearoa, New Zealand 2022	2022	 Provides a high-level overview of wellbeing in Aotearoa New Zealand Considers how wellbeing has changed over decades and how New Zealand is positioned to sustain wellbeing in the future 			
Budget Policy Statement 2023	2023	• Budget priorities and wellbeing objectives for 2023			
Focus areas for budget 2023. New Zealand Government	2023	 Outlines the overarching budget goals Identifies policy area of focus Includes budget allowances and the Climate Emergency Response Fund 			
Wellbeing Budget: Support for today Building for tomorrow	2023	 Outlines the Government's priorities for the Budget Discusses the approach taken to develop a wellbeing budget Summarizes the initiatives included in Budget 2023 			

Table 2: Summary of the documents analysed

,	New Zealand	Australia
Date of first budget	• 30 May 2019	None but the wellbeing budget framework launched in 2023
Key Department	New Zealand Treasury	Australia Treasury
Legislation and framework	 Public Finance Act Living Standards Framework Living Standards Dashboard Wellbeing Report He Ara Waiora, and Child and Youth Wellbeing Strategy. 	Measuring What Matters
Key wellbeing	 Individual and collective 	Healthy
priorities/ themes	 wellbeing Institutions and governance Wealth of Aotearoa New Zealand. 	SecureSustainableCohesive and prosperous.
Wellbeing indicators	 62 indicators to measure individual and collective wellbeing. 18 indicators to measure institutions and governance. 23 indicators to measure the wealth of Aotearoa New Zealand. 	50 indicators across five wellbeing priorities

Table 3: Comparison of the Australian and New Zealand Wellbeing Budget Reforms

Theme	Resea	rch Questions
Participation in	1.	Who should be involved in determining what constitutes
defining wellbeing		wellbeing?
	2.	What methods can Governments use to involve citizens in the
		process (i.e., social media, focus groups, seminars, online
		submissions, using apps, questionnaires)
	3.	What is the role of technology in gathering citizen opinions, given
		the varying levels of digital literacy among citizens?
	4.	How frequently should Governments seek citizen feedback?
	5.	What methods are used to ensure priorities like the environment
		and future generations participate in the process?
Measuring and	1.	What criteria are used to decide on wellbeing priorities?
analysing	2.	How many measures are required to prevent the oversimplification
wellbeing		of complex issues while avoiding decision-makers' cognitive
		overload?
	3.	How can the government limit the impact of political cycles on the
		process of measuring wellbeing?
	4.	What types of measures, such as qualitative vs. quantitative, long-
		term vs. short-term, and global vs. local, have been used?
	5.	How are measures weighted when making decisions?
	6.	How frequently is wellbeing data updated and how current is the
		information informing budget decisions?
	7.	How are wellbeing issues represented in the decision-making
		process when data is unavailable or considered unreliable?
	8.	What new technologies have been adopted for collecting and
		analysing wellbeing data?
Use in Government	1.	Have any adaptations been made in the budget process to ensure
budget process		that all relevant parties understand the measures and possible
	_	actions?
	2.	How has wellbeing budgeting impacted the work of statisticians
		and accountants?
	3.	What practical value does the new wellbeing approach offer MPs
		when determining policy? Are departments working together more
		effectively to deliver initiatives?
	4.	How has the budget allocation for health, education, environmental
		sustainability, and other initiatives changed since the introduction
	_	of wellbeing budgets?
	5.	How is the wellbeing framework related to other analytical
D (: 1	1	frameworks?
Reporting and	1.	Who handles wellbeing reporting?
audit of wellbeing	2.	Who are the intended users of wellheing reports?
budgets	3.	What types of data visualization are managemy to address cans in
	4.	What types of data visualisation are necessary to address gaps in
	_	users' capabilities and understanding?
	5.	How many years of data will be analysed and reported to identify
		trends in the data collected and reported?

Table 4: Summary of research questions focused on examining wellbeing budgeting