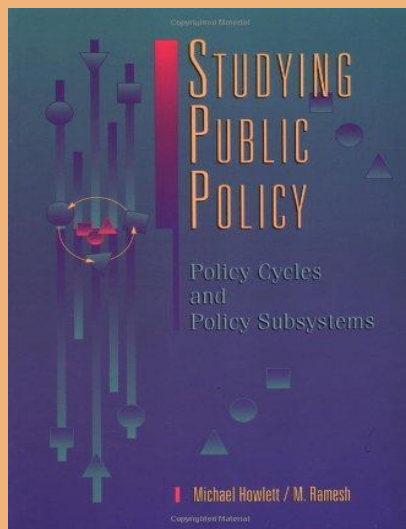


Executive Book Summary

Chapter 1: Policy Science and Political Science. About the Authors: Michael Howlett is a political science professor at Simon Fraser University; M. Ramesh is a senior lecture in Public Policy at the University of New England (Australia). The authors aims and perspective in this book show how public policies emerge from a



complex interplay of forms of government, types of issues, and the organization of states and societies into selected types of policy subsystems (p. 200-201) (Fig. 1). What we learn in this chapter is the definition of Public Policy. Howlett & Ramesh (1995) suggest that there are three examples of widely-used definitions that will suffice to

convey the complex meaning of the term. Thomas Dye's example offers a succinct definition of public policy, describing it as 'Anything a government chooses to do/not to do.' James Anderson offers a generic definition, describing a policy as 'a purposive course of action followed by an actor or a set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern' (p. 4, 6). The third is listed in the box above.



Chapter 2

Approaches to Public Policy

Highlights from Chapter 2

Deductive Theories:

- Public choice
- Class analysis and neo-institutionalism (new economics of organization),
- Markets and bureaucracy

Inductive Theories:

- Welfare economics
- Pluralism & corporatism
- Statism

Highlighted in this chapter is the five stages of the policy cycle and their relationships to applied problem-solving. 1) Problem recognition 1) Agenda setting: *refers to the process by which policy by which problems come to the attention of governments;* 2) Policy Formulation: *refers to the process by which policy options are formulated within government;* 3) Decision-Making: *refers to the process by which government s adopt a particular course of action or non-action;* 4) Policy implementation: *refers to the process by which governments put policies into effect;* 5) Policy Evaluation: *refers to the processes by which the results of policies are monitored by both state and societal actors, the result of which may be re-conceptualization of policy problems and solutions (Howlett 1995, p. 11).*). It is important to note that there is one noted disadvantage of this model as noted by Howlett is that it can be misinterpreted as suggesting that policy-makers go about solving public problems in a very systematic and more/less linear fashion (p. 12).

Chapter 3 Highlights

Actors and Institutions—

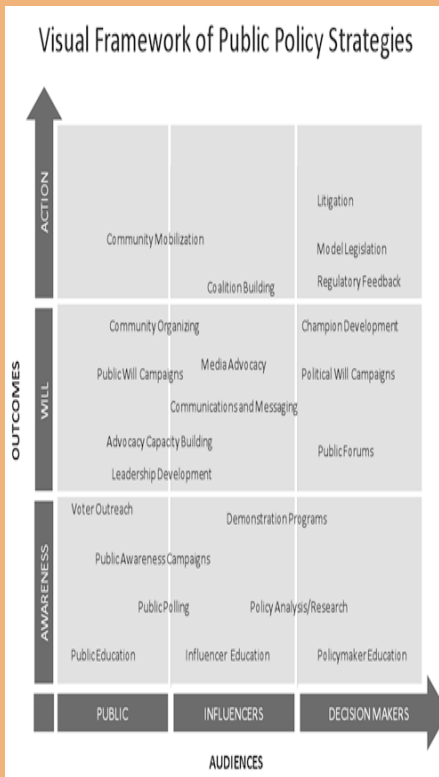
Assessing the Policy

Capabilities of States

- Actors in policy process: may be either individuals or groups;
- Elected Officials: fall under two categories, members of the executive and the legislature, appointed officials deal with public policy and administration and interest groups often know most about group knowledge;
- Research organizations work as think tanks with universities;
- Mass media reporting news to public on political issues,
- Organization of the state; there are two dimensions autonomy (self-serving and conflicting social pressures) and capacity (size in which to make/implement policies);
- Intergovernmental division of power federalism in Canada require inter-governmental agreements;
- Intergovernmental division power-- the executive (can more often than not take legislative support) legislature (function reduces the likelihood of generating coherent or effective policies) and judicial (Canadian justices remain subordinate to Parliament and feel they are upholding principles for a democratic government);
- Structure of the bureaucracy determines degree of decision making power is concentrated;

- Organization of the society is linked by how society problems are resolved;
 - Business generally most powerful to impact public policy;
 - Labour is powerful with trade unions and a voice for public policy;
 - Origination of the international system some based on treaties;
 - International trade regime some based on general agreements on tariffs;
 - International financial regime provides a fixed exchange rates of currency
- Assessing the effects of international institutions are strongest at the macro-economic level (p.52-73) (Figs.3, 4).

study public policy. Alfred Pigou has been considered the father of 'welfare economics'. It has been noted that political institutions can act to supplement or replace markets (p. 28). **Pluralism and corporatism** pluralism (United States of America) is based on assumptions of the primacy of interests groups in the political process corporatism (p. 33). Corporatism (Europe), is shaped by the interaction between the state and the interest group(s) recognized by the state (p. 37). **Statism** concentrates on the links between the state and society in the context of former's pre-eminence (p. 39).



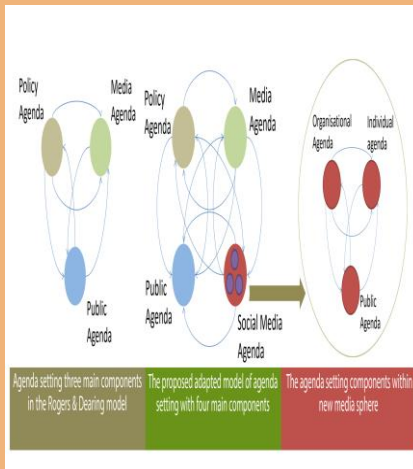
Re-Conceptualizing the agenda-setting process beginning from the observation process of agenda-setting that involves discussion, debate and the persuasion among those interested in the policy, each presenting a variety of evidence and argument in support of their position and

Inductive Theories: Welfare economics is the most commonly used approach to

as Baumgartner and Jones state that in that the ‘image’ of a policy problem is very much significant for that it influences the membership and activities or relevant policy subsystems. When the ethical, social or political implications of such policies are assumed to be centre stage, a much broader range of participants can suddenly become involved (p. 111).

Typical agenda-setting process this is essentially a society’s agenda for discussion of *public* problems, such as crime or health care for example. Furthermore, Cobb and Ross add that there are major phases of agenda-setting as issues: the outside model applies to the situation to a group outside government structure 1) articulates a grievance, 2) tries to expand interest in the issue to spark enough in which other groups in the population to gain a place on the public agenda, in order to 3) to create sufficient pressure on the decision makers to force the issue onto formal agendas for their serious consideration (p. 113). Lastly, it is possible to construct a model of agenda-setting styles based on interrelatedness of public along with government support for a specific claim or demand for government action in which a model highlights the need to investigate the

problem definition within context of both problems and the manner in which ideas and ideologies condition their realization (p. 115) (see fig. 11).



Chapter 4

Policy Instruments

Voluntary instruments: entail no or little involvement by the government and they are important tools for implementation both economic and social policies (p.83).

Voluntary organizations can be viewed in theory as an efficient means of delivering most economic and social services (p.85).

Family and community is the first set of voluntary instruments that government can rely upon for implementing policies is family and community (p. 84).

The market has been suggested to be a highly recommended instrument in certain circumstances and it is backed by the coercive powers of the states (p. 86).

Compulsory instruments: Also named the directive

instruments, which compel or direct the action of target individuals and firms with little or no discretion in devising a response (p. 87).

Regulations some regulations involve the police and judicial system in their enforcement and take various forms such as rules, standards, permits, prohibitions, legal orders and executive orders (p. 87).

Public enterprise is also being known as the state-

Mandates

Inducements

Capacity Building

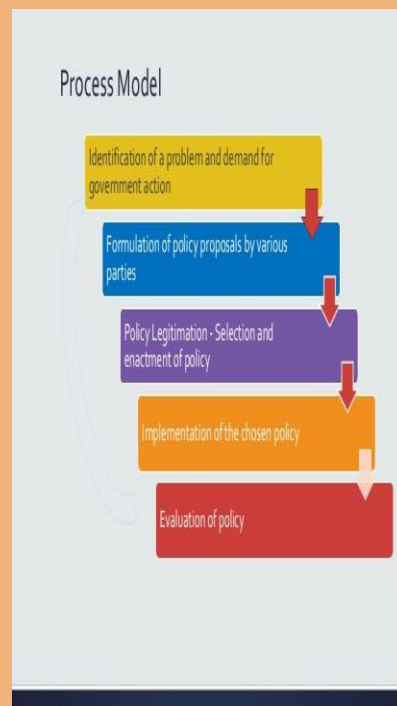
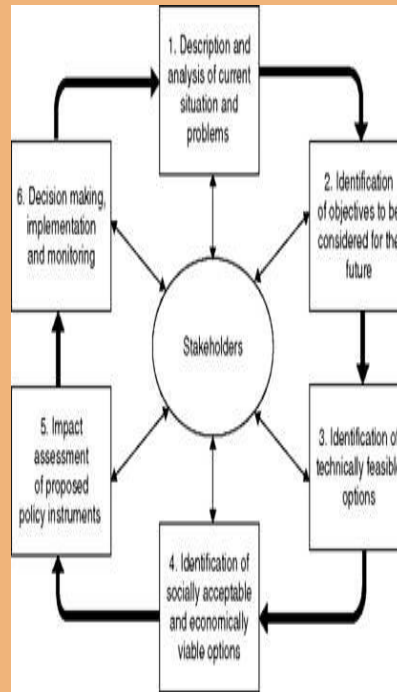
System Change

Hortatory Policy

owned enterprises, crown corporations or parastatal organizations (public ownership, control or direct management by government, goods and services sold) (p 89). **Direct provision** is easy to determine because of the law requirements, large agencies require direct provision enables then to build resources, skills and information necessary for efficient performance of their task and direct provision avoids the problems with indirect provision-discussion, negotiations terms of grants

and contracts than with results and direct provision permits internalization of transactions, minimizing the cost in getting something directly done (p. 90). **Mixed instruments:** Combines the both voluntary and compulsory instruments and they permit government varying levels of involvement in shaping decision of non-state actors, while leaving final decisions to private actors (p. 91). **Information and exhortation** can be viewed as providing information to individuals and firms with the expectation of changing their behaviour in a desired manner and exhortation or suasion involves more government activity than dissemination of information as it entails a concerted effort to change the subjects preferences and actions rather than just information them about a situation with the hope of changing their behaviour in a desired manner (p. 91). **Subsidy** refers to all forms of financial transfers to individuals, firms, and organizations from governments or other individuals, firms or organizations under government direction (p. 92). **Auction of property rights** are mixed instruments an example such as controlling the rapidly increasing number of motor vehicles that were causing traffic congestion and point an environment hazard in the long run (vehicle ownership), and they are easy to establish (p. 95). **Taxes and**

user charges is compulsory payment to government by person or firm and the main purpose of tax is normally to raise revenues for the government's financing of expenditures (p. 96) (Fig. 9-10).



Chapter 5

Agenda Setting—Policy Determinants and Policy Windows

Highlights from Chapter 5

Conceptual issues:

- Policy determinants—conceptions of the source of policy problems, economic/technological determinism;
- Interplay of politics and economics Re-Conceptualizing the agenda-setting process;
- Typical agenda-setting process;
- Ideas and ideology

Conceptual issues: The first stage of the policy cycle is agenda setting and how do issues appear on governmental agendas for action? Agenda setting is about the recognition of a problem on the part of the government. John Kingdon suggests it is a list of subjects or problems to which governmental officials are paying some serious attention at any given and the set of all conceivable subjects or problems to which officials could be paying attention and they do in fact seriously attend to some rather than others. (p. 104-105).

Policy determinants—conceptions of the source of policy problems is how problems are interpreted and become a public problem requiring government action which would then raise deeper questions about the nature of knowledge (p. 105). **Economic and technological determinism** the convergence suggests countries

industrialize towards the same policy mix and the emergence of similar welfare states in the industrialized countries its proponents argue that it is a direct result of their similar levels of economic wealth and technological development (p. 106). **Interplay of politics and economics** Edward Tufte claims that the ideology and platform of the political party in power dominates and as the electoral calendar helps set the timing of policy so the ideology of political leaders shaping the substance of economic policy (p. 108). **Ideas and ideology** Anthony Woodiwiss suggests that the ideological realm enables one to learn its reality and its autonomous determinative capacity which is impossible otherwise, due to the prevalence of anachronistic dichotomies as ‘base/superstructure and thought/behaviour’ that tends to diminish significance of the ideological realm (p. 110).

Chapter 6

Policy Formulation—Policy Communities and Policy Networks

Highlights from Chapter 6

Conceptual Issues:

- Policy subsystems
- Sub-Governments iron triangles and issue networks
- Advocacy coalitions
- Policy networks
- Policy communities
- Taxonomy of policy subsystems

Conceptual issues
Governments that acknowledge

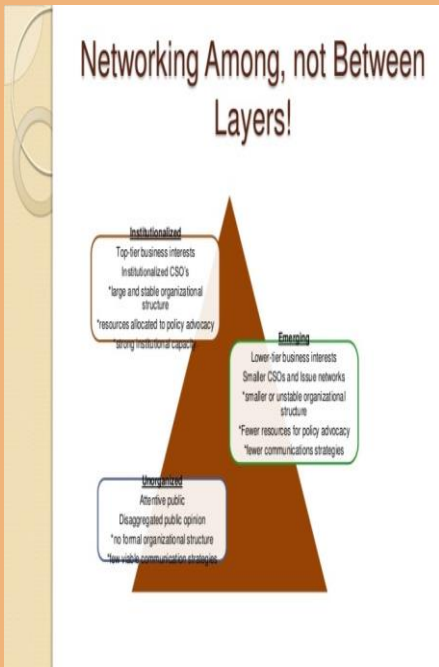
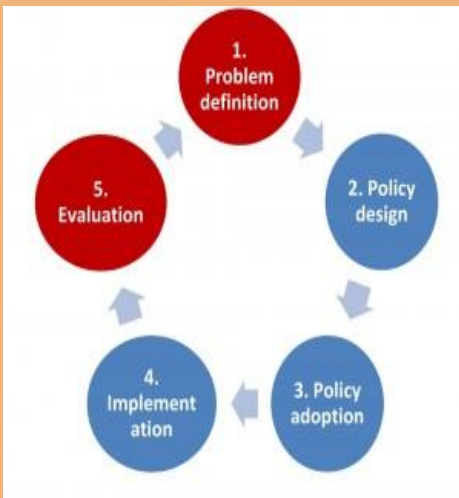
the existence of a public problem and the need to do something about it, policy-makers need to decide on some course of action (p. 122). **Policy subsystems** Describes who is actually involved in this process, in such that is it public or private activity and when members of the public are involved, in policy formulations the members of policy subsystems are restricted to those who have some level of knowledge in the subject area and allowing options to resolve policy problems (p. 124-125). **Sub-Governments iron triangles and issue networks** agriculture; transportation and education were noted as *iron triangles* to capture the essence of their iron-clad control over many aspects of the policy process. Moreover, Helco claims that policy subsystems as a spectrum with iron triangles at one end and issue networks at the other and networks comprise of a large number of participants with quite variable degrees of mutual commitment or dependence on others in their environment and iron triangles or subgovernments suggest a stable set of participants coalesced to control fairly narrow public programs which are in the direct economic interest of each part to the alliance (p. 125-126).

Advocacy coalitions It has been noted by Jenkins-Smith and Sabatier that advocacy coalition includes both state and societal actors at the national, sub-national

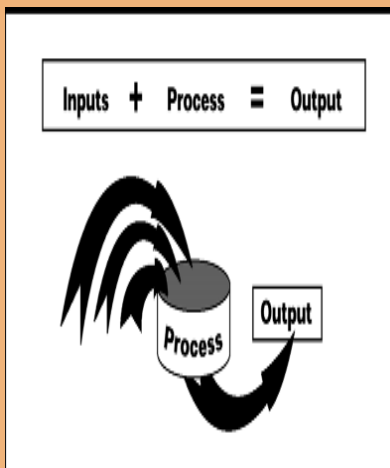
and local levels of government in which the actors come together for reasons of common beliefs and often based on their knowledge of the public problems they share and their common interests. (p. 126) **Policy networks** Peter Katzenstein refers to public policy networks as links joining the state and societal actors together in the policy process and participants are assumed to participate in these networks in order to further their own needs, which are seen as essentially material and ‘objective recognizable’ from out-side the network (p. 127-128). **Policy communities** distinction between policy communities and policy networks in studies of policy subsystems was noted in the early 1980s and ‘community’ refers to a more inclusive category of all those involved in policy formation, and to restrict ‘network’ to a subset of community members who interacted with each other on a regular bases (p. 128).

Taxonomy of policy subsystems Sabatier reports that a hegemonic community model or policy monopoly would exist when state and society actors are in general agreement about the parameters of a problem or issue and there is a clear indefinable dominate epistemic community and when there is a consensus but no dominate episteme, a *leaderless community* of equals will exist (p. 130). Lastly, the concepts of

knowledge-based policy community as an interest-based policy network has a significant impact on current studies in public policy and they a unified approach to policy determinants materials interests and ideology in public policy, comparative politics and international relations (p. 131) (see fig. 12, and fig 13).



Incremental model is fostered in the emergence of the incremental model which portrays public policy decision-making as a political process characterized by bargaining and compromise among self-interested decision-makers. Furthermore, the model views decision-making as a practical exercise concerned with solving problems at hand rather than achieving lofty goals (p. 141, 142) (see fig. 14).



Subsystem model of public decision-making John Forester claims that depending on the conditions at hand a strategy may be practical or ridiculous with time, expertise, data, and well-defined problems, technical calculations may be in order without time, data, definition, and expertise, attempting those calculations could well be a

Chapter 7 Public Policy Decision-Making—Beyond Rationalism, Incrementalism, and Irrationalism

Highlights from Chapter 7

Conceptual Issues:

- Models of decision-making
- Rational model
- Incremental model
- Garbage can model
- Subsystem model of public decision-making

Conceptual Issues: Decision

making stage of the policy

cycle received the most

attention in the early

development of the policy

sciences when analysts

borrowed heavily from the

models of decision-making in

complex organizations

developed by students of

public administration and

business organization (p. 137).

Rational model there are four

main points of rational model

activities; 1) a goal of solving

a problem is established, 2) all

alternative strategies of

achieving the goal are explored

and listed; 3) all significant

consequences of each

alternative strategy are

predicated and the probability

of those consequences

occurring is estimated; and 4)

finally, the strategy that most

nearly solves the problem or

solves it at least cost is

selected (p. 140).

waste of time. Forester notes that in complex organizational environment, intelligence networks will be as, or more, important than documents when information is needed (p. 146). **Lastly**, the essential character of the public decision-making is very much the same as that of the other stages and like earlier stages of the public policy subsystem involved and the constraints under which decision-makers operate. Forester summarizes the argument as what is relational for administrators and politicians to do 'depend on the situations in which they work (p. 149).

Chapter 8

Policy Implementation—
Policy Design and the Choice
of Policy Instrument

Highlights from Chapter 8

Conceptual Issues:

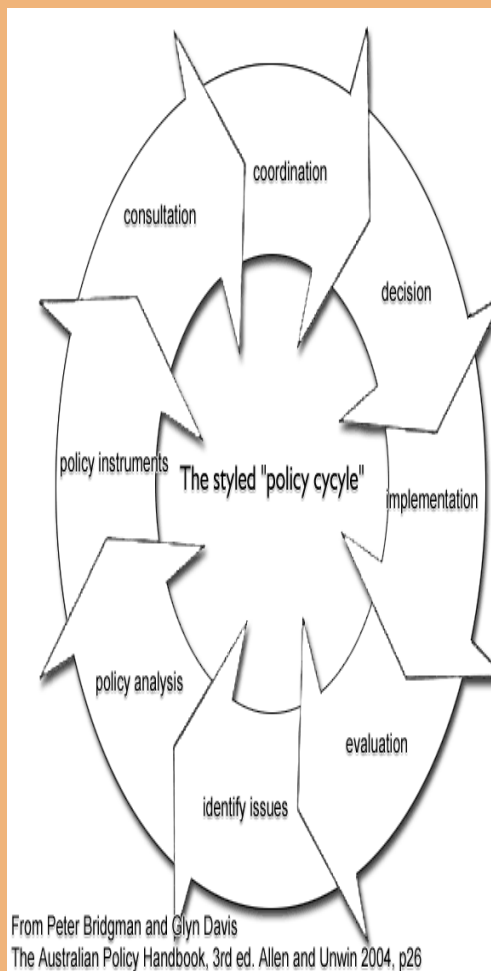
- The realities of policy implementation
- Perspective of policy implementation
- Rationales for instrument choice
- Economic models
- Political models
- Synthetic model of policy instrument choice

Conceptual Issues: when a public problem makes its way to the policy agenda, various options are proposed to resolve it, and a government has made some choice among those options, what remains is putting the decision

into practice and this is often called the policy implementation stage of the policy cycle (p. 153). **The realities of policy implementation** firstly looks at policy decisions involved varying degrees of technical difficulties during implementation, some of which are more intractable than others and the second is diversity of problems targeted by a government program may make its implementation difficult as public concern such as domestic violence or educational under-achievement are rooted in so many causes that programs designed to address single or even multiple causes can normally be expected to fall short of their objectives and the third point is the size of the target group, insofar as the larger and more diverse the group, the more difficult it is to affect its behaviour in a desired fashion (p. 155). **Perspective of policy implementation** seeks to emphasize policy design are usually referred to as the 'top down' approach to the subject and where a series of chain of command where political leaders articulate a clear policy preference which is then carried out increasing levels of specificity as it goes through the administrative machinery that serves the government. Moreover, this approach provides a clear direction for implementation to research and its emphasis on the

extent of achievement of stated objectives and on the activities of the legally-mandated implementation machinery offers clear indications of what implementers are understood and what end to have in mind (p. 156, 157). **Rationales for instrument choice** as this point addresses why a government chooses particular instruments from among the many available, and whether any distinct patterns or styles of instruments from among the many available and whether any distinct patterns or styles of instrument choice can be discerned in the policy implementation process (p. 158). **Economic models** describes how neo-classical economists generally rely on public choice theory to explain patterns of instrument use and it has been argued that in a democracy the dynamics of self-serving behaviour by voters, politicians, and bureaucrats promotes an increasing tendency to tax and spend, and to regulate and nationalize private activity. Furthermore, it is argued that democratic politics leads states to choose instruments that provide concentrated benefits to marginal voters while spreading the costs to the entire population (p. 158). **Political models** as Linder and Peters share their model of integrating various conceptions of instrument choice put forward in both the economic and political science literatures: 1) *Resource*

intensiveness, including administrative cost and operational simplicity; 2) *Targeting*, including precision and selectivity; 3) *Political risk*. Including nature of support and opposition, public visibility and chances of failure; and 4) *Constraints on state activity*, including difficulties with coerciveness and ideological principles limiting government activity (p. 161). **Synthetic model of policy instrument choice** and the range of policy tools can be reduced to four categories: 1) market, 2) family or community, 3) regulation, public enterprise, or direct provision and 4) mixed instruments and how these four general categories of instruments to specific rationales for their choice, moreover, this model claims that it is a high level of state capacity that requires to utilize market-based instruments and regulatory or direct-provision ones (p. 162-163). **Lastly** the central assumption of the political science approaches to instrument choices is that decision processes and outcomes are shaped by political factors related to state capacity and subsystems complexity that is all three approaches are identified patterns of choice exists where governments may rely on similar instruments in widely divergent circumstances (p. 164) (fig.15).



Chapter 9

Policy Evaluation—Policy Analysis and Policy Learning

Highlights from Chapter 9

Conceptual Issues:

- Types of policy evaluation
 - Judicial evaluation—judicial review and administrative discretion
 - Political evaluation—consultations with policy subsystems and the public
- Policy evaluation—policy learning

Conceptual Issues: Policy evaluation almost involves bureaucrats and politicians within government dealing with the policy in question, and it usually involves

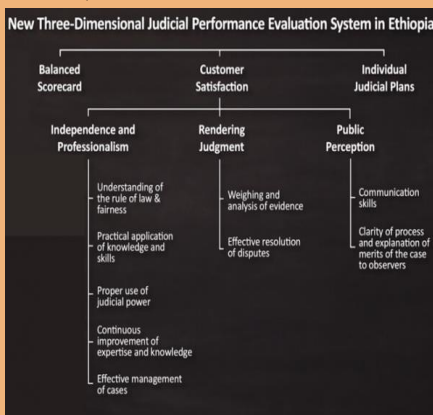
members of the public of policy subsystems as well (p. 168). **Types of policy evaluation** policy evaluations can be classified in three broad categories administrative evaluation, judicial evaluation, and political evaluation—which differ in the way they are concluded, the actors they involve, and their effects (p. 170) 1) *Effort evaluation* attempts to measure the quantity of program inputs; 2) *Performance evaluation*; examines program outputs rather than inputs; 3) *Adequacy of performance evaluation*; involves more complexity than simply adding up the program or outputs; 4) *Efficiency evaluation*; attempts to assess the costs of program and judge if the same amount and quality of outputs could be achieved more efficiently that is at a lower cost; 5) *Process Evaluation* examines the organizational methods, including rules and operating procedures, used to deliver programs (p. 170-171). **Judicial evaluation—judicial review and administrative discretion** is not concerned with budgets, priorities, efficient and expenditure, but with the legal issues relating to the manner in which government programs are

implemented and is entitled to review government action either on its own initiative or when asked to do so by an individual or organization filing a case against a government agency in a court of law. Judges will assess if the policy was developed and implemented in a non-capricious and non-arbitrary fashion according to principles of due process. (p. 173)

Political evaluation—consultations with policy subsystems and the public and political evaluation are on-going process and one of the most important occasions in democracies is at election time, when citizens get their opportunity to render judgment on the government’s performance. Furthermore, a more common type of political policy evaluation involves consultation with out members of the relevant policy subsystem (p. 174).

Policy evaluation—policy learning as Helco describes government response to a new situation on the basis of their past experience. Moreover, there are two noted definitions that describe the nature of the relationship between policy learning and policy change, but differ substantially in their approach to the issue. Hall suggests that learning is a part of the normal public policy

process in which decision-makers attempt to understand why certain initiatives may have succeed while others failed and if the policies change as a result of learning the impetus for change originate within the formal policy process (p. 175-177). **Lastly** this section on policy evaluation is part of a process of policy learning also assists in clarifying how and why policies change (p. 178) (Fig. 16, 17).



Chapter 10

Policy Styles, Policy Paradigms and the Policy Cycle

Highlights from Chapter 10

- Normal and paradigmatic patterns of policy change
- Normal policy change—policy style
- Punctuated equilibrium model of paradigmatic policy change
- Conclusion—policy subsystems policy learning and policy change
- Executive summary

Normal and paradigmatic patterns of policy change

describes two types of distinct policy learnings ‘lesson-drawing’ and ‘social learning’ that affect the manner in which governments, members or policy subsystems, and the public evaluate and alter public policies (p. 186).

Normal policy change—policy style can be explained in a number of ways but most analyses attribute continuity in policy-making to the fact that the same set of actors is typically in the policy process over a long period of time. Lindblom suggests that a propensity for policy change to analysis of the marginal differences among existing and proposed policy options; policy-makers must bargain among themselves to arrive at a decision, and therefore are unlikely to overturn agreements based on past

negotiations and compromises (p. 185). The two most significant variables affecting a policy style are 1) structure of the relevant policy subsystem, including the range of ideas and actors found within it, their relations to each other, and the extent to which they enjoy public support, and 2) state autonomy, including its administrative capacity and the nature of the resource constraints under which it operates (p. 187). **Punctuated equilibrium model of paradigmatic policy change** Derek Phillips has noted that paradigms are closed logical systems change can only be revolutionary—all at once. The entire paradigm must be totally accepted or totally rejected, there is no middle way...and the formulation of paradigms as coherent wholes, all of whose parts 'hold together' Kuhn has forced upon us a distinction between normal and revolutionary phases in sciences (p. 188). Peter Hall has been identified as the person that has done the most to develop the concept of policy paradigm by suggesting that the broad goals behind policy, is related to problems or puzzles that policy makers have to solve to get there, and in large measure, the kind of instruments that can be used to attain these goals, as like in

gestalt this framework is all the more powerful because it is largely taken for granted and rarely subject to scrutiny as a whole and it is likely that policy-makers in all fields are led by some paradigm, even though complexity of the paradigm may vary considerably across fields (p. 190). **Conclusion—policy subsystems policy learning and policy change** normal and paradigmatic policy types differ and the key actors in both forms of change are policy subsystems such in normal policy development the critical activity undertaken by a subsystem is a form of policy learning 'lesson drawing' which allows for change to occur within an established policy style without altering the fundamental elements of that policy. Paradigmatic policy changes represent a significant, though not necessarily total, break from the past in terms of the overall policy goals, the understanding of the public problems, solutions to them and the policy instruments used to put decisions into effect (p. 193).

Executive Book Summary: Studying Public Policy; Policy Cycles and Policy Subsystems: This book provides an excellent primer for anyone interested in understanding

how the various stages of a policy cycle and problem-solving occur. Furthermore, a general taxonomy of goods and services are applied and examined, actors and institutions that participate in the policy process are identified. The importance of the many types of instruments that are used in policy making and the four types of decision-making styles are vital in developing one's own style. Policy learning and evaluations are a must when establishing a solid and transparent model of policy. The process of policy paradigm change and the components of a policy style are explained well in this book. This is an excellent resource that can be used to understand the world of politics and how governments and communities intertwine with each other when bringing forward issues to political table. Lastly, this book is a tool that provides an easy step-by-step process in which the reader can follow in layman terms in learning how policies are created and implemented.

References

Howlett. M., Ramesh, M. (1995) Studying Public Policy. Policy Cycles and Policy Subsystems, Oxford University Press.

Fig 1

<https://www.dreamstime.com/photos-images/public-policy.html>

Fig. 2

<http://www.giarts.org/article/tools-support-public-policy-grantmaking>

Fig. 3

http://www.sptrb.ca/web/SPTRB/Newsletters/SPTRB/NewsLetter_List.aspx?hkey=5d0fb3dc-c594-40d3-8885-34dc50b7f681

Fig. 4 SPTRB logo:

http://www.sptrb.ca/web/SPTRB/Newsletters/SPTRB/NewsLetter_List.aspx?hkey=5d0fb3dc-c594-40d3-8885-34dc50b7f681

<https://paulcairney.files.wordpress.com/2013/08/chapter-2-20-8-13-cairney-policy-policymaking-uk.pdf>

Fig 5

<https://www.google.ca/search?q=actors+and+institutions+of+policy+images&hl=en-CA&gbv=2&tbm=isch&prmd=ivns&ei=D7qhWamEOujQjwT7tZPwCw&start=80&sa=N>

Fig.6

<http://www.bing.com/images/search?q=Division+of+government+powers+images&qpv=Division+of+government+po>

[wers+images&qpv=Division+of+government+powers+images&qpv=Division+of+government+powers+images&FORM=IGRE](http://www.bing.com/images/search?q=Division+of+government+powers+images&qpv=Division+of+government+powers+images&FORM=IGRE)

Fig. 7

<https://www.google.ca/search?q=Policy+instrument+images&hl=en-CA&gbv=2&prmd=ivns&tbm=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwjW6NCJ7vXVAhUh6YMKHcnnBMgQsAQIFA>

Fig. 8

<https://paulcairney.files.wordpress.com/2013/08/chapter-2-20-8-13-cairney-policy-policymaking-uk.pdf>

Fig. 9

https://www.google.ca/search?q=Voluntary+Organizations+images&hl=en-CA&gbv=2&tbm=isch&oq=Voluntary+Organizations+images&gs_l=img.3...35903.44892.0.45223.8.8.0.0.0.261.916.2j5j1.8.0....0...1.1.34.img..5.3.527.5XLwEUr258k

Fig 10

<https://www.slideshare.net/jobitonio/public-policy-23310782>

Fig. 11

<https://publichealth.jmir.org/2015/2/e21/>

Fig. 12

<https://www.slideshare.net/dgpazegovzpi/rebecca-schild-engaging-policy-communities-online>

Fig. 13

<http://www.managementguru.net/factors-influencing-policy-formulation-and-decision/>

[net/factors-influencing-policy-formulation-and-decision/](http://www.managementguru.net/factors-influencing-policy-formulation-and-decision/)

Fig. 14 <http://pipka.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/bridgman-and-davis.gif>

Fig. 15

<http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/101017/chapters/Rational-Thinking-as-a-Process.aspx>

Fig. 16

<https://projects.iq.harvard.edu/measureofjustice/blog/evolution-judicial-evaluation-ethiopia-part-1-how-did-it-all-start>

Fig. 17

<http://www.oecd.org/sti/ind/policy-evaluation.htm>

Fig. 18

<https://www.abebooks.com/first-edition/Studying-Public-Policy-Cycles-Subsystems-Howlett/14139550162/bd>