
UNIT 1 UNDERSTANDING PUBLIC POLICY

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1.0 LEARNING OUTCOME

After studying this Unit, you should be able to:

- Understand public policy, and its significance;
Describe the nature, types, and scope of public policy;
- Discuss and distinguish between policy, decision, plan, goals, policy analysis, and policy advocacy; and
- Explain the terms policy input, policy output, and policy outcome.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

'Public Policy', as an academic pursuit emerged in the early 1950s and since then it has been acquiring new dimensions, and is now attempting to acquire the status of a discipline. As a study of products of government, policy forms a significant component in several social science disciplines like political science, public administration, economics, and management. So rapid is the academic growth of public policy that many researchers, teachers, and public administrators now feel that it is becoming increasingly complex. The disciplines associated with public policy cut right across the old academic lines of demarcation. Indeed, it is this interdisciplinary quality, which makes the field of public policy interesting and thought-provoking.

In this Unit, we will discuss the meaning, nature, scope, types and significance of public policy. In addition, an attempt will be made to explain the changing conceptualisation of 'public' and 'private' domains in the study of public policy.

1.2 SIGNIFICANT CONCEPTS: PUBLIC AND POLICY

Public policy is a frequently used term in our daily life and in academic literature, where we often make references to national health policy, education policy, wage policy, agricultural policy, foreign policy and so on. It is an area, which had to do with those spheres that are labelled as public. The concept of public policy presupposes that there is a domain of life that is not private or purely individual, but common.

In the past, studies on public policy were dominated by researchers and students of political science. They broadly concentrated on the institutional structure and philosophical justifications of the government. The focus was rarely on the policies themselves. Political science was to some extent preoccupied with the activities of the various political institutions and groups in relation to their success in the pursuit of political power. It hardly recognised the role, which such organisations played towards the formation of policy as one of its main concerns. Yet, policy is an important element of the political process.

Thomas Dye, a leading scholar of policy analysis, observes, "Traditional (political science) studies described the institutions in which public policy was formulated. But unfortunately, the linkages between important institutional arrangements and the content of public policy were largely unexplored." He further notes that today the focus of political science is shifting to public policy, that is, to the description and explanation of the causes and consequences of government activity. While the concern of political science about the processes by which public policy is determined has increased, most students of public administration would acknowledge that the public servants themselves are intimately involved in the shaping of the policies. The study of public administration has hitherto tended to concentrate on the machinery for the implementation of given policies. It has attended to the organisation of public authorities, the behaviour of public servants and increasingly, the methods of resource allocation, administration and review. With such an approach, it is difficult to determine much about the way policy is formulated, although it is generally contended that the experience of policy implementation feeds back into the furtherance of the policy-making process. It is an effort to apply political science to public affairs, but has concerns with processes which are within the field of public administration. In brief, past studies on public policy have been mainly dominated by scholars of political science and public administration and have tended to concentrate more on the content of policy and the process of its formulation and implementation. The study of public policy has evolved into what is virtually a new branch of the social science; it is called policy science. This concept of policy science was first formulated by Harold Lasswell in 1951.

i) The Idea of Public

It is first important to understand the concept of 'public' for a discussion of public policy. We often use such terms as 'public interest', 'public sector', 'public opinion', 'public health', and so on. The starting point is that 'public policy' has to do with those spheres, which are so labelled as 'public' as opposed to spheres involving the 'private'. The public dimension is generally referred to 'public ownership' or control for 'public purpose.' The public sector comprises that domain of human activity, which is regarded as requiring governmental intervention or common action. However, there has always been a conflict between what is public and what is private. W.B. Barber

(as quoted in Massey, 1993) argues that the public sector has ten key differences from the private sector, that is:

- It faces more complex and ambiguous tasks.
- It has more problems in implementing its decisions.
- It employs more people with a wider range of motivations.
- It is more concerned with securing opportunities or improving capacities.
- It is more concerned with compensating for market failure.
- It engages in activities with greater symbolic significance.
- It is held to strict standards of commitment and legality.
- It has a greater opportunity to respond to issues of fairness.
- It must operate or appear to operate in the public interest.
- It must maintain minimal levels of public support.

Public administration emerged as an instrument of the state for securing 'public' interest rather than 'private' interests. Whereas for the political economists, only markets could balance private and public interests, the new liberalism is based upon a belief that public administration is a more rational means of promoting the public interest. For Max Weber, the growth of bureaucracy was due to the process of rationalisation in industrial society. The civil servant is a rational functionary whose main task is to carry out the will of those elected by the people. Public bureaucracy is, therefore, different to that which exists in the private sector because the former is motivated to serve the public interest. The rational public interest argument started eroding after the Second World War. To Herbert Simon, bureaucracies exhibit a large measure of 'bounded rationality'. According to Mueller, bureaucrats do not always function in the public interest and display an inclination to have distinct goals of their own. In this connection, in his work on a comparative study of bureaucracy, Aberbach observes, "The last quarter of this century is witnessing the virtual disappearance of the Weberian distinction between the roles of the politician and the bureaucrat, producing what may be labelled a pure hybrid." The public and private sectors reveal themselves as overlapping and interacting, rather than as well-defined categories.

ii) The Concept of Policy

Like the idea of 'public', the concept of 'policy' is not a precise term. Policy denotes, among other elements, guidance for action. It may take the form of:

- a declaration of goals;
- a declaration of course of action;
- a declaration of general purpose; and/or
- an authoritative decision.

Hogwood and Gunn specify ten uses of the term 'policy', that is policy as a label for a field of activity; an expression of desired state of affairs; specific proposals; decisions of government; formal authorisation; a programme; an output; an outcome; a theory or model; and a process. Unfortunately, the policy itself is something, which takes different forms. There is a thrust to designate policy as the 'outputs' of the political system, and in a lesser degree to define public policy as more or less inter-dependent policies dealing with different activities. Studies of public policy, on the contrary, have tended to focus on the evaluation of policy decisions in terms of specified values – a rational rather than a political analysis. The magnitude of this problem can be recognised from the other definitions, which have been advanced by scholars in this field. Y. Dror, an pioneer among

scholars of the policy sciences, defines policies as general directives on the main lines of action to be followed. Similarly, Peter Self opines policies as changing directives as to how tasks should be interpreted and performed. To Sir Geoffrey Vickers, policies are "... decisions giving direction, coherence and continuity to the courses of action for which the decision making body is responsible". Carl Friedrich regards policy as, "... a proposed course of action of a person, group, or government within a given environment providing obstacles and opportunities which the policy was proposed to utilise and overcome in an effort to reach a goal or realise an objective or a purpose". James Anderson suggests that policy be regarded as "a purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern". Taken as a whole, policy may be defined as a purposive course of action taken or adopted by those in power in pursuit of certain goals or objectives. It should be added here that public policies are the policies adopted and implemented by government bodies and officials. David Easton (1957) defines public policy as "the authoritative allocation of values for the whole society". Public policies are formulated by what Easton calls the "authorities" in a political system, namely, "elders, paramount chiefs, executives, legislators, judges, administrators, councillors, monarchs, and the like". According to Easton (1965), these are the persons who "engage in the daily affairs of a political system", are recognised by most members of the system as having responsibility for these matters and take actions that are "accepted as binding most of the time by most of the members so long as they act within the limits of their roles".

Thomas Dye's definition states, "Public policy is whatever governments choose to do or not to do". Similarly, Robert Lineberry says, "it is what governments do and fail to do for their citizens". In these definitions there is divergence between what governments decide to do and what they actually do.

1.3 NATURE OF PUBLIC POLICY

A policy may be general or specific, broad or narrow, simple or complex, public or private, written or unwritten, explicit or implicit, discretionary or detailed and qualitative or quantitative. Here the emphasis is on public policy, that is, what a government chooses as guidance for action. From the viewpoint of public policy, the activities of government can be put into three categories. *First*, activities that are attached to specific policies; *second*, activities that are general in nature; and *third*, activities that are based on vague and ambiguous policies. However, in practice, a government rarely has a set of guiding principles for all its activities. The Supreme Court of India may, through its decisions, give new interpretations to some of the articles of the Constitution, which may amount to a new policy.

A public policy may cover a major portion of its activities, which are consistent with the development policy of the country. Socio-economic development, equality, or liberty or self-reliance or similar broad principles of guidance for action may be adopted as a developmental policy or basic framework of goals. A public policy may be narrow, covering a specific activity, such as prevention of child labour or it may be broad, as women's empowerment. A public policy may be applied to a limited section of people of a country or to all its people.

Besides, each level of government – central, state and local – may have its specific or general policies. Then there are 'megapolicies'. General guidelines to be followed by all specific policies are termed as 'megapolicy'. According to Dror, 'megapolicies' form a kind of master policy, as distinct from concrete discrete policies, and involve the establishment of overall goals to serve as guidelines for the larger sets of concrete and specific policies. All policies generally contain definite goals or objectives in more implicit or explicit terms. Policies have outcomes that may or not have been anticipated.

Public policies in modern political systems are purposive or goal-oriented statements. Again, a public policy may be either positive or negative in form. In its positive form, it may involve some form of overt government action to deal with a particular problem. On the other hand, in its negative form, it involves a decision by public servants not to take action on some matter on which a governmental order is sought. Public policy has a legally coercive quality that citizens accept as legitimate, for example, taxes must be paid unless one wants to run the risk of severe penalties or imprisonment. The legitimacy of coercion behind public policies makes public organisations distinct from the private organisations. The nature of policy as a purposive course of action can be better or more fully understood if it is compared with related concepts.

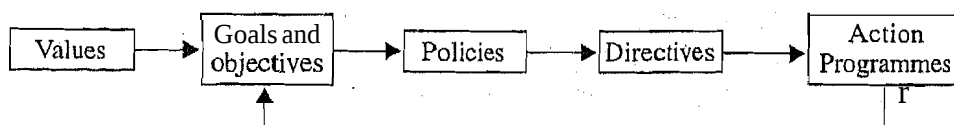
1.3.1 Policy-Making and Decision-Making

Policy-making is closely related to decision-making. However, it is not the same as decision-making. Policy-making does involve decision-making, but every decision does not necessarily constitute a policy. Decision-making often involves an identification of a problem, a careful analysis of possible alternatives and the selection of one alternative for action. Generally, decisions are taken by the administrators in their day-to-day work within the existing framework of policy. The policy decisions eventually taken, thus, provide a sense of direction to the course of administrative action.

Anderson says, "Policy decisions are decisions made by public officials that authorise or give direction and content to public policy actions". These may include decisions to issue executive orders, promulgate administrative rules, or make important judicial interpretations of laws.

1.3.2 Policies and Goals

Policies are distinct from goals and can be distinguished from the latter as means from ends. By goals or objectives, one means the ends towards which actions are directed. It is reasonable to expect a policy to indicate the direction towards which action is sought. Policies involve a deliberate choice of actions designed to attain those goals and objectives. The actions can take the form of directives to do or refrain from certain actions. Public policy is about means and ends, which have to have a relationship to each other. To say that policy-making involves a choice of goals or objectives is to argue that it deals with values. The choice of policies as well as objectives are often influenced by values. Decision-makers, including judges of the apex courts, often act on the basis of their values, beliefs or perceptions of the public interest concerning what is a proper or morally correct public policy. Thus, goals and objectives depend on the values of the policy-makers. This could be explained in the following manner:



Many students of policy sciences would like to apply science or reason (making use of the rationality model) for the determination of policy objectives and goals. They try to solve problems mainly by using such objective methods as operations research or cost-benefit analysis. Such an approach, based on a rationality model can, however, be applied only to a limited number of problems.

1.3.3 Policy-Making

Policy-making must be directed towards a specific action for attaining definite

planning. Broadly speaking, a plan is a programme of action. In this sense, a plan is a policy statement. Specific

policies may stem from plan documents, especially in India. Often the goals or policies of a plan may not be clearly stipulated in the plan documents. They may be stated only in very general or vague terms, or may sometimes be internally inconsistent or contradictory. A national development plan, broadly speaking, is a collection of targets or individual projects which, when put together, may not constitute an integrated scheme. Allocation of resources for investments and pinpointing of targets in different sectors of the economy are considered to be at the core of planning. However, it has been aptly stated that a plan needs a proper policy framework. Targets cannot be achieved just because investments are provided for. They have to be drawn within the framework of policies. Successful policies make for successful plans, and their implementation.

1.3.4 Policy Analysis and Policy Advocacy

A distinction may be drawn between policy analysis and policy advocacy. Policy analysis is nothing more than finding out the impact of policy. It is a technique to measure organisational effectiveness through an examination and evaluation of the effect of a programme. Chandler and Plano opine that policy analysis is a systematic and data-based alternative to intuitive judgements about the effects of policy and policy options. It is used for problem assessment and monitoring before the decision; and for evaluation following implementation. Policy analysis is not the same as prescribing what policies government ought to pursue. Policy advocacy is concerned with what government ought to do, or bringing about changes in what they do through discussion, persuasion, organisation, and activism. On the other hand, policy analysis is concerned with the examination of the impact of policy using the tools of systematic inquiry. Thomas Dye labels "policy analysis" as the "thinking man's response" to demands. Policy analysis has three basic concerns. *First*, its primary concern is with the "explanation" of policy rather than the "prescription" of policy. Secondly, it involves a rigorous search for the causes and consequences of public policies through the use of the tools of systematic inquiry. *Thirdly*, it involves an effort to develop and test general propositions about the causes and consequences of public policies. Thus, policy analysis can be both scientific as well as relevant to the problems of society. The role of policy analysis is not to replace but to supplement political advocacy. As Wildavsky has argued, "The purpose of policy analysis is not to eliminate advocacy but to raise the level of argument among contending interests.... The end result, hopefully, would be higher quality debate and perhaps eventually public choice among better known alternatives."

1.3.5 Policy Analysis and Policy Management

The distinction between policy analysis and policy management needs to be highlighted, though in practice these two related processes overlap to some extent. According to Dror, 'policy analysis' deals with the substantive examination of policy issues and the identification of preferable alternatives, in part with the help of systematic approaches and explicit methods. Policy management deals with the management of policy making and policy preparation process, to assure that it produces high quality policies. The interdependence of policy analysis and policy management can be seen in the necessity of assuring, with the help of appropriate policy management, that adequate policy analysis is undertaken as an integral part of management systems and, wherever necessary, by reinforcing innovativeness. Policy analysis covers several methods and concepts, some of which are quantitative in character, including methods like social experimentation, game simulation and contingency planning. Despite such distinctions between policy analysis and policy management, both are interrelated aspects of policy-making and cover a major part of the tasks of senior administrators. Therefore, it is essential that these two processes should be treated jointly.

1.4 PUBLIC POLICY: SCOPE

A significant part of the study of public policy consists of the development of scenarios and extrapolations of contemporary trends in the public domain. The scope and sheer size of the public sector has grown enormously, especially in developing countries in response to the growing public needs and demands; and the increasing impact of other trends, such as, the complexity of technology, social organisation, industrialisation and urbanisation. At present, functions of all governments in the developing countries have significantly increased. They are now concerned with the more complex functions of nation-building and socio-economic progress. Today the government is not merely the keeper of peace, the arbiter of disputes, and the provider of common goods and day-to-day services, it has, directly or indirectly, become the principal innovator, the major determinist of social and economic programmes and the main financier as well as the main catalyst for economic enterprise and development.

In many developing countries, there is great pressure on governments to accelerate national development, make use of up-to-date and relevant technological innovations, adopt and facilitate necessary institutional changes, increase national production, make full use of human and other resources, and improve the standards of living. These trends and developments have therefore enhanced both the size and scope of public policy. Public policies touch almost all stages of the citizen's life cycle. With the increasing recourse to privatisation and outsourcing by public agencies the situation is undergoing rapid change even in the developing countries. Michael Teitz wrote this nearly 40 years ago. The range of public policy is vast, that is from vital to trivial. Today, public policies may deal with such substantive areas as defence, environment protection, medical care and health, education, housing, taxation, inflation, science and technology, and so on.

1.5 TYPOLOGIES OF POLICIES

Some social scientists and scholars have attempted to discuss the typologies of policy issues. These facilitate comparison between issues and policies. Lowi, for example, suggests a classification of policy issues in terms of being: i) distributive, ii) regulatory iii) redistributive, and (iv) constituent policy issues.

Distributive **Policy** Issues

Policy issues concerned with the distribution of new resources are distributive policies. Distributive policies are meant for specific segments of society. It can be in the area of grant of subsidies, loans provision of education, welfare or health services or other public assistance schemes. Some more examples of distributive policies are adult education programme, food security, social insurance, scholarships to students from disadvantaged social backgrounds, assistance to aged, physically challenged persons, etc.

Redistributive Policy **Issues**

Redistributive policy issues are concerned with changing the distribution of existing resources. Redistributive policies are concerned with the rearrangement of policies, which are concerned with bringing about basic socio-economic changes. Certain public goods and welfare services are disproportionately divided among certain segments of the society, these goods and services are streamlined through redistributive policies. Income tax policies usually carry elements of redistribution of incomes.

Regulatory Policy Issues

Regulatory policy issues are concerned with regulation and control of activities. They deal with regulation of trade, business, safety measures, public utilities, etc. This type of regulation is done by independent organisations that work on behalf of the government. In India, the Reserve Bank of India, the Telecom Regulatory Authority of India, the Controller of Drugs and Pharmaceuticals, the Registrar General of India, the Bureau of Indian Standards, Securities and Exchange Board of India (SEBI), the Board of Control for Cricket in India (BCCI), etc. are engaged in regulatory activities. Organisations like the University Grants Commission, the All-India Council of Technical Education, and the Central Board of Secondary Education perform both promotional and regulatory activities. The Indian Medical Council, the Bar Council of India, the National Council of Teacher Education, the Pharmacy Council of India, and the Nursing Council of India are examples of regulatory agencies intended to protect the standards of the respective professions. The policies made by the government, pertaining to the relevant services, and organisations rendering these services are known as regulatory policies.

Constituent Policy Issues

Constituent policy issues are concerned with the setting-up or reorganisation of institutions. Each of these policy issues forms a different power arena. However, it may be mentioned here that Lowi's view of politics as a function of policies has been criticised as over-simplistic, methodologically suspect, and of doubtful testability. Cobbe and Elder, for instance, observe that Lowi's typology has basic limitations. It does not provide a framework for understanding change as the categories suggested become less clear and more diffuse.

Conflict Policy Issues

Cobbe and Elder propose an alternative classification of policy issues in terms of conflict rather than content. Their focus is on the way in which conflict is created and managed. To them, a conflict may arise between two or more groups over issues relating to the distribution of positions or resources. These may be created by such means and devices as presentation of an alternative policy by a contending party which perceives unfairness or bias in the distribution of positions or resources; manufacture an issue for personal or group gain; and the occurrence of unanticipated human events, natural disasters, international conflict, war and technological changes. Such issues then constitute the agenda for policy or decision-making and are known as the conflict policy issues.

Bargaining Policy Issues

Hogwood and Wilson use the criteria of costs and benefits from the point of view of the possibilities of different outcomes, forms of bargaining and conflict, and a range of alternatives. There are redistribution issues, which involve bargaining over who gets what, who gets more, and who gets less. For Wilson, criteria of costs and benefits may be concentrated or dispersed. An issue, which may have very concentrated benefits to a small section of society but whose costs are widely dispersed, may not be appreciated by one who is in favour of "the greatest happiness of the greatest number". However, such typologies involving costs and benefits exclude important dimensions of complexity, and technical or expert knowledge. Gormley, for example, suggests that the degree and kind of technical complexity will give rise to different forms of conflict.

1.6 POLICY INPUTS, POLICY OUTPUTS, AND POLICY OUTCOMES

Policy inputs are the demands made on the political systems by individuals and groups for action or inaction about some perceived problems. Such demands may include a general insistence that

government should do something about a proposal for specific action on the matter. For example, prior to the passing of the Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act of 1987, some organisations voiced a general desire for enactment of law on the 'sati-pratha' issue.

In the political system model, outputs are regarded either as effects on the environment or as 'feedback' to the political supporters of the system. Easton (1957) says that outputs are said to constitute a body or specific inducements for the members of a political system to support it, either by threats of sanctions, or rewards for support given, or by socialisation into the political norms of the society. In this sense, policy outputs are the actual decisions of the implementers. They are what a government does, as distinguished from what it says it is going to do. Examples of policy outputs relate to such matters as the education institutions built, compensation paid, or curbs on trade eliminated. Outcomes are real results, whether intended or unintended.

Policy outputs are, however, different from policy outcomes. The concept of outcomes lays stress on what actually happens to the target groups intended to be affected by the policy. If the intended changes on target groups do not occur, or if they produce unintended consequences, something is wrong. Labour welfare policies in India may be used to illustrate this point. Although one can measure welfare policy outputs, the number of persons helped, the amount of benefits paid, the safety net provided and the like — it is difficult to measure the consequences of the policies for industrial productivity; the emergence of other power centres in the organisation, indiscipline, weakening of organisational authority, etc. are the other unintended effects. Here our intention is to evaluate the outcome of the policies or undertake an assessment as to whether the policies in question actually achieve what they are intended to achieve.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF PUBLIC POLICY

The focus in public policy is on the public and its problems. It is concerned with how issues and problems come to be defined and constructed and, how they are placed on the political and policy agenda. But it is also a study of how, why and to what effect the government pursue particular courses of action or inaction, or, as Thomas Dye puts it, "what governments do, why they do it, and what difference it makes."

It is clear from the above sections of the Unit that policy is a purposive course of action in dealing with a problem or a matter of concern within a specific timeframe. Before going into the question of importance that is attached to policy formulation, implementation, and monitoring, it would be better to recapitulate the components of public policy.

- i) Policy is purposive and deliberately formulated. Policy must have a purpose or a goal. It does not emerge at random or by chance. Once a goal is decided the policy is devised in such a way that it determines the course of action needed to achieve that goal.
- ii) A policy is well thought-out and is not a series of discrete decisions.
- iii) A policy is what is actually done and not what is intended or desired; a statement of goals does not constitute a policy.
- iv) Policy also delineates a time frame in which its goals have to be achieved.
- v) Policy follows a defined course of action in a sequential order viz., formulation, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation.

Actually the scope of public policy is determined by the kind of role that the state adopts for itself in a society. In the nineteenth century, the state was assigned a limited role and it was expected that it would merely act as a regulator of social and economic activity and not its promoter. However, since the middle of the twentieth century, the state has come to be perceived as an active agent in

promoting and shaping societies in its various dimensions. As a consequence, public policies expanded their scope from merely one of regulation to that of promoter development and enterprise. In many developing countries like India, the activist role of the state meant the assumption of responsibility for the formulation of long-term development plans and policies to set the direction, which the country would follow. So, the first major goal of public policies in our country has been in the area of socio-economic development. Wide-ranging policies were formulated in the area of industrial and agricultural development, regulation and control of the private sector. From time to time, the spheres of the state and non-state sectors, and the type of goods to be produced have been specified. As a concomitant to changing policies, controls have been introduced or liberalised. With the onset of liberalisation, policies of deregulation were introduced. In India, the government undertook a major responsibility in the social sphere too. The enactment of the Anti-Dowry Act, Divorce Act, etc., are examples of this. A number of policies aimed at national integration, protection to disadvantaged groups have come into force. Empowerment of women, and decentralisation and devolution of authority to local bodies have been adopted as major constitutional policies. Indian experience with public policy indicates that current policies need not reflect pre-existing notions or perspectives about the role of the state. But, at any given point of time, they represent the means of governance.

These days policy analysis is acquiring a lot of importance in the realm of the study of public administration. This trend is observable all over the world. The degree of effectiveness in policy formulation, execution, and monitoring ultimately would depend to a large extent upon the rigour in policy analysis. Policies may also go haywire, as Indian realised, in the aftermath of the foreign exchange crisis of 1990-91. The 'highs' and the 'lows' in the role of the state provide learning experiences to the policy analyst.

The policy analyst should also be open to new conceptualisations and frameworks for analysis. For instance, theorists of public administration found it difficult to sustain the classical concept of separation of politics and administration. This distinction categorised policy formulation and implementation as two distinct activities. Policy formulation was regarded as a political activity, and policy implementation as an administrative one. But this distinction got increasingly blurred and it was not an easy task to determine where policy formulation ended, and where policy implementation began. It came to be accepted that both were interactive processes and had to be seen in an integrated way. With this change in the conceptual and analytical arena, scholars of public administration began to devote greater attention to the deficiencies in policy formulation as also to matters relevant to the influence of policy design on implementation.

1.8 CONCLUSION

On the basis of discussion in this Unit, it can be stated that the field of public policy has assumed considerable importance. It is not only concerned with the description and explanation of the causes and consequences of government activity, but also with the development of scientific knowledge about the forces shaping public policy. Although the subject is of recent origin, it has incorporated many refinements in the conceptual and methodological apparatus, thereby enabling it to meet the requirements of theoretical depth and analytical rigour.

1.9 KEY CONCEPTS

Policy sciences : Policy sciences is the discipline concerned with explaining the policy-making and policy-executing processes; and with locating data and providing explanations that are relevant to policy analysis.

Operation Research : It is used to describe the discipline of applying advanced analytical techniques to help make better decisions to solve problems. The prevalence of operations research in the Nation's economy reflects the growing complexity of managing large organisations, which require the effective use of money, materials, equipment, and people. Operations research analysts help to determine better ways to coordinate these elements by applying analytical methods from mathematics, science, and engineering.

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1.11 ACTIVITIES

- 1) Distinguish between policy inputs, policy outputs, and policy outcomes. Describe briefly with suitable examples.
- 2) "Public policy is the authoritative allocation of values" (Easton). Discuss.
- 3) On the basis of typologies of policies, explain any three categories of policy issues with examples.