

*Best Practice on Environmental Policy in Asia and the Pacific: Chapter 8*

# Lessons, Conclusions, and Recommendations from the RISPO Good Practice Case Studies

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Environmental policymakers in developing countries, including those of the Asia-Pacific region, often face a tough dilemma. They realize that formulating good policy requires careful consideration of various options to arrive at policies that are well suited to the particular circumstances of their country or area, but can still achieve the desired end. At the same time, they are subject to significant pressure, both domestic and international, to define and implement policies quickly. The Institute for Global Environmental Strategies (IGES) has been gathering and analyzing case studies of good environmental policy practices, with a strong focus on the Asia-Pacific region, in order to help policymakers make better policy decisions based on the experiences of others facing similar challenges. This paper completes the series of eight linked papers presented in this special issue of the *International Review for Environmental Strategies*. Based on the analyses in the preceding papers and on a textual pattern-matching exercise carried out on the whole database of good practice case studies gathered under the Research on Innovative and Strategic Policy Options (RISPO) project, this paper makes recommendations and draws lessons and conclusions for environmental policymakers.

*Keywords:* environmental policy, good practices, lessons learned, recommendations

## 1. Introduction

Modern environmental policy is an essential tool in moving towards sustainable development. For developing countries in Asia-Pacific, however, selection of the most appropriate policies is no longer as simple as copying policies previously adopted in developed countries. There is ample evidence that environmental policy must be carefully matched to current economic, social, political, and cultural conditions—plus institutional capacities—for it to be effective. Unfortunately, few nations appear to have any formal comprehensive policy-appraisal system in place that would help to avoid selecting inappropriate policy instruments.

Between 2002 and 2005, the Institute for Global Environmental Strategies (IGES) led an Asia-Pacific-wide research project in collaboration with several other institutes, called Research on Innovative and Strategic Policy Options (RISPO), to gain a better understanding of how developing countries in Asia and the Pacific have approached environmental policy choices. Through this study, IGES developed and

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**Table 1.** Environmental policy trends and subthemes for the RISPO good practice case studies

Policy trends	Subthemes
Accelerating the societal shift to a post-fossil fuel era.	Innovative finance for renewable energy development. Promotion of biomass energy use.
Finding material and energy-efficiency gains outside major industries.	Inter-boundary recycling market for promoting a resource-recycling society  Improving environmental performance of small and medium enterprises
Orienting urban life to ecological principles.	Development of environmentally sustainable transport systems in urban areas
Retreat of “big” government and co-option of civil society into natural resource management.	Promoting environmental education by NGOs Facilitating protected-area management using community-based tourism Promoting sustainable resource management based on local/indigenous knowledge

currently maintains two online knowledge-based tools—the Good Practices Inventory and Strategic Policy Options—in the expectation that policymakers in developing countries of Asia and the Pacific will find the experience of other countries useful when drawing up their own policies. More information about RISPO and the data collection methods for the Good Practices Inventory can be found in chapter 3 of this series of linked chapters. (King and Mori 2007).

As the objective of the research was to uncover innovative policies and policy instruments as well as cases of well-known policies being applied in new settings, the case studies and policy options were collected under eight subthemes that are at the cutting edge of policy development trends in Asia and the Pacific and were thought to be likely to demonstrate innovative approaches and policy instruments. As well as presenting the good practices and the strategic policy options in database form, it was decided to carry out further research to find out what patterns could be found and what lessons these might yield for policymakers in developing countries, especially in Asia and the Pacific.

The findings of the studies into the four main policy trends—accelerating the societal shift to a post-fossil fuel era; finding material and energy-efficiency gains outside major industries; orienting urban life to ecological principles; and retreat of “big” government and co-option of civil society into natural resource management—are presented in the previous chapters in the linked series of papers in this special issue of the *International Review for Environmental Strategies* (Ogihara, Gueye, King, and Mori 2007; Takahashi, Hashi, King, and Mori 2007; Matsumoto, King, and Mori 2007; Sawhney, Kobayashi, Takahashi, King, and Mori 2007).

This is the final paper in the series and presents the findings from applying textual pattern-matching analysis to all of the good practices examined in the research exercise. On the basis of this it draws conclusions and makes recommendations for environmental policymakers.

## 2. Approach and methodology

### 2.1. Research hypotheses

A review of the evolution and diffusion of environmental policy over the past 30–40 years leads to the following hypotheses, which were tested in the research:

Hypothesis 1: Innovative environmental policies emerged in response to increasing recognition of the interaction between environment and other sectors, but only as particular problems were identified and governments were pressured to react by concerned stakeholders.

Hypothesis 2: Although there has been relatively little innovation in the formulation of environmental policies in developing countries compared with the developed countries, they have shown much more innovation and diversity in policy implementation, reflecting particular national circumstances.

Hypothesis 3: Environmental policy innovation in developing countries of Asia and the Pacific, in the few cases where it has emerged, has built on unique cultural and social characteristics.

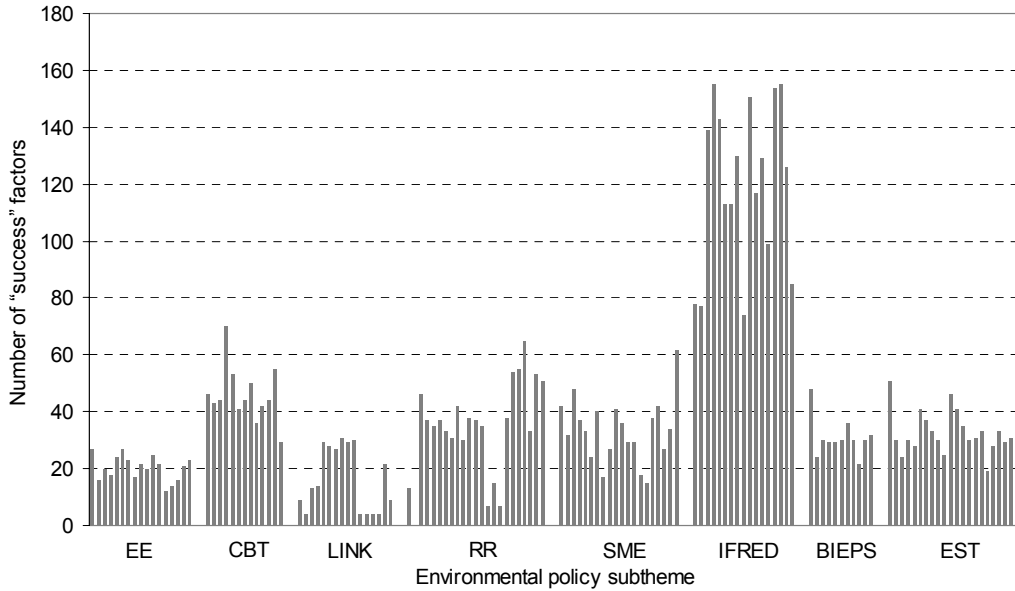
Hypothesis 4: Lack of a supportive policy framework and suitable market conditions act as impediments to environmental policy innovation and adaptation.

### 2.2. Methodology

This study combines the findings of the 139 good practice case studies under all of the environmental policy trends and policy subthemes (see table 1). A textual pattern-matching technique was applied to all of the case studies to find the aggregate frequency of occurrence of 540 “success factors”—factors believed likely to affect the success of environmental policies—which were identified by the RISPO researchers based on the literature review. It was assumed that those factors that occurred in a large proportion of the case studies were more likely to be important for the success of the policy. The findings of this analysis were analyzed alongside the findings of the other thematic studies presented in this series, in order to answer the research question and hypotheses and to draw conclusions and recommendations for environmental policymakers in Asia and the Pacific. A full description of the methodology used in the study can be found in chapter 3 of this linked series of papers (King and Mori 2007). All of the case studies can be found in the RISPO Good Practices Inventory (<http://www.iges.or.jp/APEIS/RISPO/inventory/db/index.html>).

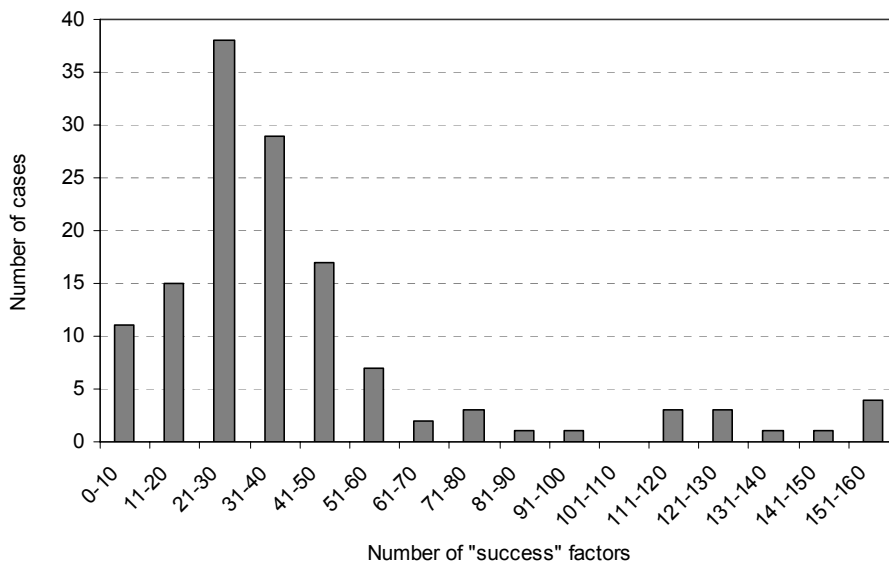
## 3. Textual pattern-matching

From the frequency analysis, observations were drawn regarding the most common explanatory variables, across all 139 cases, across countries, and across subthemes. On average, about 33 explanatory variables were recorded per case (figure 2). The cases in the policy subtheme “innovative finance for renewable energy development” showed the largest number of “success” factors, while “promoting sustainable resource management based on local/ indigenous knowledge” and “promoting environmental education by NGOs” showed the fewest (figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Numbers of “success” factors found in case studies, by policy subtheme

*Note:* EE = promoting environmental education by NGOs; CBT = facilitating protected-area management using community-based tourism; LINK = promoting sustainable resource management based on local/indigenous knowledge; RR = inter-boundary recycling market for promoting a resource-recycling society; SME = improving environmental performance of small and medium enterprises; IFRED = innovative finance for renewable energy development; BIEPS = promotion of biomass energy use; EST = development of environmentally sustainable transport systems in urban areas.



**Figure 2.** Numbers of “success” factors found in case studies, by number of case studies

**Table 2.** Selected “actor” success variables, as percentage of all case studies in the RISPO Good Practices Inventory

Variable	Policy trend 1 post-fossil fuel era (n = 28) (%)	Policy trend 2 resource efficiency (n = 43) (%)	Policy trend 3 urban ecology (n = 22) (%)	Policy trend 4 co-option of civil society (n = 46) (%)	Total cases (n = 139) (%)
1. Political factors	17.9	11.6	4.5	13.0	12.2
2. Stakeholders	92.9	79.1	36.4	84.8	77.0
2.2 Civic engagement	92.9	74.4	36.4	82.6	74.8
2.2.1.5 Active NGOs	7.1	4.7	0.0	45.7	18.0
2.2.1.7 Networking	7.1	46.5	0.0	52.2	33.1
2.2.1.9 Multiple stakeholders	64.3	11.6	0.0	60.9	36.7
2.2.1.3 Private sector	75.0	27.9	0.0	19.6	30.2
3. Institutional factors	100.0	88.4	100.0	84.8	91.4
3.4 Funding	85.7	55.8	90.9	58.7	68.3
3.10 Private/public sector cooperation	25.0	58.1	59.1	30.0	36.0
3.7 Civil society organizations and non-governmental organizations	14.3	18.6	22.7	67.4	34.5
3.6 Consultants/researchers/ think tanks	28.6	30.2	40.9	26.1	30.2
3.3 Sub-national/local government.	42.9	7.0	86.4	13.0	25.2
3.4.1 National government	42.9	27.9	18.2	21.7	27.3

### 3.1. Actor variables

The first set of success variables that were examined were concerned with actors involved in policy processes. The variables occurring most frequently in the full RISPO Good Practice database are shown in table 2, expressed as the percentage of the cases in the database in which each variable occurred.

Lack of political will is often cited as a major obstacle for successful environmental policy implementation. It was therefore surprising that relatively few of the good practice cases (12.2 percent) noted the role of politicians or even the importance of a democratic political system. Evidently the involvement of non-government stakeholders has made a much more important contribution overall, occurring in more than 80 percent of cases in three out of four of the policy trend areas (the exception being the area of sustainable urban transport). In relation to institutions, apart from the clear importance of adequate funding to most of the cases, four groups—the private sector; civil society organizations and non-governmental organizations (NGOs); consultants, researchers, and think tanks; and local and national governments—all ranked roughly alike in importance, with some variance across the groups.

**Table 3.** Most frequently encountered “process” variables, as percentages of all case studies in the RISPO Good Practices Inventory

Variable	Policy trend 1 post-fossil fuel era (n = 28) (%)	Policy trend 2 resource efficiency (n = 43) (%)	Policy trend 3 urban ecology (n = 22) (%)	Policy trend 4 co-option of civil society (n = 46) (%)	Total cases (n = 139) (%)
4. Policy formulation process	92.9	83.7	100.0	52.2	77.7
4.1 Preparation phase	71.4	58.1	100.0	4.3	49.6
4.1.1 Setting goals and objectives	50.0	25.6	100.0	4.3	35.3
4.2 Formulation phase	89.3	74.4	54.5	45.7	64.7
5. Linkages with other policy levels	46.4	25.6	18.2	30.4	32.4
6. Policy implementation	100.0	88.4	100.0	47.8	79.1
6.6.4 Technical support	39.3	76.7	4.5	23.9	40.3
7. Progress monitoring and policy revision	67.9	34.9	18.2	32.6	38.1

**Table 4.** Most frequently encountered “content” variables, as percentages of all case studies in the RISPO Good Practices Inventory

Variable	Policy trend 1 post-fossil fuel era (n = 28) (%)	Policy trend 2 resource efficiency (n = 43) (%)	Policy trend 3 urban ecology (n = 22) (%)	Policy trend 4 co-option of civil society (n = 46) (%)	Total cases (n = 139) (%)
8.1 Command-and-control type	50.0	39.5	19.6	35.7	33.8
8.2 Market-based instruments	54.5	51.2	21.7	82.1	48.2
8.3 Voluntary agreements	0.0	53.5	32.6	10.7	29.5
8.4 Informational regulation	4.5	25.6	13.0	17.9	16.5
8.5 Direct intervention	50.0	7.0	2.2	21.4	15.1
8.6 Creation of new markets	0.0	27.9	37.0	39.3	28.8

Most of this variance can be explained by the policy trends selected; for example, one would expect that civil society organizations and NGOs to be important under policy trend 4 (retreat of “big government” and co-option of civil society into natural resource management), and local government to be important to policy trend 3 (orienting urban life to ecological principles).

Some of the least frequently mentioned actor variables were green political parties (0 percent), constitutional provisions (0 percent), and democratic traditions (1.4 percent). While these actor variables would presumably assist in creating a supportive political environment, clearly good practices in the environmental domain need not wait for them to emerge. In addition, it is often asserted that conflicting groups should be brought into the decision-making process because if they are not engaged they can

undermine good work done by others. In the 139 cases examined, there was barely any mention of negotiated agreements on policies (0 percent), conflicting groups (2.9 percent), or conflict (7.2 percent). Where conflict had been successfully mediated, the principal actors were the judiciary and domestic interest groups.

### **3.2. Processes**

The most frequent set of process variables is summarized in table 3. As the good practice cases were intended to focus on policy implementation, it was surprising that the pattern matching identified a relatively large number of cases where the importance of policy preparation and formulation processes was noted.

Table 3 also shows that one of the most important factors for implementation was the availability of technical support. Where funding comes partly from an external source, the technical support is likely to be from consultants or other policy entrepreneurs, who learn by doing and then transfer their policy experience to new situations.

It is also important to note the surprising absence of some success factors that a review of the literature on policymaking might suggest would feature. For example, there was hardly any evidence of modeling or scientific research as a precursor to policy formulation. Scenario planning was used in only two cases, and there was little documentation of the policies, either in legal form or in plain language. This suggests that even today in developing countries policies are adopted without sufficient heed to the potentially negative consequences of direct policy transfer from developed countries. It also suggests that additional research needs to be undertaken on how policymakers in Asia actually carry out their job. Finally, it serves as a warning that recommendations for the introduction of more formal, systematic policy-appraisal mechanisms may not find much support.

### **3.3. Policy content**

Table 4 summarizes the most frequently encountered policy content variables from the 139 cases in the database. The case studies demonstrate the importance of policy mixes in best practice examples. Although the policymakers' intention may have been to introduce one of the new generation of environmental policy initiatives, frequently the threat, or the reality, of the introduction of command-and-control measures tips the balance towards successful outcomes. Possibly the newest form of policy content, "informational regulation", where the provision of environmental information to the public is made mandatory, has yet to have its full impact and may be expected to grow in popularity in the near future.

There appears to be little significant difference in the frequency of occurrence of success factors in the different regional groupings used in the analysis (see table 5). Although the number of cases from Europe was quite low, they tended to represent the new "soft" environmental policy initiatives, with a less heavy hand from government (although this may represent bias in the selection of cases). Among the most marked differences found was that the involvement of political leaders in policy decisions appears to be more dominant in Europe than in Asia-Pacific. This could reflect greater political transparency in Europe rather than diminished engagement in the Asia-Pacific region.

**Table 5.** Most commonly encountered variables by country group, as percentages of all case studies in the RISPO Good Practices Inventory

Variable	Country groups				
	Developing Asia (%)	Industrialized Asia (%)	Latin America (%)	Europe (%)	All (%)
<i>Actors</i>					
1. Political factors	10	8	50	100	12
2. Stakeholder factors	76	83	75	100	77
3. Institutional factors	90	100	100	100	91
<i>Policy processes</i>					
4.1 Policy preparation	47	50	100	100	50
4.2 Policy formulation	78	67	100	100	78
5. Linkages with other policy levels	33	33	25	0	32
6. Policy implementation	78	92	100	50	79
7. Progress monitoring and policy revision	38	32	25	100	38
<i>Content</i>					
8.1 Command-and-control type	32	50	25	50	34
8.2 Market-based instruments	44	75	75	100	48
8.3 Voluntary agreements	30	25	0	100	29
8.4 Informational regulation	15	25	0	100	17
8.5 Direct intervention	12	25	100	0	15
8.6 Creation of new markets	29	25	25	50	29

The lack of significant differences between different regional groupings suggests that environmental policy may be regarded as a near-universal domain, and that the decades of summits and global agreements and treaties on sustainable development and management of the global commons have raised awareness sufficiently to erase the suspicions and differences between South and North that existed in the 1970s. If this is true, then one can expect increased transfer of environmental policies from South to North as well as in the opposite direction, as has been proved to some extent in the good practices related to sustainable transport

Another factor that may have influenced the adoption of new environmental policies by developing countries is globalization. Globalization influences policymakers in two ways. First, the pace of global communication has accelerated, especially with the revolution in information technology and the availability of information on the Internet. Second, companies from developed countries locating production facilities in the developing world bring with them best practice technology plus internal policies that prevent them from behaving differently in different countries. They demand a level playing field to avoid competition from domestic companies and insist that companies in their direct supply chain follow the same environmental practices, often providing technical assistance to implement the changes.



## 4. Conclusions, lessons, and recommendations

### 4.1. Review of the initial hypotheses

Returning to our starting hypotheses for the whole study, for the first hypothesis, “innovative environmental policies emerged in response to increasing recognition of the interaction between environment and other sectors, but only as particular problems were identified and governments were pressured to react by concerned stakeholders,” the breadth of sectors covered by environmental policies in Asia and the Pacific is revealed by the wide range of cases studied, from management of common property resources in remote rural areas to sophisticated urban transportation solutions. A few of the case studies suggested that policies were being implemented in response to pressure exerted by concerned external parties, especially by NGOs and donor agencies.

For hypothesis 2, “although there has been relatively little innovation in the formulation of environmental policies in developing countries compared with the developed countries, they have shown much more innovation and diversity in policy implementation, reflecting particular national circumstances,” the very high ranking of policy implementation across all policy dimensions, with the possible exception of policy trend 4 (retreat of “big” government and co-option of civil society into natural resource management), would suggest that innovation in implementation is a significant factor in the apparent success of these cases. However, the importance of technical support during implementation, often from outside the region, suggests that the source of innovation was not necessarily home-grown.

The importance of unique cultural and social characteristics asserted in hypothesis 3, “environmental policy innovation in developing countries of Asia and the Pacific, in the few cases where it has emerged, has built on unique cultural and social characteristics,” appears not to be confirmed by the evidence. Only one case mentioned the importance of cultural factors and there was no mention at all of racial or religious similarities being a factor. The literature on policy transfer suggests that ideas and lessons learned are gleaned from other countries, within the country, or locally (Dolowitz and Marsh 2000), and provided there is sufficient similarity in the circumstances demanding a policy response, then cultural and social differences may be ignored. One word of caution, however, is that policy failures often occur when international policy entrepreneurs blithely transfer policies from one setting to another, without sufficient analysis of how comparable the different settings really are. For example, consultants may move from one assignment to another, using the same policy prescriptions without an in-depth understanding of the nuances of each setting.

For hypothesis 4, “lack of a supportive policy framework and suitable market conditions act as impediments for policy innovation and adaptation,” the cases studied by Ogihara, Gueye, King, and Mori (2007) under the policy trend “accelerating the societal shift to a post-fossil fuel era” clearly indicated the potential and desirability of promoting renewable energy in the future, but also outlined the current lack of an adequate infrastructure and the political will to implement renewable-energy-related policies in the region.

## **4.2. Lessons and recommendations for environmental policymaking**

Some of the key findings from this research are as follows.

Political will and suitable market conditions are important to promote and formulate innovative environmental policies. In most cases outlined in the analysis, the enabling environment for policy innovation was lacking.

Environmental policy is undergoing rapid changes. These changes have major implications for decision makers in developing countries of Asia and the Pacific. If we understand environmental policies as “a set of principles and intentions used to guide decision making about human management of environmental capital and environmental services” (Roberts 2004), decision-makers in the region need to re-examine their principles and intentions. Governments throughout the region have signed a wide range of global and regional environmental agreements and treaties. Many of the principles that underpin these agreements form the basis of emerging “soft” law on environmental management at the global level. There is an expectation that developing countries will embody these principles through legislation and firm environmental policy at the national and sub-national levels, and properly enforce them.

In particular, the widespread belief that environmental quality inevitably takes a turn for the worse as a country expands economically needs to be carefully questioned. There is now emerging consensus that this observed phenomenon is due to slow response capacity in rapidly growing economies rather than some immutable natural law. There is no need to take a “grow now, clean up later” position, as countries may actually achieve “first-mover” advantage if they are in the forefront of innovative environmental policies. There is plenty of potential to leapfrog outmoded approaches, because most of the infrastructure and physical assets that will underpin the region’s future economic growth have yet to be constructed. Policy choices that direct manufacturers and consumers towards resource efficiency and recycling are an inevitable outcome of the realization that not all countries can expect to be as profligate as the US and Europe have been.

A break-through—a mental leapfrog—is what the South most lacks. The most adverse impact of the current industrial growth model is that it has turned the planners of the South into cabbages: believing it has no answers; only problems, for which the solutions lie in the tried and tested answers of the rich world (Narain 2006).

Throughout the environmental policy changes of the 1970s and 1980s, developing countries in Asia and the Pacific looked to developed countries as a convenient shortcut to policy formulation and institutional models. Policy transfer and policy diffusion processes have been shown by this research project to remain important learning mechanisms in Asia and the Pacific. North–South policy transfer is not the only direction for environmental policies, however, as shown in chapter 6. Policymakers are advised to (i) consider developing innovative environmental policies that are based on unique cultural and social characteristics of the country concerned; and (ii) look to other developing countries in other regions for valuable experience. Similarly, developed countries should not ignore experience in innovative environmental policies in developing countries in Asia and the Pacific.

Across the four cutting-edge trends in environmental policy development in Asia and the Pacific (accelerating the societal shift to a post-fossil fuel era; finding material and energy-efficiency gains outside major industries; orienting urban life to ecological principles; and retreat of “big” government and co-option of civil society into natural resource management), some clear success factors are held in common. In general, hypotheses related to the emerging importance of stakeholder involvement in decision-making were confirmed. For renewable energy, CSOs and NGOs have been important advocates in policies related to finding alternatives to fossil fuels, while the private sector and consumers have been important actors during implementation (Ogihara, Gueye, King, and Mori 2007). In relation to resource efficiency and recycling, private sector and local community initiatives have been in the lead rather than government policy (Takahashi, Hashi, King, and Mori 2007). In the policy transfer cases for sustainable transport, the important role of international organizations was highlighted, along with concerns that this role should be supportive rather than coercive (Matsumoto, King, and Mori 2007). In the final group of cases related to co-option of civil society, in many countries the state has started delegating responsibility to local communities, recognizing its own limitations in taking sole responsibility for management of protected areas and other important natural resources (Sawhney, Kobayashi, Takahashi, King, and Mori 2007). All of these studies tend to reveal governments as rather passive or reactive actors in finding innovative policy solutions for cutting edge problems. There is certainly plenty of space for governments in developing countries of the Asia-Pacific region to take a more proactive role in all modern environmental issues.

In relation to policy processes, emphasis seems to be placed on policy formulation and implementation. In all cases there was little attention paid to extensive preparation, including detailed research into policy alternatives, and in no case was there adequate attention to post-implementation issues such as sunset clauses, monitoring, and policy revision. If there is to be continuous improvement in policy processes then both ends of the policy cycle need increased attention. As shown in the renewable energy cases, even voluntary policy instruments are enhanced by setting clear goals and quantitative targets. Targets that are binding on industry sectors but flexible enough to allow the industries concerned to find workable solutions appear to be much more effective than governments trying to micro-manage industry choices. Assisting with technology transfer and seed funding appear to be necessary to kick start innovative renewable energy technologies, as traditional fossil fuels still carry “unfair” advantages, such as government-funded grid systems. However, governments can start with off-grid areas in developing countries, which will enable testing of technologies and economies of scale. As the renewable energy technologies become more competitive they can then tackle the fossil fuel technologies on a slightly more level playing field.

The resource efficiency and recycling cases also showed the importance of government assistance in strengthening existing markets and networks—where necessary by direct provision of facilities—such as industrial parks practising industrial ecology and advanced recycling systems. Government procurement systems for green products can also kick-start new markets for recycled and reused goods.

The environmentally sustainable transport cases illustrated the importance of political leadership, especially at the local government level, and the potential for political leaders to form close alliances across regions and share experiences. Contrary to normal expectations, these cases also demonstrated

the potential for innovative policies to originate in developing countries, suggesting that policymakers should look more broadly when considering policy transfers (Matsumoto, King, and Mori 2007). Countries with similar recent development experience may be better sources of innovative policies than developed countries with very different social and economic histories.

The linked chapter on civil society highlights how increased participation by stakeholders, governments, local and indigenous people, NGOs, and the private sector in natural resource management in Asia results in greater resource efficiency (Sawhney, Kobayashi, Takahashi, King, and Mori 2007). It also contributes to broader devolution of power and reflects the changing attitude of governments towards people's participation. The findings provide encouragement to governments to extend community management of natural resources to other ecosystems, such as coastal fisheries or production forests.

As expected, all cases showed evidence of the new environmental policy instruments, such as voluntary agreements and market creation. What was unexpected was the continued prevalence of command-and-control regulations. It seems that the reality or threat of traditional command-and-control regulations backs up or underpins successful application of the new environmental policy instruments. An interesting area for additional research would be to investigate cases of policy failure to determine if unsuccessful application of new environmental policy instruments was due to the complete absence of command-and-control measures.

### ***4.3. Learning and recommendations for environmental policy research***

There is widespread evidence from the case studies examined by RISPO that countries in Asia and the Pacific rarely engage in the necessary level of investigation and research before adopting environmental policies. Accordingly, the knowledge gained through the RISPO project, where some 139 good practice cases have been thoroughly researched, needs to be expanded and kept up to date, but should assist policymakers. For an analysis of this research see King and Mori (2007).

Good practices are important heuristic devices for policymakers in developing countries. Practices that are demonstrated to work in other developing countries are much more useful than trying to adapt environmental policies and instruments from dissimilar conditions in developed countries. Extracting lessons across the range of good practices promises even more value than can be gauged from a single case, as there may be some success factors in common that should be replicated elsewhere.

Overall, the research methodology employed tended to reinforce existing knowledge rather than generating new insights. For future research it would be interesting to contrast successful and unsuccessful applications of the same policy instruments. Absence of the success factors revealed by this research in unsuccessful cases would tend to confirm their importance, thus providing policymakers with important information on how to create better enabling environments for successful application of innovative policies.

One of the unique insights revealed by the research that policy analysts have overlooked is the possibility of policy transfer from developing countries to both other developing countries and to

developed countries. Additional research should be carried out in areas other than environmentally sustainable transport to determine how widespread this phenomenon is.

The research demonstrates that collecting case studies representing best practice can go beyond the passive approach of entering those studies into an online database. Through qualitative research methodologies conducted by RISPO, valuable findings have been revealed that suggest improved ways to think about policy formulation, analysis, and transfer. As suggested in chapter 6, there may be value in conducting similar analysis of policies that have failed, as lessons can be drawn from failures as well as successes. The good practices analyzed in chapter 7 reflect the successful cases of people's participation in natural resource management. However, it would be interesting to look at cases where participation has failed in order to draw more comprehensive and policy relevant lessons for promoting joint management of resources. Combining success and failure factors would then provide useful inputs to policymakers throughout the Asia-Pacific region.

A missing dimension of the research was the actual motivations and thought processes of the various actors. It would be useful to understand why certain actors, such as industry leaders, have taken leadership positions in relation to innovative policies. Additional research, including structured interviews with key stakeholders, would provide important insights into why some policies have worked and others have not. Such insights would provide material for awareness raising, technical assistance, and education programs aimed at changing specific motivations and behaviors.

Finally, it is clear that there are important lessons to be learned by cross-group comparisons. Policy analysts, think tanks, and researchers providing inputs to policymakers should consider looking at domains and sectors outside their area of interest, as there may be useful lessons to be gained from environmental policies implemented in unrelated areas.

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