

**Policy Entrepreneurship Characteristics and Strategies: Insights from A Systematic
Review of 229 Case-studies**

PMRC, Singapore

Neomi Frisch-Aviram, Nissim Cohen and Itai Beerl

University of Haifa, Israel

Abstract

What lessons can we draw from 40 years of scholarship on Policy Entrepreneurship on the strategies policy entrepreneurs use, and their defining characteristics? While scholars have offered important insights, many questions remain open. This article brings together research on policy entrepreneurship, using a systematic literature review of 229 articles, published between 1984 and 2017. Our findings offer: 1) an analysis of policy entrepreneurship characteristics such as sector, policy domain, individual/group, government layer, geographical spread. 2) an empirically based identification and classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies. 3) statistical analysis of the relationship between characteristics of policy entrepreneurs and policy entrepreneurship strategies. We conclude with an agenda for future studies, examining new theoretical opportunities to advance our understanding of the role individuals and small groups play in the policy process.

Key words: policy entrepreneurs, strategies, policy process, systematic review, policy domain, government layer

Introduction

In the last 40 years, there has been a focus on the individual levels' role in the process of policy making. In all four major theories of policy change: the multiple-stream model (Kingdon 1984), the punctuated equilibrium theory (Baumgartner and Jones 2002; Beyer et al. 2017), the advocacy coalition framework (Sabatier 1988, 2006; Sabatier and Weible, 2007), and the network management approach (Klijn and Koppenjan, 2000), individual agents are needed for a policy change. Noting the important role individual agents play in the policy process, we offer a meta-review of 229 articles on policy entrepreneurship. We use this method to analyze policy entrepreneurs' characteristics and strategies, in order to better understand the policy process in different institutional settings, sectors, government levels and domains. By doing so, we reflect back on Kingdon's original statement "pre-decision processes remain relatively uncharted territory" (1984: 1).

The main limitation of the existing 40 years of empirical data that this study aims to address is that it is based on qualitative data from case study analyses of specific policy, in a specific context, and mainly on successful policy entrepreneurs who lead a successful policy change (Zahariadis, 2008). It is well known that "a case study cannot provide reliable information about the broader class, but it may be useful in the preliminary stages of an investigation since it provides hypotheses, which may

be tested systematically with a larger number of cases" (Abercrombie et al., 1984: 34). Thus, much of the literature is focused on the *species* rather than the *genus*. Our goal is to analyze the findings of this rich species literature, but also to derive theoretical and empirical claims about the genus of policy entrepreneurship and the role of the individual in policy change.

Just recently, Jones et al. (2016) have executed an important systematic review of the Multiple Streams Approach (MSA) literature, aimed to determine the scope of MSA applications and address the lacunas mentioned. They acknowledge an important gap related specifically to policy entrepreneurship. which is that " a substantial body of research has developed on policy entrepreneurs that is, at least in part, derivative of MSA" (pg. 32), and therefore not coded in their review. Thus, there is a need to analyze policy entrepreneurship apart from MSA, and 'dive in' to it and understand policy entrepreneurship as an independent phenomenon, at least conceptually.

To complete this task, we offer three core research questions that will lead the exploration of policy entrepreneurship literature for this meta-review: What are the characteristics of the policy entrepreneurs classified in the literature? What are the strategies that they use? Is there a relationship between characteristics of policy entrepreneurs and policy entrepreneurship strategies? From these questions we draw sub questions: *In which policy fields, market sectors, government layers and geographical areas are policy entrepreneurs active? are policy entrepreneurs' individual players or group players? Which policy entrepreneurship strategies are used*

in the different stages of policy making? And, what are the differences in the use of policy entrepreneurship strategies by different characteristics of policy entrepreneurs?

By answering these questions, we offer two main contributions. First, theoretically, we offer a classifying framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies using the policy cycle model. Second, we point to different policy entrepreneurship strategies under different conditions, thus linking strategies with context. The second contribution is empirical: via a systematic review of the literature, this article provides an analytical account of how policy entrepreneurship has been studied since Kingdon's seminal work in 1984.

The article continues as follows: The first section shortly briefs the theory on policy entrepreneurship characteristics and strategies. Next, we describe the methodology used to conduct the review. Next, we answer the research questions, based on the systematic-review of the literature. For every question we describe our findings, remaining lacunas and offers for future research agenda. Based on our findings, we then present a heuristic classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies in the policy cycle. Next, this framework is used to demonstrate how different policy entrepreneurship strategies are used in different government layers and sectors. In the final section, we offer concluding remarks on policy entrepreneurship theory and practice.

Policy entrepreneurship Characteristics and Strategies

The literature defines policy entrepreneurs as innovative individuals (Kingdon, 1984) or groups (Zahariadis and Exadaktylos, 2016: 61) from the private, public or third sectors (Kingdon, 1984: 122) who are willing to invest resources—time, energy,

expertise, or money—to advocate a major policy change, or resist to change (Mintrom and Norman, 2009: 650; Mintrom et al. 2014: 424). Successful policy entrepreneurs invest a great deal of effort in garnering attention for their proposed policies (Mintrom, 2000). They are active *throughout the policy process*: defining problems and placing their proposed solutions to them on the political agenda, formulating policies in the direction they desire, legitimizing them, facilitating their implementation and promoting their evaluation (Zahariadis and Exadaktylos, 2016: 62). These persistent actors are willing to risk what they have—time, money and reputation—in order to promote a policy they favor and in a hope for a future return (Kingdon, 1984: 179). It is important to note that different concepts have been used in the literature to explain the role of the individual in politics and administration, making it difficult to define, measure and understand policy entrepreneurs, as opposed to other forms of public entrepreneurship, clearly (see: Roberts and King, 1991; Schneider and Teske, 1992).

The theoretical concept of policy entrepreneurs emerged mostly from John Kingdon's (1984) influential work, which considers the role of the individual within the policy process as an explanation of why and when change occurs. In this sense, Kingdon introduced a rather new point of view on the role of individuals in shaping the policy process. The model is based on three distinct but complementary streams (processes) in policy-making: the problem, the policy and the politics. In the problem stream, many problems float around looking to be recognized. The policy stream holds the possible solutions to these problems, and many times it is the solution that searches for a problem. Finally, there is the political stream, the political atmosphere in the policy community and in the national mood (Zahariadis, 2008: XX?). Thus, it is the uniting of these streams at a given time and in a given context that allows a

particular issue to be turned into a policy. Given a window of opportunity (a limited time frame for action), policy entrepreneurs play a key role in connecting the streams by linking the problem and the solution. They are skilled and resourceful actors who unite the three streams together – problems, policies and politics – during open windows of opportunity (Ackrill et al., 2013).

Policy entrepreneurship literature has focused on strategies, yet in a partial, many times case-related context. Following a will to understand how policy entrepreneurs actually do the complicated task of coupling, Mintrom and Norman (2009: 652-654) suggest four elements that are central to policy entrepreneurs: 1) *Displaying social acuity*, 2) *Defining problems*, 3) *Building teams*, and 4) *Leading by example*. While making an important step towards identification and classification of policy entrepreneurship behavior, these defining elements confuse traits and behaviors, which are different parts of entrepreneurship behavior (Gartner, 1985). Moreover, Mintrom and Norman acknowledge that these characteristics are not enough to understand policy entrepreneurship behavior, and conclude that "there is a need for closer study of the motivations and strategies used by policy entrepreneurs" (2009, pg. 661). Another major contributor to the literature on actual strategies is Nikolas Zaharadiaz (2003; 2008) who has emphasized different strategies in different contexts, for example: problem framing and venue shopping in the case of EU policy making. This research elaborates on these insights, as well as others, to offer a classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies in different contexts.

Another important attempt for classification of policy entrepreneurship strategies comes from Ecology studies. In a focus on water entrepreneurs, Meijerink and Huitema (2010) offer a classification of policy entrepreneurship strategies: development of new ideas, coalition building, exploiting windows of opportunity, venue manipulation and network management. While anchoring this classification on 16 case studies in water management, this study is a good example of conclusions derived from a very specific domain and in a specific stage of the policy process-agenda setting.

Thus, more research is needed in order to analyze strategies of policy entrepreneurs in different policy contexts. As Cairney and Jones (2016: 20) note "The MSA has not yet developed an exhaustive taxonomy of strategies or scope conditions for their success, but some effort has gone into identifying successful strategies... Clearly more empirical research needs to be done to identify the precise elements of these and other strategies and the conditions that bring about success or failure." By expanding our review beyond a specific policy domain, country, or governance layer, we offer a classification "from the eye of the bird" that can further help understand who policy entrepreneurs are and how they operate.

Methodology

To allow "*integrations that are more than the sum of parts, in that they offer novel interpretations of findings.*" (Sandelowski, 2004: 1358), we use follow Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA) (Moher et al., 2009), a well-accepted procedure to ensure replicability and transparency in

systematic reviews. We describe our methodology in three stages: search strategy, inclusion criteria and coding process (Appendix A).

Search strategy:

We selected the period from 1984-2017 to follow Kingdon's seminal work on policy entrepreneurs, as his work provided the foundations for the discussion on the role of the policy entrepreneur in the policy process which resulted in a growing attention being given to these individuals.

To identify the articles for analysis we utilized three types of sources used in former meta-analyses in public administration (Jones et al., 2016; Tummers et al., 2015). First, we collected peer-reviewed academic articles in journals that are included in ISI web-of science and EBSCO, interdisciplinary databases, to ensure we cover as many research domains as possible. We used a number of keyword combinations to conduct searches. Examples include "entrepreneur* AND policy" (* is a truncation symbol to represent multiple spellings or endings; AND is a Boolean operator that combines search terms so that the search result contains all of the terms). The initial search generated 1914 results. Second, we used CiteNetExplorer software to analyze most cited article on policy entrepreneurship and then analyzed the publications *citing* these articles: Mintrom (1997; 2000) and Mintrom and Norman (2009). This search generated 2366 results. Third, we also used the Google Scholar database, as it includes a broad range of scientific output such as journal articles, book chapters, conference papers, and dissertations (Tummers et al., 2015). Applying the search terms to this database generated about 1970 studies--1170 journal articles, 441 book chapters, and 359 conference papers and dissertations. All searches were generated in July 2017.

In the next stage, the search results were entered into a reference management program (RefWorks) to identify and eliminate duplicate entries. Following that, we screened abstracts and titles of remaining articles using our general inclusion criteria. After removing duplicates and articles that did not match our general inclusion criteria, we had 408 articles eligible for screening of full article. In the second stage, we screened 408 full articles for our specific inclusion criteria and resulted with 229 articles for review.

Inclusion criteria:

The criteria used for inclusion in this meta-review are: (a) studies should focus on policy entrepreneurship- use this exact term to describe individuals or groups who pursue opportunities to influence the formation and outcomes of policy beyond the resources they hold and; (b) should use empirical work and; (c) Studies should contain the words policy and entrepreneur* in their title and/or abstract; (d) be published in the English language; (e) be published between the years 1984-2017; and (f) be published in an article in an international peer-reviewed journal. Papers that used other terms to describe alike phenomena, or that were only theoretical, were excluded from this review.

Coding process:

For the coding process we used conventional content analysis. Conventional content analysis is a qualitative research method used to interpret the content of text data through a systematic classification process involving coding and identifying themes (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Krippendorff, 2004). We did not start with preconceived, theory-based notions of the codes but rather allowed the data to drive

the codes and categories (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). The primary author reviewed 10 most cited articles on policy entrepreneurship and drafted a coding book, which was reviewed iteratively by other two authors, refined, and retested through consensus meetings to generate consistent definitions and examples. Following that, a coding book was generated from agreed upon codes. The coding book (see Appendix B) consisted of 53 content categories, 43 quantitative categories (numeric codes) and 10 qualitative categories (non-numeric codes). To strengthen our coding reliability, we conducted pilot coding before the formal coding process of 40 (10%) articles by the first author (Lombard et al. 2002).

Next, four additional coders were trained by the first author (who was also a coder) and the group iteratively coded and reviewed articles until reliability was established. A case-study was used for training, and reliability was calculated for all quantitative categories (first round of coding, ICR=0.81). After reliability was established, the articles were divided among the five coders, and double reliability was measured during the process of coding (for specific ICR measures see Appendix B). When issues and dilemmas arouse, the first author guided all coders on specific definitions, in order to maintain high coding reliability.

Who are you policy entrepreneurs? Policy entrepreneurship characteristics

In the coming section we offer a descriptive overview of policy entrepreneurship as it is described in the literature.

In which policy fields are policy entrepreneurs active?

We found 13 policy fields in which policy entrepreneurs are active: Agriculture, Economics, Arts, Education, Environment, Governance, Defense, Planning, Transportation, Welfare, Health, Technology, Foreign Relations (Table 1). Our findings show that the most common policy domains in which policy entrepreneurs are found in the literature are: environment (23.9%) (Neff, 2012; Mintrom and Thomas, 2017); education (13.5%) (Bartlett and Pagliarello, 2016; Elgström and Hellstenius, 2010); health (13%) (Oborn et al., 2011; Guldbbrandsson and Fossum, 2009). This correlates with recent meta-review of MSA applications (Jones et al. 2016). The less common are foreign relations (4.3%) and defense (6.5%).

Insert Table 1 here

This gap may be related to publicity, or in Kingdon's words "swings of national mood" (1984: 17), as environment education and health are publicly discussed and analyzed. This gap may also reflect the access dimension of the policy network (Zahariadis and Allen, 1995). In a more accessible, less hierarchical network, it will be easier to push through innovative policy ideas. More nuanced research is needed on different policy domains as different policy networks that allow different levels and forms of policy entrepreneurship. Comparative research should focus on policy entrepreneurship in different policy fields (Béland and Howlett, 2016). Do different policy fields yield different use of policy entrepreneurship strategies? Are the roles of policy entrepreneurship different in different policy fields? Do the chances of successful policy entrepreneurship change in different policy fields?

What is the geographical spread of policy entrepreneurship?

We coded every country in which policy entrepreneurship case-studies were found in order to account for the spread of this phenomena across the globe. We found 69 countries in which policy entrepreneurship occurred (we disinclined the EU and subnational cases where no specific countries were mentioned). When focusing on the geographical spread, 68.3% of the case-studies occurred in Western democracies in either Europe (Strand and Fosse, 2011; Sætren, 2016), North America (Anderson and Donchik, 2014; Avery, 2004) or Australia (Beeson and Stone, 2013; Howard, 2001). This, of course, raises the question if policy entrepreneurship is really more common in western democracies, or is it just more reported?

An interesting perspective on this question can be found in the rise in reported policy entrepreneurship in Eastern countries, mainly China since 2008 (Teets, 2015; Zhu, 2008; 2016). Hammond (2013), replying to the above question in some way/to some extent, explains how "The process of opening up and reform has in terms of policy studies made ... significant differences to research on China. ... those concerned with the emergence, development, and implementation of policy in China have had greater opportunities for observing and studying the policy process than would have seemed possible in the Maoist era." (2013: 119). Moreover, he argues that "There is space within the political system and hierarchy of the bureaucracy for individuals, or groups of like-minded individuals, to have an impact on the policy process." (ibid: 122). Thus, we may be overlooking policy entrepreneurship that is there outside Western democracies.

Future research should focus on how the differences in political and administrative systems affect policy entrepreneurs' motivations, behaviors and

success, as it is well known that national context can have important implications for the roles of public and private organizations (Meier et al., 2015). A special attention should be given to the application of the policy entrepreneurship framework, developed for a liberal democratic system, to a different system. The finding that most of the case-studies analyzed were conducted in a single country (87.9%), strengthen the need for cross-country comparisons that hold the possibility to further deepen these insights.

Policy entrepreneurs: individuals or groups?

In Kingdon's original work, "*Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies*" a policy entrepreneur is "a particular person, or at most a few persons, who were central in moving a subject up on the agenda and into a position for enactment" (1984: 180). Following that, also Mintrom (1997, 2000) relates to policy entrepreneurs as individuals. It is therefore interesting to find definitions as "Entrepreneurs are individual or corporate actors who operate in or out of government and who are willing to invest resources—time, energy, expertise, or money—to advocate for major policy change" (Zahariadis and Exadaktylos, 2016: 61).

We found that about one-third (37.8%) of the articles analyzed, related just to individual policy entrepreneurs (Robertson, 1988; Mintrom et al. 2014). The rest, relate to groups as policy entrepreneurs (Schön-Quinlivan and Scipioni, 2017; Mundy and Menashy, 2014), or to groups and individuals (Font and Subirats, 2010; Hofem and Heilmann, 2013). Table 1 summarizes this distribution. We can classify group policy entrepreneurship into three main groups: NGO (Appel and Barragán, 2017), institutions as policy entrepreneurs (De Rynck, 2016; Schön-Quinlivan and Scipioni,

2017) and inter-sectorial partnership (Hoyt, 2006; Abiola et al. 2013). As to NGO as group policy entrepreneurship (Fiori and Kim, 2011; Te Boekhorst et al. 2010; Edler and James, 2015), we assume that this shift correlates with the rise of the role of NGO as active players in the policy process since the 1990's (Salamon, 1994). For example, in relation to NGOs, as policy entrepreneurs in South Korea Fiori and Kim note (2011: 75) "with the beginning of the transition to democracy – the first window of opportunity – at the end of the 1980s, the paradigm changed. Social movements – central actors in the demise of authoritarian regimes – also changed their characteristics, assuming new functions and seeking new objectives. Through such transformations, social movements became – thanks to the “opening of the institutional terrain” caused by the process of democratization – agents of change in the field of welfare policy-making."

Another stream of research that relates to group policy entrepreneurship is the growing body of literature on the EU and the European Commission as a policy entrepreneur. In these case-studies, the policy entrepreneurship concept is used to describe the Commission as a policy agent capable of entrepreneurially exploiting the resources at its disposal in order to generate new policies (Copeland, and James, 2014; Kaunert, 2010).

Last, we find evidence of inter-sectoral and inter-organizational partnerships of group policy entrepreneurship, correlating with collaboration theories in policy making (). Kingdon (1984) dedicates a section relating to interest groups and their role in policy making. He draws a clear distinction between interest groups and policy entrepreneurs. Interest groups are from "business, labor and the professions"

(Kingdon, 1984: 48) and their defining role in the policy process is actually opposite to the role of the policy entrepreneur as "much of interest group activity in these processes consists not of positive promotion, but rather on negative blocking" (Kingdon, 1984: 49).

Another interesting distinction Kingdon makes is that of the policy community. Policy communities are composed of specialists in a specific policy area. Following Kingdon, and the confusion of definitions in the literature, we ask: what are the differences, if any, between policy entrepreneurs, interest groups and policy communities in motivations and strategies? Future research should focus on understanding the different roles individuals and groups play as policy entrepreneurs, and address this question.

In which government layers do policy entrepreneurs operate?

Four layers of government in which policy entrepreneurs operated (i.e, the policy level they tried to affect) were coded: local, regional, national, and transnational (see table 1). Most policy entrepreneurship was found in the national layer (41.3%), just as in Kingdon's original work that focused on the federal level. Yet, some interesting work has used Kingdon's model to analyze policy entrepreneurship on the local policy layer. Some researchers claim that on this level there may be greater control of the exogenous factors affecting policy entrepreneurship (e.g: Robinson and Eller, 2010), leading to better chances for success (Cairney and Jones, 2016: 46). Yet, policy entrepreneurship on the local level remains less common (11.6%). It is important to note that in 22.1% of case-studies more than one level of

government was identified. These case-studies are particularly interesting as they shed light on the role of policy entrepreneurs working on different government layers.

We noticed a shift to subnational policy entrepreneurship in the last 20 years. This may be connected to the recorded subnational shift of policy making (Stone and Ladi, 2015). When focusing on subnational policy entrepreneurship, 55.2% are on EU policy making, and this may indicate the scholarly focus on the concept of Europeanization (Radaelli, 2000; 2003).

From which sector policy entrepreneurs emerge?

We coded the sector of the policy entrepreneur described in the case-study. Three sectors were coded: the public sector, the private sector and the third sector (see table 1). In the public sector we coded bureaucrat or politician, in the private sector we coded citizen, business-man or advocate. In the third sector we coded NGO. Our findings show that 51.8% of the policy entrepreneurs coded are from the public sector, yet the private, the third sector, and mixed sectors put together, make up nearly half of the cases (48.2%). We found a significant relationship¹ (Chi-square= 18.89, $p > 0.01$) between sector and individual/group policy entrepreneurship. Within the public and private sectors, at least half, 50% and 63%, relatively, of the entrepreneurs were individuals, while in the third sector only 14% were individuals. This may be explained by the positional power of policy entrepreneurs in the public sector, compared to the lack of positional power of policy entrepreneurs that are

¹ Chi-square testing was performed to test relationships. The chi-square test was chosen for being a good test for categorical variables. A p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

"outside" of government and may need stronger coalitions to influence policy (Kingdon, 1984). Yet, it is interesting that policy entrepreneurs from the private sector are mostly individuals, while the third sector is mostly group policy entrepreneurship. This may be explained by different motivations for policy making amongst those players. In addition, in the public sector, 50.9% were politicians, while 49.1% were bureaucrats. This finding coheres with Kingdon's (1984: 21) notion that "the administration still figures very prominently indeed in agenda setting".

We found that there is no significant relationship (Chi-square= 5.26, p=NS) between sectors of policy entrepreneurs and the government layer in which they work in. While one may expect more diverse sectors of policy entrepreneurs in the local government layer and easier access, leaning on governance scholarship and its recent focus on network governance (for an overview see: Sørensen and Torfing, 2016) as enabling policy entrepreneurship from different sectors as well as cross-sectoral partnerships, we found no relationship between the sector of policy entrepreneur and the government layer in which he/she works in.

While Kingdon states that policy entrepreneurs can be anywhere "in and out" of government (1984: 179), Roberts and King (1991: 152) argue that policy entrepreneurs are, by definition, from outside of government. Our analysis indicates that for most policy entrepreneurship scholars, policy entrepreneurs can come from all three sectors. This connects us to a long debate amongst public administration scholars if the sectors differ from each other on the micro-individual level (Perry and Wise, 1990; Borzaga and Defourny, 2004). Goulet and Frank (2002) propose three conceptual frameworks for comparing public and private sector organizations: the

generic approach that posits that there are virtually no differences between public and private organizations regarding organizational values and management functions and values; the core approach that suggests that although some basic similarities exist, there are fundamental differences among the sectors, and; the dimensional approach which focuses on the degree of "publicness" of organizations and its effect on individual behavior.

Focusing on the core and dimensional approaches, public policy literature has put much emphasis on comparing individual behavior in different sectors (Andersen 2010; Bozeman and Su, 2015; Meier and O'Toole 2011). Applying the same logic, future research should focus on the differences between policy entrepreneurs in different sectors. What are the different strategies they use? What are their motivations? And most importantly, what is their effect on the policy process?

After analyzing the characteristics of policy entrepreneurs, we now turn to identify and classify policy entrepreneurship strategies. At the end of this section, we connect strategies to characteristics, shedding light on how policy entrepreneurs with different characteristics use different strategies.

What strategies do policy entrepreneurs use?

So what do policy entrepreneurs do in order to influence policy outcomes? If we use Kingdon's (2011) notions of 'investing considerable resources', 'developing information' about problems, and 'softening up' the political system, fertile ground

exists for trying to identify and classify policy entrepreneurship strategies using the actual strategies used by policy entrepreneurs as reported in case-studies.

As we described in our short literature review, scholars have tried to take on this challenge before our aim is to systematically connect all research to a comprehensive overview. Using content analysis, we allowed the data to drive the codes and categories (e.g: Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Our coding sheet consisted of 20 strategies found in cited articles on policy entrepreneurship. Of course, there is no one study who entails all 20 strategies. In practice, each study takes a certain perspective and identifies different policy entrepreneurship strategies and the strategies are often intertwined, creating hybrid forms of strategic behavior. By summing up all strategies together, we can visualize different possibilities of their use. In addition, the comprehensive list is based on former studies and therefore entails only strategies that were found and published in the studies analyzed. Table 2 summarizes policy entrepreneurship strategies definitions and examples.

Insert Table 2 here

Analysis of entrepreneurial activity is normally divided in two parts: attributes/traits and strategies (Zahariadis, 2008: 521). This is related to a long debate in management scholarship if entrepreneurship is a trait or a behavior (Gartner, 1985). While we maintain that entrepreneurship is measured by strategies, we do acknowledge that most of the MSA literature focuses on attributes as part of the determinants of success (Zahariadis and Exadaktylos, 2016: 61). We therefore include traits of policy entrepreneurs, as separated from strategies, being in the shadow of policy entrepreneurship behavior in table 3.

Inset Table 3

In the next section we move beyond description into an analytic assessment of policy entrepreneurship strategies, using the 'policy cycle' framework.

Policy entrepreneurship strategies in the policy cycle: a classification framework

We now turn to offer a classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies. By doing so, we do not intend to propose a decisive model that fits all but rather to offer an heuristic breakdown of policy entrepreneurship strategies, a 'textbook approach' (see for instance? Following...? Nakamura, 1987) that will allow mutual definitions for future explorations. We offer to classify the strategies going back to the 'policy stages' (May and Wildavsky, 1979). We do acknowledge the criticism on the model, mainly by Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith (1994) who argue that this is a top-down model, which has a limited capacity of explaining the shift from stage to stage. Yet, they maintain that "the stages model has provided a useful conceptual disaggregation of the complex and varied policy process into manageable segments, particularly regarding agenda setting" (p. 177). In an aim to simplify the strategies policy entrepreneurs use, it is easier to focus on specific stages of the process as it just simplifies the complex policy process (Howlett et al. 2009) and allows for a more nuanced focus on individual strategies.

Insert Figure 2.

In 1995, Kingdon recognized four stages of the policy process: agenda-setting, determining possible choices, decision making, and implementation of decisions. In our analysis we use the fluid cycle of stages, a dynamic component added to the

original stages approach by adding a feedback stage to the policy process (Howlett et al., 2017). The policy cycle consists of the following policy stages: agenda setting, policy formation, policy adoption, policy implementation, and policy evaluation. In figure 2 we present the heuristic classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies in the policy cycle.

The policy cycle emphasizes that there is no single monolithic actor in the policy process. Different actors play different roles in the different stages of the policy process. We focus on one actor or actors: the policy entrepreneur, and look at the policy process "from his eyes". Using Kingdon's (1984) metaphor, policy entrepreneurs by definition, push through their "pet solutions". They have a specific policy in mind, and they want it to be implemented. Therefore, they are very active in the problem recognition and agenda setting stage as Kingdon well described. But what strategies can they use in different stages of the policy process?

Recently, the policy literature is trying to connect different policy process theories and propose a comprehensive theory of the policy process. Howlett et al. (2017) offer to link the policy stages with Kingdon's MSA and Baumgartner and Jones's advocacy coalition framework. Focusing on MSA, they maintain that this theory cannot easily be stretched beyond the agenda-setting stage of policy making. They propose a five stream framework which "begins with the classic Kingdonian articulation of problem, policy, and political streams affecting agenda-setting but adds in new process and program streams that feed into specific conjunctures where the existing streams intersect or coalesce as the policy process unfolds" (Howlett et al., 2017: 72). They offer five conjuncture points at the end of every stage of the policy

process. We use the case-studies analyzed, in order identify policy entrepreneurship strategies aimed at influencing these conjuncture points.

Agenda setting is suggested as a crucial stage for policy entrepreneurship (Cohen, 2016; Plein, 1994). In the agenda setting stage, a problem is connected to a policy image, a given solution to a problem (Baumgenter and Jones, 2010; Birkland, 1997). In this stage, the policy entrepreneur focuses on a policy he wants to push through, actively searching for this policy (Kingdon, 1984), recognizes a policy problem and searches for venues to push through his "pet-policy" (Pralle, 2006). If he/she successfully uses these three strategies well, a first conjuncture occurs in which attention is driven to problem and policy in the right venue and a first, initial agenda is set.

In the second stage, the policy entrepreneur is focused on implementing his fragile agenda, turning it into reality. He/she does so through policy formation, which entails all streams together, including the process (choice) stream. Policy formation is aimed at policy decision. We found that policy entrepreneurs use two groups of strategies in order to lead policy formation processes: strategic planning and team leadership. Using these strategies, entrepreneurs form a plan and strategically manipulate all streams to connect at decision point, using team building with different actors in the policy process. In strategic planning entrepreneurs may use any of the following strategies: strategic planning (Fiori and Kim, 2011), strategic use of symbols (Dubois and Saunders, 2017), risk taking (Mintrom and Norman, 2009), focusing on the core and compromising on the edge (Zartaloudis and Kornelakis, 2017), salami tactics (Ackrill et al, 2013), using media coverage (Crow, 2010; Shanan et al., 2008) and strategic information dissemination (Sharman and Holmes, 2010). In team building,

they may use the following strategies: team leadership (Mintrom and Norman, 2009), stimulating potential beneficiaries (Zhu, 2012), forging inter-organizational and cross-sectoral partnerships (Mintrom and Vergari, 1996), networking in government (Zahariadis, 2003), networking out government (Mintrom, 1997) and political activation (Pesch et al., 2017).

In the next stage, decision is made: "the third critical point occurs if and when a decision is taken and a policy then requires implementation" (Howlet et al., 2017: 73). Following Kingdon (1995), in this classification framework, the adoption of policy is a cutting edge stage in which, as policy entrepreneurs are not always decision makers, holds no policy entrepreneurship strategies. Policy entrepreneurship strategies in the classification framework are found in the softening-up process (agenda-setting and policy formation), and in implementation and evaluation. Entrepreneurial strategies are not enough for a policy change, as context and institutional arenas matter. Policy adaptation is a good example of how entrepreneurial strategies can shape, frame and manipulate the policy process, yet at a certain point be outside of entrepreneurial strategies capacity.

The next stage is policy implementation. In this stage, policy changes into an actual program. We found that policy entrepreneurs can be active in this stage, as Zahariadis and Exadaktylos (2016) recently argued. This stage entails "continuities with previous stages with additions of new actors and potentially new resources" (ibid: 61). They can use two strategies: amassing evidence to show the workability of their programs (Mintrom and Salisbury, 2014) and anchory work of pushing to litigation, specific program, economic planning etc. (Ridde, 2009).

In the last stage, the cycle closes. The policy entrepreneur can push to evaluation of the policy proposed, and the program implemented, and re-open the policy cycle again.

Using the complex policy cycle to propose a classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies allows to pin down two important elements in policy making: nuanced focus on actors in this process, and in specific stages of the process. This addresses the need for more actors focus in the policy cycle theories (Sabatier, 1991), and for more testable hypotheses that will allow forecasting of the policy process (Zahariadis, 1999).

After proposing the classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies, we go back to our data to analyze the frequencies of policy entrepreneurship strategies and attributes in the case-studies analyzed, and offer some insights on policy entrepreneurship strategies.

Overall, our analysis shows that problem framing and actively finding a solution are strategies that have been used in more than 80% of the studies. This is not surprising since they define entrepreneurship. Kirzner (1979), one of the founding fathers of the study of entrepreneurship, defined an entrepreneur as the one who has a superior knowledge of market imperfections, that he uses to his advantage, by acknowledging problems and finding new solutions to these problems. On the contrary, private entrepreneurs focus on a strategic plan in order to succeed (Kuratko and Audretsch, 2009), yet we found that strategies of planning like salami-tactics (24.3%) and focusing on the core and compromising on the edge (19.1%) were not frequently used by policy entrepreneurs.

The analysis confirms Kingdon's (1984) and Mintrom and Norman's (2009) argument that networking and team building are the building blocks of policy entrepreneurship strategies, as we find that building diverse teams with many actors were found to be very frequent strategies that policy entrepreneurs used. We can also draw lessons on the policy entrepreneur's role in the policy cycle. While Kingdon focused on the agenda setting stage, we found evidence that policy entrepreneurs push their pet-solutions through all stages of the policy process. They are active in the formation of the policy and preparing for policy decision, but they are also active in the implementation stage as they work to anchor their policy (55.2%) and even participate in the evaluation stage to some extent (40.4%). Last, we see that though attributes are not actual strategies, they matter. Persuasion (47.8%), trust building (31.7%) and social acuity (70.4%) were largely recognized as part of policy entrepreneurship behavior. We can maybe conclude that they are necessary, yet not enough.

Policy entrepreneurship strategies in different government layers and sectors

Following the descriptive analysis of the strategies, we aimed for a more deductive understanding of the relationship between characteristics of the policy entrepreneur and use of 20 policy entrepreneurship strategies identified. Next is the relationship found between use of policy entrepreneurship strategies and government layers and sector of policy entrepreneur.

Significant relationships were found between government layer and use of policy entrepreneurship strategies, namely: strategic use of symbols (chi-square =9.63, $p < 0.05$), strategic planning (chi-square =14.66, $p < 0.05$), risk taking (chi-square

=19.40, $p < 0.001$), using media coverage (chi-square =16.97, $p < 0.002$), political activation (chi-square =17.97, $p < 0.001$) and anchory work in implementation (chi-square =30.63, $p < 0.001$).

In the local, regional and national layers, the use of strategic use of symbols strategy is significantly more evident (38.5%, 26.3%, 40%, relatively) than in the subnational level (17.9 %). This may be related to the fact that symbols are culturally related, and are less relevant in culturally divergent policy making arenas (Béland and Petersen, 2017). Moreover, on the subnational and cross layer levels there is a significant greater use of strategic planning (64.1%, 76.5%, relatively) than on the local, regional and national levels (42.3%, 52.6%, 47.4%, relatively). This may be explained by the more complex and ambiguous policy making environment in subnational policy making (Zaharadias, 2013) that demands more specific planning. This may also explain the outcome that on the local and regional level there is significantly less (38.5%, 26.3%, relatively) risk taking then on the national, subnational and cross-layer (50.5%, 48.7%, 76.5%, relatively) layers of policy making. Last, this may also be one of the reasons for significantly higher levels of anchory work in subnational policy making (66.7%), compared to local and regional policy layers (26.9% 36.8%, relatively).

Last, political activation is much higher amongst policy entrepreneurs working in cross-layer policy making. This is interesting, as this strategy relates to actively joining policy decision making. We find that if the policy entrepreneur is involved in cross-layer policy making, he/she has a significant higher chance of becoming politically activated (80.4% compared to 44.2% in national government layer). Another

interesting finding is that in the national level there is a significant higher use of media coverage (50.5%) then in transnational, regional and local layers (20.5%, 15.8%, 26.9%, relatively). This may be related to the focus of traditional media on the national level (Kiouisis, 2003; Wanta et al., 2004).

Turning to the use of policy entrepreneurship strategies amongst policy entrepreneurs from different sectors, significant relationships were found between sectors and use of policy entrepreneurship strategies, namely: strategic planning (chi-square =6.67, $p < 0.05$), stimulating potential beneficiaries (chi-square =13.19, $p < 0.002$) involving civic engagement (chi-square =13.32, $p < 0.001$), and using media coverage (chi-square =11.89, $p < 0.005$).

Policy entrepreneurs from the private and third sectors use media coverage, stimulating potential beneficiaries and involving civic engagement significantly more (40%, 60%, 40%, relatively) then policy entrepreneurs from the public sector (27.2%, 32.8%, 19.2%). Relating back to our discussion of characteristics, this is not surprising, as both private and third sectors are outsiders, and thus need a wider support from society in order to push their policy towards decision making (Doh and Guay, 2006). In the strategy of strategic planning, holding a grand activation plan, policy entrepreneurs from the third sector were found to use it significantly more (70%) than the private and public sectors. This may be explained by the fact that the third sector is composed of organized groups with shared interests or concerns, and a specific mission (Fisher, 1997; Kilby, 2006), while private and public policy entrepreneurship can be more sporadic (Kingdon, 1984).

When focusing on the public sector we found no significant relationship between strategies used by politicians and bureaucrats. This may be explained by the political bureaucratic model (Alison, 1969), which maintains that on senior levels, politicians and bureaucrats are very similar in behavior and motivations. And yet, we found a significant relationship between the role in public policy making (bureaucrat/politician) and four strategies: strategic use of symbols (Chi-square= 3.94, $p < 0.05$), focusing on the core and compromising on the edge (Chi-square= 5.06, $p < 0.05$), using media coverage (Chi-square=6.09, $p < 0.05$) and amassing evidence to show the workability of the proposals (Chi-square= 6.67, $p < 0.01$). While politicians significantly use more the strategy of strategic use of symbols, focusing on the core and compromising on the edge and the strategy of using media coverage (41%, 26%, 43%), bureaucrats use more the strategy of amassing evidence to show the workability of their proposals (60%). While politicians use words and narratives, bureaucrats use hands on policy implementation. This choice of strategies may reflect on their different roles in policy making and their different motivations.

Future research may use the present classification framework as a starting point for the analysis of strategies in different stages of the policy cycle and the effect of context on strategies (Zahariadis and Exadaktylos, 2016). More research is needed to connect the three or five streams to policy entrepreneurship strategies. Can different factors of the stream explain different strategies? we demonstrated how different policy entrepreneurship strategies are used in different government layers and sectors, yet more work should connect characteristics of policy entrepreneurs and the strategies they use.

At last, "Cognitive characteristics of individuals in combination with individuals' contextual environment are key factors shaping policy processes" (Weible et al., 2012: 4). We maintain that this classification framework has the potential for future cognitive understanding of policy entrepreneurs, using experiments used in business and management schools to understand how different actors in the policy process are motivated and what strategies they use. We offered here a few insights on different characteristics of policy entrepreneurs that need further investigation and explanation.

Discussion and Conclusions

this systematic review contributes to theory development on two levels. First, by pointing at relationships between policy entrepreneurship characteristics and strategies, shedding light on how different strategies are used by different policy entrepreneurs. Second, a heuristic classification framework of policy entrepreneurship strategies in the different stages of the policy cycle is presented. 20 different strategies have been identified, and classified in four stages of the policy process. In addition, a group of three policy entrepreneurship traits was identified. By systematically analyzing past research, and using this data to present a heuristic classification framework that can allow mutual terminology, we have followed Cairney and Jones (2016: 53) call: "we need new ways to make sure that the results are coherent and comparable with each other, rather than representing isolated cases... to provide a systematic analysis of the MSA literature, to identify common themes and comparable findings." The focus on strategies is important because in MSA policy entrepreneurship strategies are at the heart of policy change (Zahariadis, 2014).

Our second goal was empirical: describing the literature so far. We have found that problem framing and finding a solution are frequent in policy entrepreneurship strategies. We also found that team building, amongst different stake-holders and in different arenas, is also crucial for policy entrepreneurship. Last, we show an example of how different policy entrepreneurship strategies are used in different government layers of policy making. These findings help reinforce earlier assumptions on the policy process and open the black box of the conditions under which entrepreneurial strategies may be successful. Further, we analyzed policy entrepreneurship characteristics, thus shedding light on different angles of this phenomena. We have found a shift to group policy entrepreneurship, mainly by NGO and European entities. We have analyzed the policy entrepreneur sector, thus shedding light on the role of different sectors in the policy process. If only half of policy entrepreneurs are from the public sector, what does it tell us about democracy, government and governance? We analyzed the government layer of policy, thus showing how Kingdons' focus on Federal systems has spread and changed. We also pointed to countries in which policy entrepreneurship was found, and triggered the Euro-Anglo-Saxon dominance of the literature. Last, we presented the uneven distribution of policy entrepreneurship amongst policy domains.

Systematic reviews may suffer from limitations in the selection of articles included and in the coding process. In order to ensure the process, as well as make it replicable, we follow the well accepted PRISMA process (Appendix. A). As for our coding, we followed a strict protocol and measured ICR in different stages of the process, as we describe in length in the methodology section. We relate to the case-studies analyzed in 229 peer-reviewed articles as descriptions of reality. Some may

question this, saying that we analyze the literature, and not the actual reality since literature can be biased and limited. Yet, we assume that since policy entrepreneurship is not an everyday phenomenon, and since we open our review to different scholarships, thus allowing for a large and variate sample, we do maintain an image of reality when analyzing these case-studies.

The focus of systematic reviews is on future research avenues, we therefore chose to present major lacunas, questions and suggestions for future research in every section of this article. We thus offer here some theoretical and empirical concluding remarks. Theoretically, our classification framework needs further exploration as to how strategies are related to the context, i.e the three streams: policy, problem and politics. Second, we have focused on the strategies of the policy entrepreneur yet a question remains on policy windows and the important question: do strategies produce windows, or do windows produce strategies? last, more research is needed to understand success and failure of policy entrepreneurship and how strategies are related to these outcomes. We maintain that different and new empirical avenues can produce answers to these questions. Comparative studies, experiments and surveys all hold the possibility to enrich our understanding of the role of individuals, or small groups, in the policy process.

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Tables and figures

Table 1: Characteristics of policy entrepreneurs

Policy fields	Number (%)
Agriculture	2 (0.9)
Economics	26 (11.3)
Arts	2 (0.9)
Education	31 (13.5)
Environment	55 (23.9)
Governance	28 (12.5)
Defense	15 (6.5)
Planning	5 (2.2)
Transportation	2 (0.9)
Welfare	17 (7.4)
Health	30 (13)
Technology	7 (3)
Foreign Relations	10 (4.3)
Individuals or groups	Number (%)
Individual policy entrepreneur	87 (37.8)
Group policy entrepreneurship	69 (30)
Individual and group	74 (32.2)
Total	229 (100)
Sector	Number (%)
Public	118 (51.3)
Private	16 (7)
Third	23 (10)
Public-Private	18 (7.8)
Public-Third	25 (10.9)
Private-Third	5 (2.2)
All sectors	25 (10.9)
Total	229 (100)
Government Layer	Number (%)
Local	26 (11.6)
Regional	19 (8.3)
National	95 (41.3)
Subnational	39 (17)
Local-National	15 (6.5)
National-Subnational	23 (10)
Other mixed layers	13 (5.6)
Total	229 (100)

Table 2. Identification of Strategies, Examples and Frequencies of Use

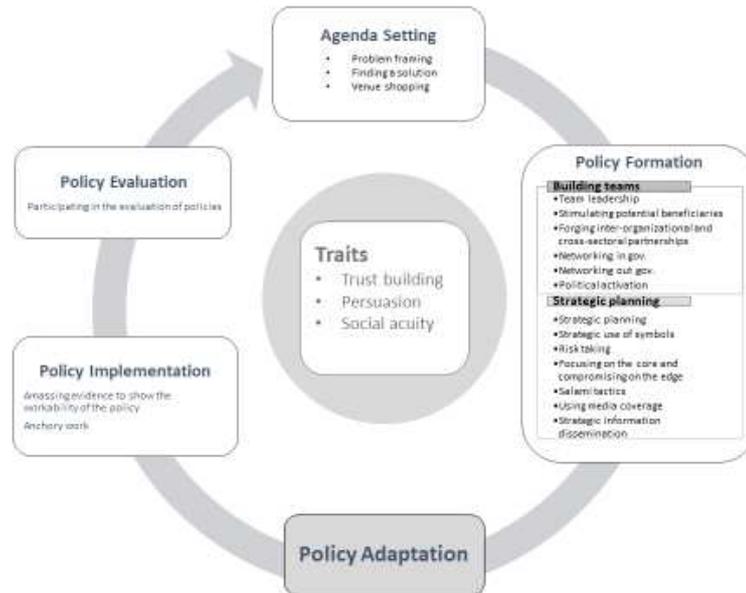
Strategy	Definition	Supporting literature	Frequency (%)
<i>Problem framing</i>	framing a problem in a politically—and culturally—acceptable and desirable manner	"The ability to frame a policy programme in a politically—and culturally—acceptable and desirable manner" (Be'land, 2005: 12)	188 (81.7)
<i>Finding a solution</i>	Offering a solution, a specific policy program	"in presenting an idea to others, it makes sense for a policy entrepreneur to carefully explain the nature of the problem as he or she sees it and, having done this, <i>suggest the kind of innovation that might address the problem</i> " (Mintrom, 2000: 131).	189 (82.2)
<i>Venue shopping</i>	to move decision-making authority to a new policy arena (for example: from local to national or from courts to government)	"Advocacy groups or policymakers who want to change policy are often frustrated by biases within institutional venues where key decisions about a policy are made. One strategy for overcoming such biases is to shop for an alternative venue and attempt to move decision-making authority to a new policy arena. If successful, a change in venue can lead to substantive policy change, due in part to the participation of new actors, the adoption of new rules, and the promotion of new policy images, or understandings, of an issue. Venue shopping strategies are important to understand, then, because of their impact on processes of policy change." (Pralle, 2003: 234).	74 (32.2)
<i>Strategic planning</i>	Holding a systematic long term plan	"strategic planning is defined as a systematic process for managing the organization and its future direction in relation to its environment and the demands of external stakeholders, including strategy formulation, analysis of agency strengths and weaknesses, identification of agency stakeholders, implementation of strategic actions, and issue management." (Berry and Wechsler, 1995: 159)	130 (56.5)
<i>Strategic use of symbols</i>	use of stories, images and other symbols to raise passion, capture public attention, build support	"Successful political leaders use stories, images and other symbols to rouse passion, capturing public attention, building support and, at the same time, undermining opposition to their preferred policy" (Zaharadis, 2005)	84 (36.5)
<i>Risk taking</i>	Paying a potential price for policy entrepreneurship	"There are considerable risks involved in promoting change. The cost of entrepreneurship during periods of conflict can be particularly high in terms of the time and money needed to devise new solutions and build networks of support for these innovative solutions. Politicians who oppose such efforts may regard these policy entrepreneurs as helping their political opponents. Social groups that oppose such efforts may regard these policy entrepreneurs as a threat to their agenda and protest against them or even boycott" (Golan-Nadir and Cohen, 2016:27)	121 (52.6)
<i>Focusing on the core and compromising on the edge</i>	negotiating and cooperating with those who have different ideas while holding what part of policy is most important	"On the one hand, they must be good advocates of specific concepts. They need to be able to communicate their ideas and message in an appealing and convincing way. On the other hand, they need the skills to negotiate and cooperate with those who have different ideas, world views, or interests but who possess crucial resources. (Meijerink, and Huitema, 2010)	44 (19.1)
<i>Salami tactics</i>	cutting the policy move into stages	"entrepreneurs will be more successful when employing 'salami tactics': if policy entrepreneurs recognize risk-averse policy-makers are unlikely to accept a politically risky proposal, they can cut the policy move into stages, presenting smaller, less risky steps sequentially to policy-makers." (Zahariadis, 2003: 15)	56 (24.3)
<i>Using media coverage</i>	Using the media to promote policy (t.v, radio, social media)	"Media attention sometimes precedes and sometimes follows changes in attention by government agencies. ... Each can affect the other, reinforcing the pattern of positive feedback and punctuated equilibrium" (Baumgartner and Jones, 1993: 125)	87 (37.8)
<i>Strategic information dissemination</i>	Strategic use of information amongst actors in the policy process.	"Strategic networks frequently exhibit a core-periphery structure. In such core-periphery networks there are only few agents at the center (core) of the network while the majority of agents are at the periphery of the network and communicate with other agents via links maintained by the "core" agents, who play the role of "connectors" and informants in the network." (Zhang and van der Schaar, 2003: 1)	63 (27.4)
<i>Team leadership</i>	Actively leading the policy network	"The leader's main job is to do, or get done, whatever functions are not being handled adequately in terms of group needs." (Zaccaro et al. 2002)	122 (53)

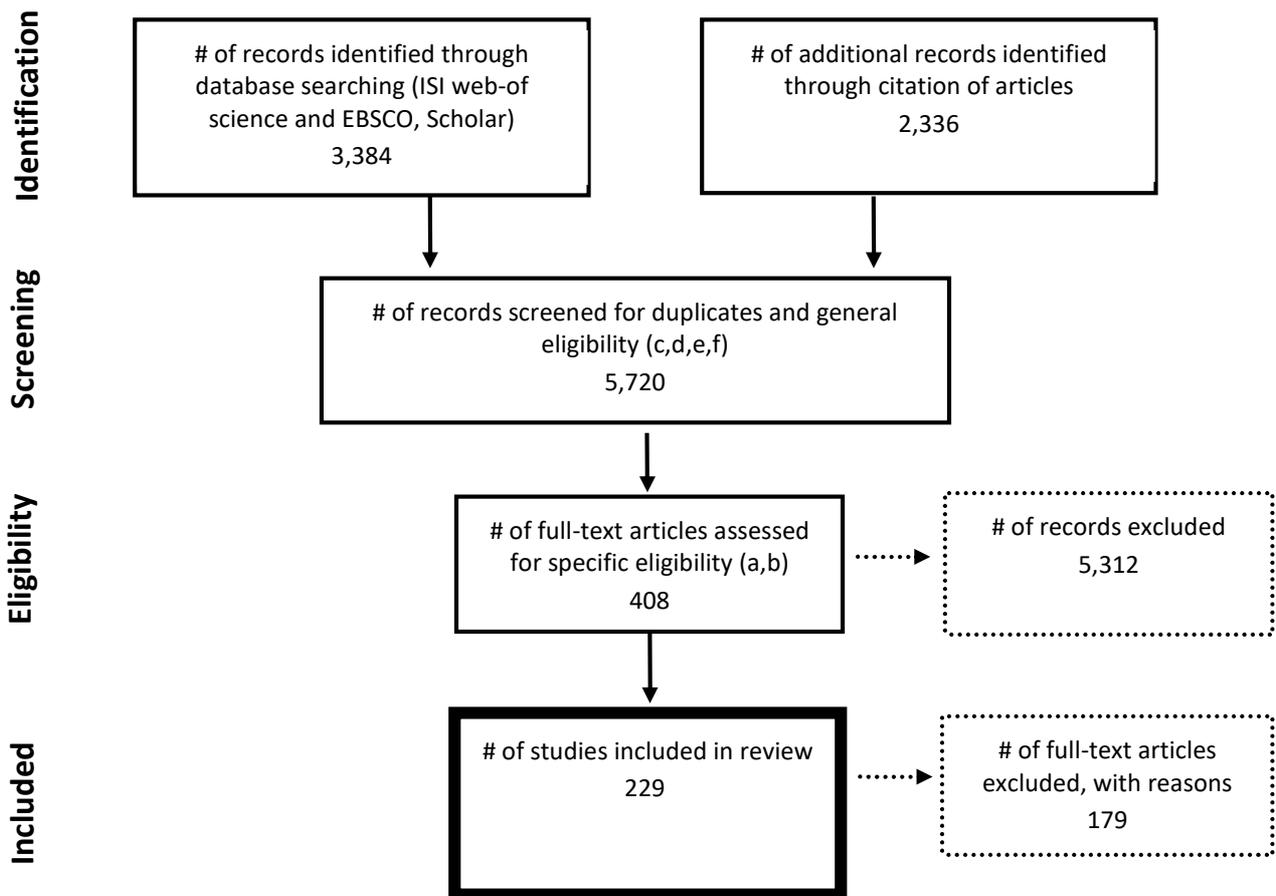
<i>Stimulating potential beneficiaries</i>	Advocating the benefits of policy to different audiences	"We would expect only a relocation program whose benefits are widely distributed and costs narrowly concentrated to be adopted by a majority of legislators and subsequently implemented." (Sætren, 2016)	95 (41.3)
<i>Forging inter-organizational and cross-sectoral partnerships</i>	Creating networks with actors from different sectors and organizations	"It is common to find policy entrepreneurs operating within a tight-knit team composed of individuals with different knowledge and skills, from different sectors and organizations, who are able to offer mutual support in the pursuit of change" (Mintrom and Norman, 2009: 653)	163 (70.9)
<i>Networking in gov.</i>	Networking amongst politicians and bureaucrats	"Policy entrepreneurs make use of their personal and professional networks— <u>both inside and outside the jurisdictions</u> where they seek to promote policy change. Policy entrepreneurs understand that their networks of contacts represent repositories of skill and knowledge that they can draw upon to support their initiatives" (Mintrom and Norman, 2009: 653).	172 (74.8)
<i>Networking out gov.</i>	Networking amongst private players, public, third sector	"Policy entrepreneurs make use of their personal and professional networks— <u>both inside and outside the jurisdictions</u> where they seek to promote policy change. Policy entrepreneurs understand that their networks of contacts represent repositories of skill and knowledge that they can draw upon to support their initiatives" (Mintrom and Norman, 2009: 653).	152 (66.1)
<i>Involving civic engagement</i>	Organizing the public to be active in policy issue		65 (28.3)
<i>Political activation</i>	Becoming active in policy decision making and politics	"The new minister, Sabino Cassese, was the policy entrepreneur who, building on the preliminary efforts of the previous government, brought about the reform of public management at the beginning of the 1990s. As a renowned professor of administrative law, he had taken part in a ministerial commission established in 1979 that had issued a report on the reform of the state, which became a reference point for the debate on public sector reform." (Mele and Ongaro, 2014: 119)	130 (56.5)
<i>Amassing evidence to show the workability of the policy</i>	Engaging with others to clearly demonstrate the workability of a policy proposal.	"Policy entrepreneurs often take actions intended to reduce the perception of risk among decision makers. A common strategy involves When they lead by example—taking an idea and turning it into action themselves—agents of change signal their genuine commitment to improved social outcomes." (Mintrom and Norman, 2009: 653)	126 (54.8)
<i>Anchory work</i>	Securing policy by regulations, rulemaking, actual implementation.	"Whereas MSA conceptualizes the main task of coupling as the joining of three streams, we amend the argument to stress the aim is to prevent decoupling in implementation".	127 (55.2)
<i>participating in the evaluation of policies</i>	Actively participating in the evaluation of the policy proposed, and re-planning it		93 (40.4)

Table 3. Policy Entrepreneurship Traits

Trait	Definition	Example	Frequency (%)
<i>Trust building</i>	Developing trust in relationships and support networks	"Developing trust in relationships and support networks is vital to the pursuit of their [the policy entrepreneurs'] goals" (Schneider et al. 1995: 59).	73 (31.7)
<i>Persuasion</i>	Using persuasive argumentation		110 (47.8)
<i>Social acuity</i>	understanding others and engaging in policy conversations	"Policy entrepreneurs are well-versed in the socio-political context in which they operate and demonstrate high levels of social acuity in understanding others and engaging in policy conversations" (Mintrom and Norman 2009, 652–654)	162 (70.4)

Figure 1: Classification framework





Appendix B: Coding Definitions and ICR Measures

Category no.	Category name	Sub-category name	Category instructions	ICR (%) Total ()
	Identifying codes	Coder last name	Please type your last name	NA
		Date	Please enter the date	NA
		Name of article	Please copy article name	NA
		Authors	Please copy authors full names	NA
		Journal name	Please copy journal name	NA
		Publication year	Please copy publication year.	NA
		Journal article	If the article was not published between the years 1984-2017 please stop coding Is this a peer-reviewed journal? 0= no 1= yes	100
	Scope	Use	Does this study: (a) focus on policy entrepreneurship- use this exact term to describe individuals or groups who pursue opportunities to influence the formation and outcomes of policy beyond the resources they hold and; (b) contain the words policy and entrepreneur* in the title and/or abstract; (c) published in the English language 0= no 1= yes	100
		Empirical study	Does the article analyze a specific case-study? 0= no 1= yes	100
		Theoretical study	Is the article being only theoretical, i.e does not analyze a case-study? 0= no 1= yes	92
		Policy domain	Please choose the policy domain from the following list: Agriculture, Economics, Arts, Education, Environment, Governance, Defense, Planning, Transportation, Welfare, Health, Technology, Foreign Relations	92
		No. of countries	Please list the no. of countries in the case-study	96
		Name of countries	Please name the countries in the case-study	96
		Local level	Is the policy entrepreneurship in case-study aimed at the local level? 0= no 1= yes	96

	Regional level	Is the policy entrepreneurship in case-study aimed at the regional level? 0= no 1= yes	100
	National level	Is the policy entrepreneurship in case-study aimed at the national level? 0= no 1= yes	88
	Subnational level	Is the policy entrepreneurship in case-study aimed at the subnational level? 0= no 1= yes	100
Abstract	Purpose	Please copy the purpose of the study from abstract (please mark o if not listed)	NA
	Research questions	Please copy the R.Q of the study from abstract (please mark o if not listed)	NA
	Hypotheses	Please copy the hypotheses of the study from abstract (please mark o if not listed)	NA
	Main findings	Please copy the main findings of the study from abstract (please mark o if not listed)	NA
method	Type of analysis	Please choose the type of analysis used in this article from the following list: quantitative, qualitative, mixed	100
	Data examined	Please choose the data used in this article from the following list: Interviews, texts, case-study description, survey, experiment, interviews and texts.	96
Policy entrepreneur	Gender	Please list the P.E gender if listed: 0=man 1=woman 2= NA	
	Individual	Is the policy entrepreneur the authors relate to an individual? 0= no 1= yes	92
	Group	Is the policy entrepreneur the authors relate to a group? 0= no 1= yes	96
	Private sector	If the policy entrepreneur is from the private sector, please choose his role from the list: citizen, business-man, advocate If not, please mark o	88
	Public sector	If the policy entrepreneur is from the private sector, please choose his role from the list: politician, bureaucrat If not, please mark o	92
	Third sector	If the policy entrepreneur is from the third sector, please mark 1 If not, please mark o	84
Strategies	Problem framing	Does the article identify the strategy of framing a problem in a politically—and culturally—acceptable and desirable manner? 0= no 1= yes	100

Finding a solution	Does the article identify the strategy of Offering a solution, a specific policy program? 0= no 1= yes	92
Venue shopping	Does the article identify the strategy of to move decision-making authority to a new policy arena (for example: from local to national or from courts to government)? 0= no 1= yes	92
Strategic planning	Does the article identify the strategy of Holding a systematic long term plan? 0= no 1= yes	96
strategic use of symbols	Does the article identify the strategy of use of stories, images and other symbols to raise passion, capture public attention, build support? 0= no 1= yes	92
Risk taking	Does the article identify the strategy of Paying a potential price for policy entrepreneurship? 0= no 1= yes	92
Focusing on the core and compromising on the edge	Does the article identify the strategy of negotiating and cooperating with those who have different ideas while holding what part of policy is most important? 0= no 1= yes	96
Salami tactics	Does the article identify the strategy of cutting the policy move into stages? 0= no 1= yes	96
Using media coverage	Does the article identify the strategy of using the media to promote policy (t.v, radio, social media)? 0= no 1= yes	100
Strategic information dissemination	Does the article identify the strategy of strategic use of information amongst actors in the policy process? 0= no 1= yes	100
Team leadership	Does the article identify the strategy of actively leading the policy network? 0= no 1= yes	84
stimulating potential beneficiaries	Does the article identify the strategy of advocating the benefits of policy to different audiences? 0= no 1= yes	96

forging inter-organizational and cross-sectoral partnerships	Does the article identify the strategy of creating networks with actors from different sectors and organizations? 0= no 1= yes	88
Networking in gov.	Does the article identify the strategy of networking amongst politicians and bureaucrats? 0= no 1= yes	92
Networking out gov.	Does the article identify the strategy of networking amongst private players, public, third sector? 0= no 1= yes	92
Involving civic engagement	Does the article identify the strategy of organizing the public to be active in the policy issue? 0= no 1= yes	96
Amassing evidence to show the workability of the policy	Does the article identify the strategy of engaging with others to clearly demonstrate the workability of a policy proposal.? 0= no 1= yes	96
Political activation	Does the article identify the strategy of becoming active in policy decision making and politics? 0= no 1= yes	96
Anchory work	Does the article identify the strategy of securing policy by regulations, rulemaking, actual implementation.? 0= no 1= yes	96
participating in the evaluation of policies	Does the article identify the strategy of actively participating in the evaluation of the policy proposed, and re-planning it? 0= no 1= yes	96
Trust building	Does the article identify the trait of trust building? 0= no 1= yes	84
Persuasion	Does the article identify the trait of persuasion? 0= no 1= yes	96
Social acuity	Does the article identify the trait of displaying social acuity? 0= no 1= yes	96
New strategies	Please quote any new strategy the authors relate to	NA
Notes	Exceptional Is this study exceptional? 0= no	NA

Why?	1=yes	
Notes	Please note why Please add open ended comments if necessary.	NA NA
