A problem not fully understood is unsolvable, and a problem that is fully understood is half solved.”

—Charles Kettering, Inventor

This famous quote from Charles Kettering holds great significance for local government planning today. The traditional budget process is inadequate for dealing with the complex problems that local governments are asked to deal with, such as degradation of the natural environment, encouraging economic opportunity, re-evaluating how public safety is provided, racial disparities, drug addiction, and more.

The traditional budget and planning process is ill-equipped to deal with these kinds of complex problems because complex problems tend to exhibit characteristics that confound traditional planning and budgeting. In this article, we will show why complex problems frustrate traditional budgeting and planning. We will explain the benefits of taking the time to understand problems more deeply. We will outline the principles for designing a process to define problems more deeply. Finally, we will illustrate a process to define problems before solutions. Let’s get started with what makes a problem “complex” and the challenges that poses to traditional budgeting and planning.

**Complex problems are often interconnected.** There are multiple interactive and possibly conflicting causal forces at play. For example, public safety is impacted not just by law enforcement practices but also by economic opportunity, the community’s trust in law enforcement, public health issues, and more. The solutions to complex problems are rarely contained within a single department or within local government. Other public, nonprofit and private organizations will need to be part of the solution. Yet the traditional budgeting and planning process tends to budget strictly by department, with cross-departmental collaboration rare and collaboration with outside organizations almost nonexistent.

**Complex problems are often exponential, not linear.** Natural disasters like floods, fires and hurricanes are classic examples of an exponential risk. The potential damage increases at a nonlinear rate as the intensity of the event increases. This has obvious implications for a problem like global climate change, but exponential risk also applies to other problems. For example, the summer
of 2020 saw widespread civil unrest that rose and spread quickly after the murder of George Floyd. Exponential risk is particularly dangerous because it catches us by surprise. For example, consider the following problem:

*A lily pond starts with a single lily leaf. Each day the number of leaves will double: two leaves on the second day; four leaves on the third day; eight leaves on the fourth day; etc. If the pond is full on the 30th day, on which day is the pond half full?*

If you said 15 days or so, you are not alone; but you are also wrong. The pond is half full on day 29 (if it is half full, doubling it makes the pond 100% full on day 30). On day 15 only a small fraction of the pond is full. Exhibit 1 shows that at day 15, the number of lily pads doesn’t even register compared to the explosive growth that occurs later on. This same “hockey stick” shape applies to damages from many types of natural and man-made risks. Man-made exponential risks are exacerbated by social media and other information technologies because these technologies catalyze the risk. For instance, the role of social media in catalyzing social unrest has been well documented.1

The traditional budget and planning process is not well suited to deal with exponential risk because the traditional process is linear. The basic underlying assumption is that the future will look like the past and incremental adjustments are made in revenues and expenditures from year to year.2 With exponential problems, the future looks like the past until the point at which it becomes radically different.

**Complex problems often involve rivalries.** There are often multiple competing interests that have to be addressed to make progress. The limitation of the traditional budget process is that conflicts are papered over by giving modest increases to participants and by not making big changes from year to year. The budget is often thought of by participants as a win-lose game. Also, the rivals involved in a complex problem often feel like they are in a win-lose game. It is hard to solve a win-lose game (the complex problem) with another win-lose game (the traditional budget).

However, the rivalries involved in complex problems are not best understood in simple terms like “person A vs. person B.” Rather, there are “mental models” that characterize rivalries found in public finance. A mental model is a representation of how something works.3 Mental models help us understand the problem by uncovering blind spots we may have and revealing the forces underlying the problem.

Stakeholders often find themselves in “competition” with each other to get resources; therefore, they try to get as much as possible lest they lose the resources.

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**EXHIBIT 1 | EXPONENTIAL GROWTH CURVE**

The *vertical axis* shows the number of lily pads and the % of the lake that is full, but it could be an impact (such as dollars of damage from an event of a given intensity).

The *horizontal axis* shows days, but it could represent any duration (time) or intensity of an event (wind speed of a hurricane).
One of the organizing principles of GFOA’s Rethinking Budgeting initiative is that finance officers need to be chefs, not cooks. Rather than following predetermined recipes (cooks), an effective finance officer understands how to develop a solution that meets the needs of their stakeholders, using the right ingredients (chefs). In this spirit, we will start by describing the design principles of a method to define problems more clearly. Then we will illustrate how these principles can come together in an applied method.

**THE SIX DESIGN PRINCIPLES**

1. Reject zero-sum thinking
2. Provide procedural justice
3. Create psychological safety
4. Recognize and mitigate cognitive biases
5. Go beyond positions and understand interests
6. Introduce constraints

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**How Do You Design a Method to Define Problems More Clearly?**

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**Reject zero-sum thinking**

The first design principle is to reject zero-sum thinking, where for someone to “win,” someone else must “lose.” Zero-sum thinking characterizes the “tragedy of the commons” and rivalrous problems. There are many ways to reject zero-sum thinking. A good start is to avoid framing the past as a “failure” or something that must be repudiated. Many stakeholders hold a stake in the past. They may have a sense of pride or identity associated with history or tradition. It is deadline-driven, incremental, risk-averse, and political. As a result, local governments tend to perpetuate status quo programs that haven’t evolved to solve present and future problems, or they jump to new solutions that address the symptoms of problems instead of the root causes.

The remedy is to make the time and space to consider and understand problems more deeply.
realities present obstacles. Rapid incrementalism takes small steps toward the goal, assesses how the plan is working, adapts as needed, and then takes another step forward. Rapid incrementalism helps bring everyone along because change happens in bite-sized pieces with various levels of involvement and/or acknowledgment. This means no one feels they are experiencing a sudden and significant loss or are being left out of the process.

Finally, look for ways to create win-win outcomes. GFOA’s “Financial Foundations for Thriving Communities” is a comprehensive approach that offers methods for addressing the tragedy of the commons and the win-lose dynamic inherent in it. There are also techniques for encouraging win-win outcomes, such as polarity management.

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**Provide procedural justice**

It is not always possible to avoid someone feeling a loss, which leads us to the second design principle: Provide procedural justice. Procedural justice is the sense that the process used to reach a decision was fair. Are the decision-makers doing their best to be objective and neutral? Is it clear how the process works? Are participants treated with dignity, and do they have a voice? Providing procedural justice is critical because people are more willing to accept a decision or action that goes against their self-interest when they perceive that the process that led to the decision was fair and there is a level of transparency concerning the process. Providing procedural justice helps stakeholders work through rivalrous problems by making people more willing to accept compromises to their preferred outcome. You can consult GFOA’s “What’s Fair?” series and Part 1, in particular, for details on how procedural justice can be applied to a financial decision-making process.

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3. **Create psychological safety**

The third design principle is to create psychological safety. Psychological safety is a shared belief, held by members of a team, that the group is a safe place for taking risks. It is a sense of confidence that the team will not embarrass, reject or punish someone for speaking up and presenting an alternative idea. It describes a team climate characterized by interpersonal trust and mutual respect. Creating and maintaining psychological safety is necessary for challenging deeply held beliefs, assumptions, and taken-for-granted ways of operating that perpetuate rivalrous mental models. Promoting psychological safety reduces the destructive conflict associated with rivalrous relationships and makes participants comfortable with bringing new perspectives to the problem, challenging prevailing viewpoints, and feeling secure in offering an “out-of-the-box” suggestion. The Rethinking Budgeting initiative describes how to build psychological safety and pairs it with accountability.

4. **Recognize and mitigate cognitive biases**

The fourth design principle is to recognize and mitigate cognitive biases. Most people do not think through decisions rationally and comprehensively. Rather, most people use various mental shortcuts to make decisions. Often, these shortcuts are harmless and even helpful. But sometimes, they have unintended consequences. When these shortcuts fail, they are called “cognitive biases” and can negatively impact all types of decisions, including budget decisions. If we know these biases, we can plan mitigations.

There are many types of cognitive biases, but two that are especially salient to this discussion are the overconfidence bias and the confirmation bias. Overconfidence bias means a person thinks they know more about a complex problem than they actually do. Confirmation bias means that a person tends to pay more attention to information that supports what they already believe to be true about a complex problem and pay less attention to information that disconfirms what they think.

The Rethinking Budgeting initiative describes how to mitigate cognitive biases in decision-making, including “taking the outside view.” This means bringing new perspectives to problem definition. New perspectives can come from the introduction of new data about a problem or in the inclusion of people with different perspectives, such as community members, members of external organizations (such as nonprofits, local businesses), or even people within the local government who haven’t been at the table.

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*Rapid incrementalism is associated with planning methods that are popular in the technology industry, like Agile.
Besides bringing different perspectives to the problem, outside people and organizations may be able to contribute resources to the eventual solution, thereby serving as resource multipliers. The outside view helps overcome the linear thinking and linear resource growth that prevents local governments from successfully confronting exponential challenges.

5  **Go beyond positions and understand interests**

The fifth design principle is to find ways to go beyond positions and understand interests. For example, an interest would be to reduce street-level violence. A position would be to increase the number of police officers on the street. People can have different positions even though they have a similar underlying interest. These positions can conflict and may be mutually exclusive. If people’s underlying interests are understood, it often becomes possible to find consensus solutions.

In local government, many conflicts are over values. Moral Foundations Theory tells us that all people have the same six moral foundations (building blocks from which they form their moral worldview). We all have access to these foundations, but we build on them in personalized ways and to different degrees, ultimately, developing our moral values and viewpoints. Understanding common moral foundations makes it easier for people to respond empathetically to differing opinions.

Let’s go back to our example of street-level violence. Everyone could agree that reducing gun-related homicides is a laudable goal. However, one person might favor gun control as a strategy while another person might see access to firearms as essential to self-defense. If they recognize their shared goal of reducing gun-related homicides, it becomes possible to look beyond their different perspective on gun control and perhaps agree on other strategies to reduce gun-related homicides (like community violence prevention models).

6  **Introduce constraints**

This sixth and final design principle is to introduce constraints. Constraints put boundaries on the discussion. Without constraints, the participants in a conversation about a problem face a blank canvas. A blank canvas can be paralyzing because participants can be overwhelmed with possible choices. To illustrate a constraint, a meeting might be limited to defining the problem of street-level violence, specifically, as opposed to trying to define “public safety” more broadly or “community violence” (which could include domestic violence, which may or may not share common characteristics with street-level violence). Or it might be limited to street-level violence in a particular neighborhood rather than the entire city.

Taken together, these design principles address the issues we introduced in the first part of this paper—for...
example, rejecting zero-sum thinking and providing procedural justice; creating psychological safety; and going beyond positions and understanding interests to address the rivalrous relationships found in mental models like the tragedy of the commons and arms races. Recognizing and mitigating cognitive biases, including bringing in an outside view, helps solve nonlinear (exponential) problems.

Let’s see how the six design principles could be put into practice using Turn the Curve planning as an illustration.

**Turning Curves**

Good budgeting starts with good planning. Good planning starts with clearly and properly defining a problem. Turn the Curve is a planning method that is rooted in Kettering’s philosophy (“A problem fully understood is half solved.”) and incorporates all the design principles we’ve discussed.

Turn the Curve planning is the brainchild of Mark Friedman, whose book *Trying Hard Is Not Good Enough* was inspired by his observation that public and nonprofit organizations were “pouring billions of dollars into social programs that claimed to be successful, and could demonstrate significant benefits, but overall social conditions for children and families were getting worse.”

Turn the Curve planning is done by answering five questions, as shown in Exhibit 2. Let’s take a look at each question and how it aligns with our design principles for defining and solving problems.

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**EXHIBIT 2 | TURN THE CURVE PLANNING**

1. **How are we doing on the data?**
   Turn the Curve is about figuring out how to change the direction or trajectory of a trend in a result we care about. Turn the Curve planning is typically done by teams of people who share a common desire for better results and performance. The result could be a community-wide indicator like the infant mortality rate, or a service performance measure like the percent of tree maintenance requests completed on time.

   Making data the focal point of planning meets two of our design principles. First, it helps go beyond positions and understand interests. Whatever their political philosophies or policy preferences, the members of a Turn the Curve team are working from the same set of data and share a common objective: to improve a community outcome or the performance of a service. Second, it introduces constraints. Indicators and performance measures represent specific issues or problems to solve. They bound a disciplined thought exercise, not a free-form bull session.

2. **What is the story behind the curve?**
   Understanding the factors that have impacted the historical trend of an indicator—both positively and negatively—is what we mean by “defining the problem.” Although digging into the past may unearth failures of policy and execution, the root causes of community outcomes and service performance usually go deeper. The purpose here is not to look backward and assign blame, it is to learn from experience and lay the groundwork for turning the future curve of the indicator in a better direction.
The story behind the curve preempts zero-sum thinking because it identifies an array of opportunities for change, increasing the odds of finding solutions and avoiding rivalrous tradeoffs. For example, a city using Turn the Curve planning to improve housing affordability generated more than 100 factors underlying the growing share of households experiencing excessive housing burden. The factors grouped into eight categories:

1. Restrictive zoning and building codes
2. Housing supply shortage
3. High cost of construction
4. Gentrification
5. Limited access to credit
6. Poverty
7. Lack of financial education
8. Weak fair housing and tenant’s rights enforcement

From this broad and deep understanding of housing affordability, the city was able to craft a plan that attacked the problem, not particular interests or stakeholders.

Who are the partners who have a role to play in turning the curve?

Turn the Curve planning is ideally about what the community will do working together, not just what local government will do. Local government cannot achieve the results communities want and need on its own. Further, it is easy for government officials to lose touch with realities on the ground and form assumptions and opinions that blind them to the most effective solutions.

Bringing diverse voices and perspectives to the table—in particular, those of people and organizations closest to the problem—combats cognitive biases and expands solution sets. Inclusive planning also helps to achieve procedural justice. Turn the Curve planning is structured and collaborative. It is not an exercise in gathering input for use in a black box decision process. Stakeholders have voice in shaping Turn the Curve planning. They participate in generating, evaluating, and prioritizing solutions.

What works to turn the curve?

The factors influencing the indicator trend identified in the story behind the curve inform the development of solutions. For example, a city examining racial disparities in homeownership found implicit bias among sellers, real
estate agents, and appraisers to be a significant barrier to Black homebuyers. This realization led the Turn the Curve planning team to propose several strategies: providing free legal services to first-time homebuyers, strengthening enforcement of fair housing laws, and analyzing appraisal and assessment data to identify and correct systemic bias.

The “what works” solutions that emerge from Turn the Curve planning are products of a planning process that follows all of the design principles for defining problems and are ready-made to fit into an outcome-based budgeting framework.

**What is our action plan to turn the curve?**

Turn the Curve planning ultimately produces a well-informed action plan, the execution of which becomes the focus of accountability. For frontline managers and staff, an action plan shifts attention from the result or outcome (the shape of the indicator or performance measure curve) to the process (carrying out the steps in the plan). At this level of the government structure, process accountability feels safer than outcome accountability because process is more controllable. Leadership’s concern is whether the action plan is producing the desired result, and good leaders will use indicator data to inform ongoing inquiry, not interrogation.

**Conclusion**

When a government takes the time to fully understand the problem it needs to address, it opens up new possibilities. The complex problems that governments must deal with often have interrelated causes, change at an exponential (not linear) rate, and involve rivalries between different interests. Fully understanding the problem allows planners to recognize these characteristics and devise a strategy to deal with them. Further, investigating problems more deeply works against the despair and sense of learned helplessness that can afflict local governments when it comes to complex problems. Many people have experienced the exhilaration of hope that comes from participating in a good planning process that deeply examines important issues.

Of course, many of these same people have experienced the disappointment of hopes unfulfilled by a lackluster implementation of the plan. This is not a reason to give up on deep examination of problems but rather an argument for better planning. In this paper, we suggested six design principles to characterize a good planning process. We also showed Turn the Curve planning as a way to put these principles into place and take your plan to action. From here, consider picking a challenging problem your government is faced with and seeing if Turn the Curve planning or another process that follows the design principles we described can help you understand that problem more fully and take action.

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