



Regulatory Experimentation

Committee on Rulemaking

Proposed Recommendation from Committee on Rulemaking | November 6, 2017

Commented [A1]: The committee proposed to change the title to: "Learning from Regulatory Experience."

1 Making sound regulatory decisions demands information and analysis. Several
2 Administrative Conference of the United States (Conference) recommendations encourage
3 agencies to gather data when making new rules and when reviewing existing rules.¹ These
4 recommendations reinforce analytic demands imposed on agencies by legislation,² executive
5 orders,³ and judicial decisions.⁴

6 Agencies need information about the problems that new rules will address, such as about
7 the risks involved and their causes. But agencies also need information about potential solutions
8 to these problems. What possible alternative rules or rule designs might help solve the
9 problems? How effective are these alternatives likely to be in addressing the underlying

¹ See, e.g., Administrative Conference of the United States, Recommendation 2014-5, *Retrospective Review of Agency Rules*, 79 Fed. Reg. 75,114 (Dec. 17, 2014); Recommendation 85-2, *Agency Procedures for Performing Regulatory Analysis of Rules*, 50 Fed. Reg. 28,364 (July 12, 1985); Recommendation 79-4, *Public Disclosure Concerning the Use of Cost-Benefit and Similar Analyses in Regulation*, 44 Fed. Reg. 38,826 (June 8, 1979).

² See, e.g., Data Quality Act, Pub. L. No. 106-554, § 515, 114 Stat. 2763A-153 (2001).

³ See, e.g., Exec. Order No. 12,866, § 5, 58 Fed. Reg. 51,735, 51,739 (Oct. 4, 1993) (“[T]o . . . improve the effectiveness of existing regulations . . . each . . . agency will periodically review its existing significant regulations to determine whether any such regulations should be modified or eliminated so as to make the agency’s regulatory program more effective in achieving the regulatory objectives.”); Exec. Order No. 13,563, § 6, 58 Fed. Reg. 3821, 3822 (Jan. 21, 2011) (requiring agencies to “consider how best to promote retrospective analysis of rules that may be outmoded, ineffective, insufficient, or excessively burdensome, and to modify, streamline, expand, or repeal them in accordance with what has been learned”); Exec. Order No. 13,771, § 2, 82 Fed. Reg. 9339 (Feb. 3, 2017) (requiring the repeal of two existing regulations for each new regulation proposed, and leaving in place prior analytical requirements); Exec. Order No. 13,777, § 3, 82 Fed. Reg. 12,285, 12,286 (Mar. 1, 2017) (requiring the establishment of Regulatory Reform Tasks forces that “shall evaluate existing regulations (as defined in section 4 of Executive Order 13,771) and make recommendations to the agency head regarding their repeal, replacement, or modification, consistent with applicable law”).

⁴ See, e.g., *Motor Vehicle Mfr.’s Ass’n v. State Farm Mut. Auto. Ins. Co.*, 463 U.S. 29, 43, 52 (1983) (explaining that the agency must show that its action was the result of “reasoned decisionmaking” consistent with “the evidence before the agency”).



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10 problems? Are there constraints, barriers, or unanticipated consequences that arise in the use of
11 these different alternatives? In terms of understanding possible alternatives and how well they
12 might work in practice, agencies benefit from having information from experience with different
13 solutions. Learning from experience is the focus of this recommendation.

Learning from Regulatory Experience

14 No uniform or tidy formula exists as to how agencies should generate, gather, and
15 analyze the data necessary to facilitate the learning needed to support sound regulatory decisions.
16 A variety of well-accepted and widely-used methods exist from which agencies may choose,
17 with the appropriate choices often varying agency by agency and even from situation to
18 situation. Practical considerations such as resource and data availability will affect the choices
19 agencies make about the methods of learning used to support regulatory decision making.⁵ Still,
20 it is possible to identify some of the main methods for learning from experience that are available
21 to agencies and which they should be encouraged to consider using at different stages of the
22 rulemaking lifecycle. These methods, which are not necessarily mutually exclusive, can be used
23 before or after a rule is adopted, and they may potentially be considered on occasion as part of
24 the final rule itself, which might be structured to encourage or allow for variation that can
25 facilitate future learning by agency officials.

26 Variation generally arises either between time periods⁶ or jurisdictions.⁷ An agency can
27 learn by comparing time periods or jurisdictions where a regulatory obligation has been imposed
28 with time periods or jurisdictions without such a regulatory obligation. For example, a
29 regulation that goes into effect in 2017 leaves the agency with two distinct time periods to

⁵ A general discussion of factors to consider in choosing methods and measurements in regulatory learning can be found in Cary Coglianese, *Measuring Regulatory Excellence*, in *ACHIEVING REGULATORY EXCELLENCE* 291–305 (Cary Coglianese ed., 2017).

⁶ Longitudinal analysis is a research design that involves repeated observations of the same subjects over a period, where variation in the intervention occurs over time (i.e., data before and after an intervention is introduced). See Cary Coglianese, *Measuring Regulatory Performance: Evaluating the Impact of Regulation and Regulatory Policy*, Organisation for Econ. Co-Operation and Dev. [OECD] Expert Paper No. 1 39 (Aug. 2012).

⁷ Cross-sectional analysis means analysis of data collected at a specific point in time but where variation exists across at least two groups or jurisdictions, one subject to the intervention (such as a regulation) and one that is not. See *id.*



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30 compare: the years before 2017, and 2017 and beyond. A rule that applies in jurisdictions X and
31 Y but not in jurisdictions A and B leaves the agency with the ability to compare outcomes in X
32 and Y with those in A and B, assuming the jurisdictions are comparable or that differences can
33 be statistically controlled. The agency can then learn whether outcomes are improved in those
34 time periods or jurisdictions with the regulatory obligation. However, agencies must be careful
35 not to assume automatically that any differences in outcomes that they observe have been caused
36 by the intervention of the regulation. Other factors that correlate with the observed outcomes
37 might also vary across the same time periods or jurisdictions.

Using Observational or Randomized Methods to Learn from Experience

38 To learn from experience, agencies should seek methods that allow them to draw valid
39 inferences about whether a particular regulatory intervention causes (or will cause)
40 improvements in the desired outcomes. Concern about the validity of such causal inferences
41 generally takes two forms. The first of these—external validity—refers to the extent to which
42 the inferences from a study situated within a particular time period or setting can apply to other
43 time periods and settings. In other words, an agency should consider to what extent the results of
44 a study focused on entities or individuals in one period or setting are generalizable to entities or
45 individuals in other times or settings. The second type of validity—internal validity—refers to
46 the extent to which the outcomes observed in a study can be said to have been caused by the
47 intervention rather than by potential confounders. In other words, an agency should consider
48 whether what might appear to be a relationship between a regulation and changes in outcomes
49 truly derives from the regulation. For example, if a study shows that accidents from a particular
50 industrial process have declined following the adoption of a regulation intended to reduce those
51 accidents, concern about internal validity would lead agency officials to consider the possibility
52 that the observed decline might have arisen from market or technological factors that led to
53 changes in the relevant industrial processes around the same time as the regulation but which
54 came about for reasons entirely unrelated to the regulation. An agency may wish to learn



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55 whether the observed decline came from the regulation or from other factors so as to know
56 whether to redesign the regulation if further improvements are warranted.

57 To isolate the true effects of a regulation on relevant outcomes, such as risk reduction,
58 agencies have two main analytical approaches available to them: randomized approaches and
59 observational approaches. Both of these approaches have advantages and disadvantages, and
60 choosing between them will depend on a variety of contextual factors.

61 Randomized approaches promise to generate results with a high level of internal validity
62 because, by making a random assignment of individuals or entities subject to a regulatory
63 intervention, any other factors that might lead to changes in the relevant outcomes should be
64 distributed randomly between the group subject to the regulatory intervention and the
65 comparison group. Of course, randomized methods can also have their limitations. There is
66 always a question as to whether the results of a randomized experiment are externally valid. For
67 example, a perfectly designed randomized experiment may indicate that exposure to an
68 intervention generates particular outcomes in a laboratory setting but may not mean that those
69 same outcomes will occur outside of the laboratory. In addition, the results of randomized
70 methods may lack validity if individuals, knowing that their behaviors are part of a randomized
71 experiment, behave differently from how they would otherwise act. Researchers try to limit this
72 particular threat to validity by using double-blind, or even just single-blind, study designs.⁸
73 However, it is possible that in many regulatory contexts, regulated parties will know they are
74 subject to a randomized study and may engage in strategic behavior that may skew the results of
75 the study.

76 In addition to these methodological challenges, randomized study methods may present
77 legal, policy, and ethical concerns. From a legal standpoint, subjecting similar parties to
78 different rules may be thought to raise concerns under the equal protection clause of the

⁸ “Blindness” in this context means lack of awareness of being in the treatment or comparison group. “Double blindness” means neither the subjects nor the researchers know which subjects received the treatment, and which received the placebo. See Michael Abramowicz et al., *Randomizing Law*, 159 U. PA. L. REV. 929, 948–950 (2011).



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79 Constitution or the arbitrary and capricious standard of the Administrative Procedure Act
80 (APA).⁹ Of course, an agency might present a legally valid argument that the rational basis, or
81 non-arbitrary reason, for its action is to generate information necessary to make an informed
82 decision.¹⁰ From a policy standpoint, if some entities are subject to regulation and others are not,
83 an agency may well risk artificially distorting a market, depending on what a rule requires or
84 how the study is designed. From an ethical standpoint, if a rule specifically sets up an
85 experiment with the idea that, after the experiment, the agency may change the rule, a concern
86 may exist if some regulated entities will by then have invested heavily in capital-intensive
87 equipment required by the rule. Another concern might be with varying levels of health or safety
88 protection to different members of the public. In the absence of countervailing considerations,
89 legal, policy, and ethical challenges such as these may mean that randomized study methods will
90 be appropriate for use by regulatory agencies only under limited circumstances.

91 Where randomized study methods are either unavailable or inadvisable, agencies have
92 available to them a broad range of opportunities to learn from observational studies. Sometimes
93 these studies are called “natural experiments,” as they seek to draw inferences based on variation
94 that naturally arises over time or across settings in the absence of randomization. For this reason,
95 observational studies lack some of the methodological advantages that randomization can
96 provide. Internal validity is generally a more present concern with observational studies, as other
97 factors may confound a study’s results. In other words, other factors may also vary naturally
98 with the intervention under study and affect the observed outcomes. An example of a potential
99 confounding factor is when an intervention is accepted voluntarily; those individuals or entities
100 who voluntarily choose to adopt a new practice may be different from the individuals or entities
101 to whom a mandatory requirement would apply.

102 The possibility of such confounding factors should be accounted for when conducting
103 observational studies and can be effectively addressed by using various methods that attempt to

⁹ See 5 U.S.C. § 706(2)(A).

¹⁰ See Abramowicz et al., *supra* note 8, at 968.



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104 mimic statistically what occurs with randomization.¹¹ Assuming the potential threats to internal
105 validity can be addressed, observational studies may in some circumstances lead to results with
106 stronger external validity than randomization. As a general matter, observational studies will
107 also not raise the same legal, policy, or ethical concerns as randomization. With observational
108 studies, the agency is either exploiting natural variation that would have arisen from the rule
109 anyway or allowing for learning from other existing variation, such as state-by-state variation.

Opportunities for Learning from Experience Throughout the Rulemaking Lifecycle

110 Agencies have opportunities to learn from experience throughout the rulemaking
111 lifecycle. For example, one stage of this cycle occurs before a rule is adopted, as agencies are
112 focused on a problem to be addressed and are considering potential regulatory solutions.
113 Learning from experience at this early stage can help inform an agency of how a rule should be
114 designed. Another stage of the cycle lies with the design of the rule itself. At this stage, as an
115 agency writes a rule, it may design it in a way that can facilitate the type of variation needed to
116 promote learning. Finally, yet another stage arises after the agency has promulgated the rule. At
117 this stage, agencies can consider actions, such as waivers, that can facilitate learning from
118 experience.

Learning Before Adopting a Rule

119 Prior to adopting a rule, an agency should gather information using appropriate methods
120 to help inform the regulatory action it plans to take. An agency will have options for randomized
121 and observational methods that it may wish to consider.

122 *Randomized Methods.* Agencies can analyze existing peer-reviewed studies that
123 incorporate a randomized design. They can also initiate or support new pilot programs that
124 produce randomized study data. For example, if an agency were trying to determine whether a
125 certain default rule related to saving for retirement should be required of all employers offering

¹¹ Examples of such statistical methods include: difference-in-differences, propensity score matching, instrumental variables, and regression discontinuity. See Coglianese, *supra* note 6, at 39–42.



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126 401(k) plans, it might, if consistent with applicable law, seek the cooperation of some large
127 employers to see whether they would assign randomly some of their employees to a company
128 policy that requires them to opt into a retirement saving plan and other employees to a company
129 policy that defaults employees into the plan but then allows them to opt out. Such action would
130 be voluntary by the company but random (and effectively involuntary) by the individual. The
131 agency might be able to learn better which default rule will yield greater savings and then use
132 these results to inform a decision about a regulation that would apply to all companies.

133 *Observational Methods.* Agencies can also undertake observational studies prior to
134 creating new rules. An agency might, for example, employ a cross-sectional research design by
135 looking at variation in existing policies at the state level (or perhaps in other countries), taking to
136 heart Justice Louis Brandeis’s observation that “a state may, if its citizens choose, serve as a
137 laboratory; and try novel social and economic experiments without risk to the rest of the
138 country.”¹² In fact, Congress has, on numerous occasions, directed agencies to analyze state-by-
139 state variation to help determine optimal policies.¹³

Designing a Rule to Facilitate Learning

140 An agency can write a rule to facilitate future learning or to enable it later to take
141 advantage of variation that stems naturally from the rule. Again, options an agency may wish to
142 consider will include randomized and observational methods.

143 *Randomized Methods.* One potential approach an agency might consider, when
144 appropriate, would be to structure the rule to allow for learning through a randomized method.¹⁴
145 This could entail writing a rule in such a way that some entities or people that fall within the
146 agency’s regulatory scope are subject to one version of the rule and some are subject to another

¹² See *New State Ice Co. v. Liebmann*, 285 U.S. 262, 311 (1932).

¹³ See, e.g., Energy Policy Act of 2005, Pub. L. No. 109-58, § 139, 119 Stat. 594, 647 (2005) (“[T]he Secretary . . . shall conduct a study of State and regional policies that promote cost-effective programs to reduce energy consumption (including energy efficiency programs) that are carried out by utilities that are subject to State regulation.”).

¹⁴ See generally Abramowicz et al., *supra* note 8.



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147 version of the rule or not subject to the rule at all. The agency’s decision as to who falls within
148 each category could be made on a random basis. For example, Michael Abramowicz, Ian Ayres,
149 and Yair Listokin have postulated a test of speed limits in which the posted limits on different
150 roads are randomly increased or decreased.¹⁵ Drivers on these roads are informed of the
151 regulatory intervention (i.e., the speed limit on that road) without necessarily knowing that they
152 were participating in a randomized experiment. Although this example falls outside the realm of
153 federal rulemaking, agencies at the federal level may have similar ways to structure the timing or
154 application of a rule using randomization. Assuming any potential methodological, legal,
155 ethical, and policy concerns about randomization can be addressed, there may be some
156 circumstances in which randomization will be an appropriate way for an agency to generate
157 variation that will facilitate learning from experience.

158 *Observational Methods.* For the reasons discussed above, agencies will generally find it
159 more feasible to use observational approaches than randomized ones. In any rulemaking, there
160 will be variation from observing the world before the rule went into effect and comparing it to
161 the world after the rule has taken effect. Further, in the case of a rule that an agency has
162 rescinded, there will be variation in three conditions: the world before the rule went into effect,
163 the world in which the rule was in effect, and the world after the rule was rescinded. Such
164 variation can present rich opportunities for observational studies. Agencies may well decide, at
165 the outset when promulgating a new rule, to commit to setting up a longitudinal study. In doing
166 so, they would need to collect data from regulated parties before the rule goes into effect and
167 then collect data once the rule has taken effect, keeping in mind potential confounders and using
168 statistical techniques to control for them.¹⁶

169 Additionally, agencies may consider deliberately introducing or allowing for some non-
170 random variation in response to a rule by allowing for flexibility by states in the implementation

¹⁵ See *id.* at 951.

¹⁶ See Administrative Conference of the United States, Recommendation 2014-5, *Retrospective Review of Agency Rules*, 79 Fed. Reg. 75,114, 75,116–17 (Dec. 17, 2014).



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171 of the rule. For example, variation can occur if the agency sets a federal minimum standard and
172 permits states to exceed that standard. Agencies then can commit to using the resulting state-by-
173 state variation to compare firms separated by a very short distance in neighboring states that have
174 adopted different rules. Using the statistical technique known as regression discontinuity, the
175 agency may be able to approximate randomization (i.e., the “assignment” of firms to a state with
176 one rule versus another would be effectively random).¹⁷

Learning After Promulgating a Rule

177 Once a rule has been put in place, an agency has available further opportunities to take
178 advantage of variation and can again consider options for using either randomized or
179 observational methods.

180 *Randomized Methods.* Once a rule has been adopted, an agency might choose to
181 deregulate a segment of the market on a random basis to learn from variation. In 2004, the
182 Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) did this with respect to its “Uptick Rule.”¹⁸ The
183 SEC concluded that the rule did not substantially increase market efficiency and consequently
184 rescinded the rule.¹⁹

185 *Observational Methods.* In addition to deregulating on a random basis, agencies can
186 achieve variation once the rule is in place by considering conditional waivers and exemptions.
187 For example, if a regulated entity can present some evidence to suggest that it can meet the
188 purpose of the regulation using an alternative approach, the agency might grant a waiver to that
189 entity with the condition that the entity uses that alternative approach.²⁰ After granting a certain

¹⁷ See Jonah B. Gelbach & Jonathan Klick, *Empirical Law and Economics*, in THE OXFORD HANDBOOK OF LAW AND ECONOMICS (Francisco Parisi ed., 2017).

¹⁸ See Ord. Suspending the Operation of Short Sale Price Provisions for Designated Sec. and Time Periods, Exchange Act Release No. 50,104, 69 Fed. Reg. 48,032 (Aug. 6, 2004).

¹⁹ See Zachary Gubler, Regulatory Experimentation 42 (Sep. 10, 2017), available at <https://www.acus.gov/report/regulatory-experimentation-draft-report>.

²⁰ See Administrative Conference of the United States, Recommendation 2017 ___, *Waivers and Exemptions*, available at <https://www.acus.gov/recommendation/waivers-and-exemptions-recommendation-revised> (still under consideration); see also



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190 number of waivers, the agency could then test the effectiveness of its rule by comparing entities
191 that have selected different approaches. The agency would likely find it necessary to use
192 statistical techniques to control for potential confounders. Over time, these kinds of studies may
193 provide the agency with retrospective information that justifies amending an existing rule.
194 Fairness, legal, and ethical concerns might be minimized when using conditional waivers if the
195 agency permits all regulated entities to seek a waiver based on presentation of evidence and the
196 agency widely publicizes its waiver availability.²¹

197 Examples of the main methods of learning discussed in the preceding sections can be
198 summarized in Table 1.

199 **Table 1: Examples of Methods for Regulatory Learning**

	Randomized	Observational
Learning before adopting a rule	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Randomized voluntary pilot programs • Studies that rely on randomization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pilot programs where intervention is not assigned randomly (such as with voluntary programs) • Analysis of regulatory approaches in different jurisdictions and countries
Designing a rule to facilitate learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Randomized assignment of different regulatory obligations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rules that allow for state implementation and variation (e.g., cooperative federalism) • Analysis of temporal differences (i.e., “before and after” comparisons); • Creation of regulatory thresholds that will facilitate later comparisons of entities above/below a threshold

Aaron Nielson, Waivers, Exemptions, and Prosecutorial Discretion: An Examination of Agency Non-Enforcement Practices 30 (Nov. 1, 2017), available at https://www.acus.gov/sites/default/files/documents/ACUS%20Waiver%20Report%20FINAL_0.pdf.

²¹ See Administrative Conference of the United States, Recommendation 2017 __, *Waivers and Exemptions*, available at <https://www.acus.gov/recommendation/waivers-and-exemptions-recommendation-revised> (still under consideration).



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Learning after promulgating a rule	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regulated entities randomly selected for different types of suspension of enforcement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Granting of waivers that allow for the adoption of alternative approaches that can be studied
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Common Issues in Learning from Experience

200 As noted, each stage of the rulemaking lifecycle presents agencies with the opportunity to
 201 learn from variation. Agencies have options available to them to learn from both randomized
 202 and observational methods, keeping in mind the virtues and challenges of each. Whichever
 203 method an agency chooses, at least two additional issues should be considered: data collection
 204 and public input.

Data Collection

205 Collecting data is essential. Only with information can agencies hope to learn from
 206 analyzing regulations. When collecting data, though, agencies must be mindful of the Paperwork
 207 Reduction Act, which can constrain their ability to send a survey instrument to ten or more
 208 parties.²² Agencies may find it helpful to work closely with the Office of Information and
 209 Regulatory Affairs (OIRA) to use available flexibility within the Act and the Office of
 210 Management and Budget’s (OMB’s) implementing regulations as part of data collection
 211 endeavors.

Public Input

212 Best practices generally call for some opportunity for the public to learn about and
 213 comment on the design of and the results of studies an agency undertakes. For pre-rule learning,
 214 the notice and comment process provides the required minimum process by which agencies
 215 should engage the public, but there are other methods of public input that might be useful, even

²² See 44 U.S.C. § 3502 (3)(A)(i).



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216 at the pre-rule stage, for public input beyond just notice and comment.²³ If an agency is planning
217 to revise a rule, a subsequent notice and comment rulemaking will provide an additional
218 opportunity for public input. If an initial rule contained a sunset provision, that would also
219 ensure that the public has the opportunity to offer input on a future notice and comment
220 rulemaking to keep or modify the rule. Even rules not subject to the APA's notice and comment
221 procedures, pursuant to the APA's good cause exemption, can benefit from subsequent
222 opportunities for public comment.²⁴

223 But even absent a new notice and comment rulemaking—even if the agency is keeping
224 the rule “as is”—it may benefit from outside input on the systematic learning effort it has
225 undertaken, whether through a peer review process, advisory committees, public hearings or
226 meetings, or just a supplemental solicitation of comments. The decision as to which approach to
227 use to solicit public input will turn on numerous factors, including resource constraints.²⁵

RECOMMENDATION

228 1. To improve the quality of their rules, agencies should seek opportunities to generate
229 information through variation that agencies intentionally introduce or foster, such as through
230 pilot projects, demonstrations, or flexibility among states or regulated entities. Agencies
231 should conduct learning in such ways that responsibly give due regard for legal, ethical,
232 practical, and fairness considerations. They can learn from experience at one or more stages
233 of the rulemaking lifecycle, from pre-rule analysis to retrospective review.

²³ See, e.g., Administrative Conference of the United States, Recommendation 2017-2, *Negotiated Rulemaking and Other Options for Public Engagement*, 82 Fed. Reg. 31,039 (2017); Administrative Conference of the United States, Recommendation 2013-5, *Social Media in Rulemaking*, 78 Fed. Reg. 76,269 (2013).

²⁴ Administrative Conference of the United States, Recommendation 95-4, *Procedures for Noncontroversial and Expedited Rulemaking*, 60 Fed. Reg. 43,110 (1995).

²⁵ See Gubler, *supra* note 19, at 54.



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- 234 2. When agencies analyze variation to learn more about the effectiveness of policy options, they
235 should make every effort to collect data and conduct reliable analysis. Only where
236 appropriate, agencies should consider creating variation through a randomized control trial.
- 237 3. To inform the learning process, agencies should consider soliciting public input at various
238 points in the rulemaking lifecycle. This can include input on the design and results of any
239 learning process. In addition to the public input required under 5 U.S.C. § 553(c), agencies
240 should consider, as time and resources permit, the use of supplemental requests for public
241 comment, peer review, advisory committee deliberation, or public hearings or meetings.
- 242 4. When gathering data, agencies and OMB should seek to use flexibilities within the
243 Paperwork Reduction Act and OMB's implementing regulations (e.g., a streamlined
244 comment period for collections associated with proposed rules) where permissible and
245 appropriate.
- 246 5. Congress should ensure that agencies have legal authority and sufficient resources to
247 implement these recommendations.