

BRIDGING RESEARCH AND POLICY

An annotated bibliography produced for the
[Bridging Research and Policy Project](#)

Agrawal, A. (1995) Dismantling the Divide Between Indigenous and Scientific Knowledge. *Development and Change* 26(3), 413-439.

This article discusses the current focus - especially within 'people-centred' development - on the use of indigenous knowledge as a significant resource. Although Agrawal recognises that the challenge to the monopoly enjoyed by 'Western' (scientific) knowledge is long overdue, he criticises the assumption implicit in the new indigenous knowledge discourse that there is a clear divide between indigenous and Western knowledge. This dichotomous classification of knowledge is bound to fail for two reasons. Firstly, each body of knowledge is so heterogeneous that it cannot be clearly separated from the other. Secondly, the indigenous versus Western classification assumes that knowledge is a fixed system (in time, space and content). Instead, Agrawal argues that knowledge creation is a fluid process that evolves in close interaction with the changing (political, institutional, cultural, economic) context. Moreover, knowledge changes depending on the interests it serves and the purposes for which it is used. Therefore, different strategies for systematising and disseminating knowledge will not be 'neutral', but will benefit different social groups.

Allor, M. (1995) (1995) Relocating the Site of the Audience. In O. Boyd-Barrett and C. Newbold (Eds) *Approaches to Media, A Reader*. London, UK: Arnold.

Several theoretical approaches have been critical of the 'passive recipient audience' that is implied by a linear approach to media communication. These critical approaches all analyse how the original meaning of the message is changed in the process of communicating it to an audience. As the audience engages with the message, they mould it and fill in gaps, so that the message in the end acquires specific but widely different meanings.

Anheimer, H., Glasius, M. and Kaldor, M. (2001) *Introducing Global Civil Society*. Global Civil Society 2001. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

The authors argue that global civil society both feeds on and reacts to globalisation. Like global civil society, 'globalisation' is also a new concept with different meanings. In every day usage it tends to refer to the spread of global capitalism. In the social science literature it is usually defined as growing interconnectedness in political, social, and cultural spheres as well as the economy, something which has been greatly facilitated by travel and communication (see Held et al. 1999). It is also sometimes used to refer to growing global consciousness, the sense of a common community of mankind (Shaw 2000; Robertson 1990).

Beach, L. R. (1997) *The Psychology of Decision-Making: People in Organizations*. London, UK: Sage.

The book presents an overview of the psychology of decision-making. The author broadly characterises decision making as a sequence of events: diagnosis, action selection, and implementation

Bedimo, A. L., Pinkerton, S. D., Cohen, D. A., Gray, B. and Farley, T. A. (2002) Condom Distribution: A cost-utility analysis. *International Journal of STD & AIDS* 13(6), 384-392.

Objective: To explore the cost-effectiveness of a condom distribution programme. Methods: We conducted a cost-utility analysis of a social marketing campaign in which over 33 million condoms were made freely available throughout Louisiana. Surveys among 275,000 African Americans showed that condom use increased by 30%. Based on the estimated cost of the intervention and costs of HIV/AIDS-associated medical treatment, we estimated the quality-adjusted life years (QALYs) saved, and number of HIV infections averted by the programme

Berkout, F. and Scoones, I. (1999) *Knowing how to change. Environmental policy learning and transfer*. UK: Science and Technology Policy Research.

New knowledge, changing expectations and practical experience are being applied by policy actors

at many different levels, in a process of 'adaptive social learning'. Yet learning runs into numerous obstacles and blockages. Knowledge is seen as a key ingredient of learning and shifts in understanding may arise from multiple sites, resulting in either more fundamental reframing of policy problems, sometimes challenging long-held conventional wisdoms, or more incremental changes focused on more marginal instrumental changes. Whatever its source, new knowledge and the prospect of change that it brings, frequently threatens existing policy relationships and structures of power. Responses to scientific and practical knowledge are highly differentiated. Stephens identifies two processes which she names 'snowballs' (the accumulation of research impacts within policy elites) and 'whispers' (the reinterpretation of research findings in broader constituencies). Environmental policy learning is most effectively achieved by adopting a more flexible and iterative model of the policy process. This resource can be found at: <http://www.id21.org/society/insights30editorial.html>. Last accessed 4/8/2009

Bourdieu, P. (1991) *On Language and Symbolic Power*. Cambridge, UK: Polity/Basil Blackwell.

Bourdieu has had a significant impact on media studies because of his argument that relations of communication are always, inseparably, power relations. The agents or institutions involved in communication have different degrees of 'symbolic power', i.e. the power to make people see and believe certain visions of the world rather than others. Those with relatively high symbolic power are able to present visions that people will conform to, or are even able to transform visions. The symbols used (the cultural codes, the buzzwords, the presentation, etc) serve the function of creating consensus and 'glueing' society together. However, the symbols will always serve the interests of some groups rather than others, thus anyone who is able to launch or control symbols will also have (political) power. The result is that any communication is closely linked to the relative symbolic power that the communicator has to 'construct visions of reality'.

Brown, D. L. (1995) *Managing Conflict Among Groups*. In D.A. Kolb, J. Osland and I.M. Rubin (Eds) *The Organizational Behavior Reader 6th Edition*. Prentice-Hall International.

The importance of effective conflict management in organisations is increasing, symptomatic of global trends. Relations among groups in organisations can be characterized by too much or too little conflict, depending on their task, the nature of their differences, and the degree to which they are independent. This proposition suggests that conflict managers should strive to maintain some appropriate level of conflict, rather than automatically trying to reduce or resolve all disagreements.

Bryman, A. (2001) *Social Research Methods*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bryman's comprehensive discussion of different research methods covers both quantitative and qualitative approaches, as well as issues raised by attempts to break down the divide between the two. In his chapter on qualitative research, he suggests several criteria for evaluating the findings

Buurma, H. (2001) *Public Policy Marketing: Marketing exchange in the public sector*. *European Journal of Marketing* 35(11), 1287-1302.

Customer-oriented governments may use marketing tools to match their policy 'products' with citizens' requirements. However, these tools are not based on exchanges since governments, apart from cost recovery, do not demand any reciprocation for their products. The concept of public policy marketing could enable governments to 'sell' their policies to citizens, based on non-commercial marketing exchanges specific to the context of public administration. Then, social behaviour should be considered citizens' reciprocation contributing to social effects the government has aimed for. Thus public policy marketing, though not yet tested in practice, can be expected to improve the implementation of those governmental policies in which citizen conduct is critical to success.

Carr, A. (1998) Identity, Compliance and Dissent in Organizations: A Psychoanalytical Perspective. *Organization* 5(1), 81-99.

Much of the literature in organization theory has yielded an image of the individual which could be called 'skilfully partial'. The viewpoints talk 'about' human agency without having a view 'of' human agency, turning what is a 'process' into an 'object'. Other viewpoints raise the same dichotomy, without an underlying theoretic about the dynamic between the two. An example of this difficulty is apparent in the literature that seeks to address the issues of compliance and dissent in organizations. There is little in the way of explanation of the psychodynamics that are involved. This paper puts forward an explanation of compliance and dissent in organizations and explains how these issues are very much intertwined with the dynamic processes involved in the construction of individual identity. This explanation recognizes the importance of individual experiential histories, including those that are specifically institutionally fashioned, such as gender and the primacy of work. Drawing upon psychoanalytical theory (with some of its Frankfurt School and other variants), an essential lens is provided through which the issues of compliance and dissent can readily be viewed and understood. Results from recent studies are used to illustrate this different perspective, and the psychodynamics that are put forward are discussed in terms of further implications for the field.

Castells, M. (1993) The Informational Economy and the New International Division of Labour. In M. Carnoy et al. *The New Global Economy in the Information Age*. London, UK: Macmillan.

Globalisation has been seen as an expansionary and inclusionary process. Castells argues that it is now becoming an exclusionary process, due to the nature of the emerging global informational economy. The highest value-added links in the chain of global production are concentrated in core areas, along with the highest value production of information. These core areas cut across the traditional First/Second/Third World divide, as the information age has made it possible to link core areas in the 'First World' with metropolitan core areas in the 'Third World'. The reason that this is now an exclusionary process is because other areas, which might previously have been exploited by the international division of labour, are now becoming irrelevant in the dynamics of the informational economy. Castells calls these irrelevant areas the 'Fourth World', and argues that they can be found both in the 'First' and in the 'Third World'.

Chapman, J. and Fisher, T. (1999) *Effective Campaigning*. London, UK: New Economics Foundation.

International Non-governmental organizations are devoting more energy to policy influence work without knowing much about what makes a campaign effective. Based on research conducted by the new Economics Foundation, and focusing on case studies of child labour in India and the promotion of breast feeding in Ghana, they recommend: [1] effective campaigns require a long-term commitment and take place at many different levels: international, national/regional, and grassroots. To achieve the reach and mix of skills required, collaboration is essential while individuals (or champions) with drive and commitment are also key; [2] campaigns are not enough on their own; implementation and change at the grassroots should never be assumed and require additional activity; [3] a narrow focus can be effective in getting an issue formulated but problems caused by poverty are more complex; if the campaign is not widened out at a later stage it is unlikely to achieve effective change; [4] effectiveness is an art not a science: but organizations can learn from past and present experience using frameworks and other evaluative processes. In evaluating different structures for collaboration, they identify three types: 'pyramid' (quick, helps get access to top level of policy, but can ignore grassroots), 'wheel' (slow but good for information exchange and development of centres of specialization), 'web' (like a wheel but with no focal NGO, could be too slow for campaigning).

Chodorow, N. (1999) *The Power of Feelings; Personal Meaning in Psychoanalysis, Gender, and Culture*. New Haven, USA: Yale University Press.

Psychoanalytic theories about how we communicate take as their starting point the different ways in which we create 'personal meaning' when dealing with events. Humans have the need to gain a sense of meaning and to manage new experiences that may be threatening. This is done through drawing on our inner world, which harbours an array of possible reactions built on past experiences and emotions. This inner reality is brought into interpersonal communication through transference and projection.

Chomsky, N. (1987) *The Manufacture of Consent*. In J. Peck (Ed.) *The Chomsky Reader*. London, UK: Serpent's Tail.

Chomsky argues that US policies are shaped by and in turn shape a 'framework of possible thought'. This framework consists of various tacit doctrines, (such as the idea underpinning US foreign policy that Nicaragua poses a threat to the US). These doctrines are all the more effective in 'engineering consent' because they are not debatable; certain terms (e.g. 'peace', 'security') seem so persuasive and self-evident that opposition to them is unthinkable. Chomsky claims that dissident views are so easily relegated to the periphery in US policy making precisely because these views are not able to communicate with policy makers within the framework of possible thought, and are therefore dismissed as impossible or morally dubious ('anti-peace', 'anti-security').

Clay, E.J. and Schaffer, B.B. (1984) *Room for Manoeuvre; An Exploration of Public Policy in Agricultural and Rural Development*. London, UK: Heinemann Educational Books.

Clay & Schaffer start from the assumption that policies can actually make a difference and that there are different policy choices; i.e. there is room for a manoeuvre. However, this does not mean that policy is a case of linking intentions to implementation. In fact, Clay & Schaffer point out that there is frequently a gap between policy aims and outcomes, and they claim that this clear divide is upheld because it enables the group on each side (decision-makers versus implementers) to blame the other group for policy failures.

Clegg, S. (1994) *Constitution of the Resistant Subject*. In J.M. Jermier, D. Knights and W.R. Nord (Eds.) *Resistance and Power in Organisations*. London, UK: Routledge.

The two general ingredients in this chapter are the relation between the interconnection of power relationships and the constitution of subjectivity. One way of expressing this is through the construction of a continuum of 'the degree of intensiveness/extensiveness of the power relations constitutive of the subject'. Drawing on the chapters in this volume it is possible to identify at least three aspects of this dimension of power and subjectivity. There is, first, the question of individual organisation. How coherently organised is the individual, in terms of their subjectivity, as a reflexive agent in power relations? How coherently organised is the individual as one who seeks to enrol, translate, interest or oppose others in their projects? Does the subject have sufficient self-cognizance to be able to exercise this agency? Second, at the mid-point, there is the question of social organisation. To what extent is the subject able to draw upon resources of social organisation greater than the self, such as familial networks or an ecology of local community networks? Third, the most extensive point is the question of solidaristic organisation: to what extent can the subject draw upon consciously organised resources of a social movement or collective organisation in the pursuit of their agency? Or, to put the question in another, equally appropriate way, to what extent does power constitute the resources of human agency in terms of self, significant and generalised others?

Coleman, D. (2001) *Policy Research - Who Needs It?* *Governance* 4(4), 420-455.

The relationship between government policymaking and policy research changes over time and between governments. It seldom follows the orderly sequence of logical events which researchers

may like to imagine. In attempting to understand the relationship between the creation of knowledge and its use by policymakers, it is essential to understand the needs and behaviour of politicians, the pressures upon their time and the wide range of channels of information, informal as well as formal, open to them and to their immediate advisers. Social policy research, partly because of its frequent ambiguity and partiality, is particularly likely to be ignored by its official consumers in government. Some social and economic questions are probably not capable of effective testing by research other than by governments putting policies into effect on a national scale. Evaluation of such experiments is difficult. More attention needs to be paid to the marketing of ideas by pressure groups and think tanks. Governments can shop around for acceptable advice from a wide range of sources outside academic life. Except in highly consensual political cultures, the only decisions which are made primarily on the basis of research findings are politically unimportant ones. In considering the role of policy research it is essential to keep the primacy of politics firmly in mind.

Collin, A. (2001) Learning and Development. In I. Beardwell and L. Holden (Eds) Human Resource Management: A contemporary approach. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education.

The article starts with a series of definitions of learning which essentially rest on the view that the acquisition of knowledge facilitates change in perceptions and practice. These attributes are increasingly important in the information age where people are expected to deal with change and new technology, and become more skilled in problem solving and creative thinking.

Douglas, M. (1986) How Institutions Think. Syracuse University Press.

Mary Douglas' seminal book is an anthropological study of the basis for collective action through institutions. She moves away from the rationalist choice model that privileges the decision-making of sovereign individuals, and which would view organisational decisions as the outcome of negotiations between powerful individuals within the organisation. Instead she argues that organisational decisions are largely shaped by the institutional 'thought-world'. All institutions generate their own world of images, symbols, ideas, and past experiences, and people in the institution to some degree must accept this thought-world in order to function. Thus individuals' decisions in an institution are largely shaped by the institution as a whole. Moreover, the institutional thought-world orders experience and memory, and exercises a relatively large degree of control over the way its members perceive and react to new ideas. In Douglas' term, institutions exercise 'social control of cognition'.

Edwards, M. (1994) NGOs in the Age of Information. IDS Bulletin 25(2), 117-124. Brighton, UK: IDS.

In this article, Edwards links the rise of NGOs within the development field to the emergence of the information age, and poses the question of whether NGOs have a comparative advantage in linking information, knowledge and action in an efficient and relevant way. He suggests that NGOs have a distinctive competence in this area due to three factors: 1. NGOs have direct access to fieldwork and local accounts. 2. NGOs usually have offices that span the different levels of the global system, and therefore information can flow easily between the grassroots, NGO local offices, NGO headquarters, and NGO lobbying activity in global centres. 3. NGOs' value base implies a democratic approach to communication that emphasises openness, sharing and non-hierarchical communication channels.

Edwards, M. and Gaventa, J. (2001) Global Citizen Action. Boulder, CO, USA: Lynne Rienner.

Edwards introduces this edited volume by pointing out that with the move away from the 'Washington consensus' we have new ideas about what partnership requires: strong social infrastructure [including social capital]; pluralistic governance and decision-making; partnerships between public, private and civic organisations; and public support for international institutions. As global governance becomes less state-based, the role of civil society is certain to grow. But many NGOs are criticised for being unaccountable, illegitimate, and dominated by elites. NGOs with no membership depend on research, experience and good links with partners to justify their growing

role as advocates. There is greater consensus on some campaigns [e.g. debt, landmines] than others [trade, environmental, labour rights] due to conflicting interests. Better links are needed between local and global levels, but it is also important, he advises, to build coalitions at national levels rather than leapfrogging to officials in Brussels, for example. Information technology could allow more democratic and horizontal coalitions and networks. On the other hand, since globalisation means that certainty about solutions has become even more elusive, better research and dialogue is needed.

Elliott, P. (1995) Intellectuals, the 'information society' and the disappearance of the public sphere. In O. Boyd-Barrett and C. Newbold (Eds.) *Approaches to Media, A Reader*. London, UK: Arnold.

Elliott argues that the information society is not the democratic force that it is claimed to be. The information society is seen as a process of democratisation by those who emphasise the increased access to information and the expanded possibilities of two-way communication. Elliott points out that access to information does not just depend on having the physical technology. Access is a matter of power relations and the uneven distribution of rights and ability to mobilise one's rights. The present increase in information availability is linked to an increase in the privatisation of information, meaning that information is no longer a right but a commodity. The information for which there is highest demand - or which is demanded by the most powerful consumers - will be produced, rather than information which is demanded by marginal groups or which runs counter to the interests of the powerful actors in the information market. Therefore, Elliott suggests that the information society is not a democratising force, but rather an erosion of the public sphere. It represents a shift away from a society where people were involved as political citizens, to a society where people are involved as consumption units.

Fine, M., Weis, L., Weseen, S. and Wong, L. (2000) For Whom? Qualitative Research, Representations, and Social Responsibilities. In N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

This essay is one of the opening chapters in Denzin & Lincoln's comprehensive 'Handbook of Qualitative Research'. It engages with questions on how research represents the lives of the poor in a time when the poor are increasingly becoming subjects of scrutiny by dominant institutions (the state and its liberal policies, as well as the Third World development regime). This presents a new set of dilemmas for the present generation of researchers, including questions of how to influence public consciousness, how to link personal stories with social structures, and how to reframe both the helpless-victim as well as the degenerate-victim images. The chapter explicitly states its normative approach, which is centred on how to use research for the sake of social justice

Franco, J. (1994) Beyond Ethnocentrism: Gender, Power and the Third-World Intelligentsia. In P. Williams and L. Chrisman (Eds.) *Colonial Discourse and Post-colonial Theory, A Reader*. New York, USA: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

In a brief review of the development of the Latin American intelligentsia over the past half century, Franco notes that they have been constituted by a metropolitan and masculine discourse that they have adapted to in order to catch the 'metropolitan attention'. Not only has their intellectual production relied on representations of women as symbolic virgins, mothers or whores, but the entire process of intellectual production has been characterized by traits typically associated with masculinity, such as public space, mobility, activity, and immortality. Thus research has been occupied with the public and with (modern) production, rather than the private and reproduction, and this has served to subordinate not only women but also the indigenous groups. Moreover, the act of research and intellectual production becomes characteristic of 'the masculine' through being framed as a quest for immortality and a confrontation between the pursuer and the pursued (i.e. the writer and the reader).

Garrett, J. L. and Islam, Y. (1998) Policy Research and the Policy Process: Do the twain ever meet? Gatekeeper Series no. 74. IIED.

This paper aims to contribute to the development of methodologies for evaluating the impact of social science on policy choices and outcomes. Since it is almost impossible to trace a precise pathway from specific research effort to policy decisions, evaluation of the impact of social science research institutes should: [1] evaluate the quality and timeliness of research output, the contribution of research to the policy debate, and the potential (rather than actual) impact of the research on policy; [2] evaluate contributions of research to 'enlightenment', and not only to policy change; [3] take into account the diverse ways in which research findings enter and influence the policy process, [4] perform evaluations over time to capture the different ways and different points in time at which research influences policy actors and processes.

Gaspar, D. and Apthorpe, R. (1996) Introduction: Discourse Analysis and Policy Discourse. European Journal of Development Research 8(1), 1-15.

Gaspar & Apthorpe provide a comprehensive overview of different approaches to policy as discourse. Their starting point is to see policy discourse as 'argumentation', rather than as objective and scientific statements. In other words, policies are ways of putting forward an argument about what a particular situation (or what the world) is like, and what should be done about it.

Giddens, A. (1990) The Consequences of Modernity. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.

Modernity is inherently globalising. Giddens examines the globalising process through a sociological lens, concentrating on the way social life is ordered across time and space (time-space distanciation). Globalisation has rapidly increased the level of simultaneous local involvements and the interaction across distance, meaning that the local is shaped by other local events and by the global, and the global is shaped by multiple locals, at a much more intense rate than ever previously. This creates a sense of 'one world', which has several effects. The global production process has spread out to include all parts of the world in a global division of labour. This has enabled the diffusion of production and communication technologies worldwide. It has also brought about shifts in the global distribution of production and communication (for example, some of the advanced capitalist market-economies of the West are now deindustrialising). The macro shifts brought about by globalisation reach down to the local level through conditioning our way of perceiving the world and transforming 'knowledge'; modernity in its present form would not be possible without, for example, the pool of knowledge that we know as 'the news'.

Gladwell, M. (2000) The Tipping Point; How Little Things Can Make a Big Difference. London, UK: Little, Brown and Company.

This journalist's analysis of what makes social epidemics happen draws on history, marketing research and psychological studies. His main point is that small features can 'tip' a small trend into a huge craze. A few individuals can make a big difference if they have the necessary qualities.

Goffman, E. (1990) The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life. Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.

Goffman's focus on micro-sociology has contributed several useful concepts to the study of why people act the way they do in different situations. He notes that people present several 'versions' of themselves in everyday life depending on the context, as if they were engaged in different performances for different audiences. He also notes that some of these performances are directly contradictory, and that in fact people will be at pains to sustain a certain impression in one context only to knowingly counter it when the context changes. Goffman compares this to play-acting, where an 'official' version is acted out front-stage, while a wholly different performance plays itself out when the actors come back-stage and step out of their formal roles. Back-stage is the place where the official audience cannot gain access, and where secrets can be said out loud.

Haas, E. B. (1991) *When Knowledge is Power: Three Models of Change in International Organizations*. USA: University of California Press.

Frequently, informal networks are as important in linking research and policy, and effecting policy change, as formal structures. Informal networks may take the form of advocacy coalitions, or friendly relationships between researchers and decision-makers. Haas adds an important point to this list by introducing the concept of 'epistemic community'. An epistemic community consists of colleagues who share a similar approach, or a similar position on an issue. They maintain contact with each other across their various locations and fields, thus creating valuable channels for information flow. These informal fora can be used to discuss and pass on alternative perspectives on current issues, and if the network comprises prominent and respected individuals, pronouncements from these can force policy-makers to engage with an issue. The conclusion is that such an epistemic community provides a potent means of circumventing tedious public bureaucracies or the normal chain of command, and it is also a counter-balance to the conservatism of policy networks.

Hailey, J. and Smillie, I. (2001) *Managing for Change: Leadership and Strategy in Asian NGOs*. London, UK: Earthscan.

This book is about how some of the most successful non-governmental development organisations in the world are managed. It deals with issues of growth, leadership and context, and questions the usefulness of Western management doctrine.

Henkel, H. and Stirrat, R. (2001) *Participation as Spiritual Duty; Empowerment as Secular Subjection*. In B. Cooke and U. Kothari (Eds.) *Participation, The New Tyranny?* London, UK: Zed Books.

Henkel & Stirrat examine the 'new orthodoxy' within development that has as its mantras 'participation' and 'empowerment'. This orthodoxy is shared not only amongst NGO practitioners, but also amongst bilateral donor governments and multilaterals. One of the interesting points about this orthodoxy, however, is that there is no systematic ideology sustaining it; i.e. different groups in the development world are embracing participation and empowerment for different reasons, and based on different rationales.

Hirschman, A. O. (1970) *Exit, Voice and Loyalty*. Cambridge, MA, USA: Harvard University Press.

Hirschman maps out three possible courses of action for people (whether in the family, a social circle, a firm, an organisation, or a state): exit, voice, or loyalty. Loyalty refers to the choice or pressure to conform to existing structures, policies and practices. Voice is the act of criticizing aspects of the status quo in order to try and change it 'from the outside', while still remaining within the larger structures. Exit is the option of leaving in order to move to an alternative organisation or state.

Hudson, A. (2000) *Making the Connection: Legitimacy Claims, and Northern NGOs International Advocacy*. In D. Lewis and T. Wallace (Eds.) *New Roles and Relevance. Development NGOs and the Challenge of Change*. Hartford, USA: Kumarian Press.

The article broadly deals with the shift of NGOs from a 'development as delivery' to a 'development as leverage' approach. Although advocacy takes a variety of forms - from careful research and policy advice, to parliamentary lobbying, to public campaigning and development education - the overall goal is described as the attempt to alter the ways in which power, resources, and ideas are created, consumed and distributed at a global level, so that people and organisations in the South have a more realistic chance of controlling their own development. As UK NGOs increasingly move into advocacy and policy work, they have to respond to a variety of challenges concerning issues of legitimacy and related issues of accountability, governance, and effectiveness. Legitimacy questions concern, first, the right of the NGO to speak to its target audience, perhaps on behalf of other groups or interests; and second, the wisdom of NGOs moving closer towards an advocacy focus.

Hulme, D. and Edwards, M. (1997) NGOs, States and Donors: An Overview. In Hulme and Edwards (Eds.) NGOs, States and Donors: Too Close for Comfort? London, UK: Macmillan/Save the Children.

In the opening chapter of their collection of essays on NGOs, states and donors, Hulme & Edwards chart the rise of NGOs. Their opening question is whether the popularity of NGOs reflects genuine recognition of their alternative approaches and special relationship with the grassroots, or, conversely, whether the popularity is rather a sign that NGOs have now become fully institutionalised into the mainstream 'development industry'

Humphreys, P. (1998) Discourses Underpinning Decision Support. In B. Berkeley and Rajkovic (Eds.) Context-Sensitive Decision Support. Boston, USA: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

The fundamental task facing the decision maker is how to decide to go about developing a prescription for action and get it implemented. The desire to take some action is generated from a feeling that there is a lack (or gap) between the actual state of affairs (as perceived by the decision maker) and some imaginable preferred state. The article presents a brief outline of the kind of discourse which informs and constrains the operations at each of the five levels of the decision making process along a continuum feeling - thinking/discussing - commitment to action.

Keck, M. and Sikkink, K. (1998) Activists beyond borders; advocacy networks in international politics. Cornell University Press.

In their book on the emergence of networks as mode of operation for advocacy groups in international politics Keck and Sikkink deal with central issues of the network structure. They assess the importance of the construction of 'cognitive frames', and of alignment of frames and the fitting of issues appropriately depending on the context. They see the networks as both structured and structuring, with focus on what they call the Boomerang pattern

Keeley, J. and Scoones, I. (1999) Understanding Environmental Policy Processes: A Review. IDS Working Paper 89. Brighton, UK: IDS.

Policy is an inherently political process, rather than an instrumental execution of rational decisions, where planning and implementation overlap. Different models are useful for analysing different contexts: eg. the linear model is useful for understanding environmental policies whereas an emphasis on negotiation and incrementalism is more appropriate when looking at rural resource management. They point to Foucault-inspired idea that policy is discourse, only understood if you look at the relationship between knowledge and power, whereby a political problem is recast in the neutral language of science. Their critique of technocracy, with its scientifically-driven policy making, is that it glosses over the difficulties of choosing experts and works against democracy. Science is value-laden socially-constructed knowledge and the result of competition between interest groups. The scientific enterprise involves universalising, removing uncertainties, and hiding assumptions. Given the growing public distrust of institutionalised science, greater reflexivity in the interactions between scientific institutions and the public makes sense. This resource can be found at: <http://server.ntd.co.uk/ids/bookshop/details.asp?id=494>

Keeley, J. and Scoones, I. (2000) Knowledge, power and politics: the environmental policy-making process in Ethiopia. *The Journal of Modern African Studies* 38(1), 89-120.

This article casts light on how policy decisions are made in Ethiopia. It reveals a complex environment in which policy debates are not resolved as a result of rational choices but are often fudged as conflicts rage among ever-shifting networks of scientists, donors, ideologues and bureaucrats. The study traces controversies characterising the evolution of rural development policies. Those clinging to the original Maoist inspiration of the ruling party argue that mass-mobilisation schemes can combat the long-term challenge of soil erosion. Others promote policies to increase incentives for farmers to invest in their own land. Some look to off-the-shelf modern Green Revolution technologies to avert the recurrent food crises, while others argue for low external input

solutions based on the principles of conservation agriculture This resource can be found at: <http://www.id21.org/society/s2ajk1g1.html>. Last accessed 4/14/2009

Kennis, S. and McTaggart, R. (2000) Participatory Action Research. In N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (Eds.) Handbook of Qualitative Research (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

Participatory action research was originally an alternative 'philosophy' of social research that emerged out of movements for community empowerment and development as social transformation (cf. Freire and Latin American liberation theology). The approach was a reaction to conventional social research, which was seen to sustain rather than challenge the status quo, and which served the interests of the wealthy and powerful rather than 'ordinary people'

Kickert et al (1997) A Management Perspective on Policy Network. In W. Kickert, E.H. Klijn and J.F.M. Koppenjan (Eds.) Managing complex networks. London, UK: Sage.

The article deals broadly with the idea of policy networks as an opportunity for public policy making. It starts by explaining the move away from an anti-statist approach to an increasing recognition of the need for government involvement. It is, however, also clear that government cannot reclaim its post-war welfare state position as the central governing authority in society. These observations necessitate reflection upon the relation between government and society. In social science this reflection has contributed to the rise of a new idea which is becoming increasingly popular: the concept of policy networks.

Kingdon, J. W. (1984) Agendas, Alternatives, and Public Policies. New York, USA: Harpers Collins.

Kingdon argues that it is necessary to take into account the agenda-setting process that surrounds and determines the policy-making process itself. Kingdon builds his framework around the 'garbage can' model of decision-making (developed by Cohen, March & Olsen in the early 1970s), which views organisations as choices looking for problems, and solutions looking for issues, rather than vice versa

Kotler, P., Armstrong, G., Saunders, J. and Wong, V. (1999) Principles of Marketing, 2nd Edition. Prentice Hall Europe.

The book provides a comprehensive introduction to marketing, using a practical and managerial approach. Marketing is described as a process containing much more than selling or advertising, with new challenges emerging constantly. Five main philosophies that guide marketing management are outlined. These are; Production concept (goal to bring down prices, making products more affordable); Product concept (higher quality products); Selling concept (promotion matters); Marketing concept (determining needs and wants of target markets, comparative advantage); Societal marketing (determine needs and wants, and customer satisfaction).

Lambin, J. (1996) Strategic Marketing Management. UK: McGraw-Hill.

The book starts from the assumption that marketing is both a business philosophy and an action-oriented process. Marketing is explained as rooted in the market economy and functioning of the firm (improve market opportunities, achieve target market share), with the main role seen to be the organisation of exchange and communication (supply/demand). Furthermore the book emphasizes the need to shift focus from marketing to market-driven management, in a context of increased competition. With the process of globalisation, more competition, and better educated consumers, mass-marketing techniques are coming of age, and customized marketing is seen as necessary. This includes sensitivity to environmental and ethical demands and socio-cultural specificities. Marketing should, importantly, be viewed as a process integrating different functions and not a separate entity within the organisation.

Lanuez, D. and Jermier, J. M. (1994) Sabotage by Managers and Technocrats - Neglected patterns of resistance at work. In J.M. Jermier, D. Knights and W.R. Nord (Eds.) Resistance and Power in Organisations. London, UK: Routledge.

The central thesis of this chapter is that some managers and technocrats have sufficient motive to sabotage the production of goods and services. We begin by citing illustrative examples of episodes of managerial and technocratic sabotage. In reviewing the existing literature we find that low or reduced personal control and the experience of negative affect at the workplace underlie many acts of sabotage. We examine major societal and organisational forces that have eroded and redefined the power and privileges of managerial and technocratic positions and find that managers and technocrats have experienced increasing powerlessness and insecurity. We draw on neoclassical economics, managerialist literature and modern social-class analyses to establish the plausibility of the central thesis. As the interests, values and motives of managers and technocrats drift further from alignment with those of capital elites who desire to maximise profit, a willingness to engage in forms of deep opposition is more probable. Although it may seem counter-intuitive, we argue that for reasons similar to those of workers, some managers and technocrats resist capitalist domination by selecting sabotage responses. In closing sections, a typology of managerial/technocratic sabotage is presented

Lefebvre, R. C. (2001) Theories and Models in Social Marketing. In P.N. Bloom and G.T. Gundlach (Eds.) Handbook of Marketing and Society. London, UK, New Delhi, India: Sage.

The article outlines the origins of the theory of social marketing, and describes more in detail the current key theoretical approaches used in the field of social marketing. The theories presented in the article are only some of the ones in use, and have a health bias, due to this being the area where social marketing has been taken the furthest. Behavioural change is a complex process, with dozens of theories, and often too focused on individual processes. Social marketing is not an alternative to individual behaviour change strategies; rather it is a process to increase the prevalence of specific behaviour among target audiences. Other theories that also need to be looked at by social marketers include: motivational theories to inform message development, social network theories to inform message dissemination, organisational development to inform coalition and partnership development and management, political theories to inform policy alternatives.

Leftwich, A. (1994) Governance, the State and the Politics of Development. Development and Change 25(2), 363-386.

In this article, Leftwich outlines the current 'good governance' agenda as advocated by the World Bank. He starts off by tracing the events that led to an interest in good governance: the experience of structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) in the 1980s and the questions of why they did not achieve everything that they set out to do; the expansion of the neo-liberal approach to include not only economic issues but also specifically political ones; the collapse of communism and the subsequent 'monopoly' enjoyed by Western liberal democracy; and finally, the impact of pro-democracy movements.

Levitt, B. and March, M. G. (1988) Organisational Learning. Annual Review of Sociology 14, 319-340.

This paper reviews the literature on organisational learning. Organisational learning is viewed as routine-based, history-dependent, and target-oriented. Organisations are seen as learning by encoding inferences from history into routines that guide behaviour. Within this perspective on organisational learning, topics covered include how organisations learn from direct experience, how organisations learn from the experience of others, and how organisations develop conceptual frameworks or paradigms for interpreting that experience. The section on organisational memory discusses how organisations encode, store, and retrieve the lessons of history despite the turnover of personnel and the passage of time. Organisational learning is further complicated by the ecological structure of the simultaneously adapting behaviour of other organisations, and by an

endogenously changing environment. The final section discusses the limitations as well as the possibilities of organisational learning as a form of intelligence.

Lindquist, E. A. (1988) What Do Decision-Models Tell Us About Information Use? *Knowledge in Society* 1(2), 86-111.

Lindquist has argued that organizations or networks, for that matter, are often in different decision modes - routine, incremental, or fundamental. Each involves a different level of scrutiny and debate over the integrity of its policy underpinnings: [1] routine decision regimes focus on matching and adapting existing programs and repertoires to emerging conditions, but involves little debate on its logic and design, which is built into the programs and repertoires; [2] incremental decision-making deals with selective issues as they emerge, but does not deal comprehensively with all constituent issues associated with the policy domain; and [3] fundamental decisions are relatively infrequent opportunities to re-think approaches to policy domains, whether as result of crisis, new governments, or policy-spillovers. Where fundamental decisions are concerned, it is important to note that that they are anticipated and followed by incremental or routine regimes. There is a connection to this line of thinking with the agenda-setting model described just above. Decisions emanating from the 'choice opportunities' that arise as policy windows open, however briefly, may involve either limited or significant change, or perhaps none at all

Linnerooth, J. (1987) Negotiating Environmental Issues: A role for the analyst? In J. Hawgood and P.C. Humphreys (Eds.) *Effective decision support systems*. Aldershot, UK: Gower.

A fundamental element of environmental policy making is negotiation. Even in the adversarial environment of the United States, regulatory agencies and other governmental decision makers implicitly negotiate problem definitions and solutions with public stakeholders to avoid costly court battles. These interactions are developing into more explicit negotiation forums with the growing awareness that all participants can reduce procedural costs through direct cooperation rather than confrontation. In the US, new institutions to accommodate negotiated policy making are therefore evolving; these institutions are kin to the pluralistic committee structures found in much of Europe. More cooperative forms of environmental policy making presents a challenge and an opportunity to analysts. How can traditional forms of expertise, including the fact-finding and strategic decision aids, be adapted to support the participants of a negotiation or even to improve the outcome of a negotiated settlement? A challenge for designers of systems of 'decision support' is to find the relevant links for adapting these systems to provide 'negotiation support'.

Lipsky, M. (1980) *Street-level Bureaucracy; Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Services*. New York, USA: Russell Sage Foundation.

Lipsky examines what happens at the point where policy is translated into practice, in various human service bureaucracies such as schools, courts and welfare agencies. He argues that policy implementation in the end comes down to the people who actually implement it (teachers, lawyers, social workers). They are the 'street-level bureaucrats', and they exercise a large amount of influence over how public policy is actually carried out. Lipsky suggests that they too should be seen as part of the policy-making community.

Long, N. and Long, A. (eds) (1992) *Battlefields of Knowledge*. London, UK: Routledge.

This collection of essays explores 'knowledge encounters' in everyday life through an actor-oriented analysis, i.e. an analysis that privileges actors' agency and also their different understandings of the world. By extension, this means that any intervention in everyday life - such as policy implementation - will be continuously negotiated and re-constructed by the various actors involved.

Maarek, P. J. (1995) *Political Marketing and Communication*. London, UK, Paris, France, Rome, Italy: John Libbey.

The book provides a thorough introduction to political marketing, its history, foundation, stages, tools and their application as shown in politicians' public relations efforts and electoral processes. Furthermore the book covers campaign organisation, strategies and tactics, as well as media relations in general on a local as well as a global level. The author also discusses the effects of political marketing on political discourse, public opinion and voter participation

Mattelart, A. and Mattelart, M. (1998) *Theories of Communication, A Short Introduction*. London, UK: Sage Publications.

The first formal model within information theory was Claude Shannon's mathematical model of communication, developed in the 1940s, which laid out a linear schema of production, transmission, channel, receiver, and destination. This model views technology as an instrument that is merely inserted into (human) calculations, plans and predictions. The reaction to the mathematical model came when social science researchers started emphasising the circular nature of communication. Even the smallest situation of interaction is determined by so many variables that a linear schema can only obscure more than it clarifies, and instead they suggest analysing interaction through looking at different levels (such as the communication between the actual elements of the message, the communication embodied in the human/social relations involved, the communication implied by previous messages, the communication of the message in relation to wider society). This approach argues that it is also necessary to take into account the large amount of 'silent' messages that surround every pronounced message, such as the implicit understandings of gestures, space, linguistic codes, time, ways of relating, and ways of disagreeing or reaching agreements. From this perspective, both the 'sender' and the 'receiver' are equally important actors.

Maxwell, S. (2000) *Is Anyone Listening?* GDNNet.

This paper starts from the observation that there is a lot of research activity, with an uncertain impact on policy. It briefly reviews various inputs into the debate on research/policy linkages, and highlights the need to understand the policy process and to attempt to see issues from the policy-makers' perspective. This includes the need to develop a more thorough understanding of policy that includes policy implementation; 'policy is what policy does'. It also touches on ways of making use of 'policy narratives' and 'epistemic communities', as well as entrance points into the literature on campaigning. The paper concludes that if researchers are to have an impact on policy, they need to build up an understanding of how policy is made and how it is implemented. This resource can be found at: <http://nt1.ids.ac.uk/gdn/>

McMaster, T., Vidgen, R. T. and Wastell, D. G. (1997) *Technology Transfer: Diffusion or Translation?* In T. McMaster et al (Eds.) *Facilitating Technology Transfer through Partnership*. London, UK: Chapman & Hall.

Diffusion theory developed in the 1960s and has had considerable influence on the way both marketing and technology transfer have been analysed. Diffusion theory assumes that an innovation (idea, practice, object, or technology) is communicated outwards through social systems, and that it is a matter of time before the innovation becomes widely accessible. The speed at which the innovation is diffused depends on its perceived advantages, its compatibility, its comprehensibility, and also on the efficiency of the communication channels. The mass media provides a manyfold intensification of this process. Diffusion theory has been challenged by more recent theories, such as actor-network theory (often associated with Bruno Latour), which stress the concept of translation rather than diffusion. Actor-network theory distances itself from the view that innovation and technologies are stable entities that are passed from person to person and then put into use. This view predicates a separation between 'society' and 'technology', where technologies are seen as independent of the different people they are transferred between. Instead, actor-network theory

sees technologies as parts of networks between actors. The technologies only 'make sense' when used by an actor, and this actor will always have certain interests and roles. When technologies are transferred within and between actor-networks, they make sense in different ways depending on the way they are translated by the actors, and the way they used to sustain or challenge the network.

McPherson, P. K. (1994) Accounting for the Value of Information. *Aslib Proceedings* 46(9), 203-215.

Traditionally, value has been accorded to whatever could be measured in monetary terms. Therefore it is difficult to incorporate the value of information into traditional accounting and institutional practices, given that information is an intangible asset and non-quantifiable in conventional economic terms. This tension is becoming all the more apparent as information, intelligence and knowledge are rapidly gaining importance relative to fixed assets. The value of information lies, for example, in reducing uncertainty and risk, and in improving coordination and efficiency.

Meyer, C. (1997) The political economy of NGOs and information sharing. *World Development* 25(7), 1127-1140.

To a large extent, information sharing is what nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) do, and the costs of sharing information are falling dramatically. Joining politics and economics, this paper builds an analytical framework to illuminate how these falling costs are affecting information-intensive NGOs in Latin America. Case studies describe the various information-sharing outputs and inputs of nonprofit, NGO production. I argue that the participatory activity of NGOs affects both political and economic realms, and that as the costs of sharing information fall, NGOs will be a more powerful link in the changing balance between states, markets, and civil society.

Mohanty, C. T. (1988) Under Western Eyes: Feminist Scholarship and Colonial Discourses. *Feminist Review* 30, 65-88.

Mohanty examines how research on women in the Third World has been shaped by the interests and standpoint of Western feminists who have taken the West as the primary referent. The research on Third World women has frequently been characterized by representations of 'the Third World Woman', a monolithic and passive subject who is variously presented as the victim of male violence, the universal dependant, trapped in the patriarchal family, or subordinated by religious doctrines. The Third World Woman serves as Other not only to men, but also as Other to the implicit self-representations of Western women. While the Third World Woman is ignorant, poor, tradition-bound, sexually constrained, and generally lacks agency, the Western woman is educated, modern, has control over her body, and the freedom to make her own decisions.

Mosley, P., Harrigan, J. and Toe, J. (1995) *Aid and Power - Second Edition The World Bank & Policy-based Lending*. London, UK: Routledge.

In the introduction to the second edition the authors point out some of the recent changes of importance in terms of the operation of the World Bank and its role in shaping the development arena and discourse. They point to the fact that the World Bank can be diagnosed as an institution which suffers from a chronic ambiguity of, and conflict between, objectives. Over time it moves uneasily between four major roles.

Mosse, D. () The Making and Marketing of Participatory Development. In P. Quarles van Ufford and A.K. Giri (Eds.) *A Moral Critique of Development: In Search of Global Responsibilities*. London, UK, New York, USA: Routledge.

Mosse briefly outlines two traditional views of development policies: the instrumental view of policy as problem solving, and the critical view that perceives policy to be a cover for state or institutional power. These views both ask how policy influences and shapes practice. Mosse argues that it is more

useful to ask the reverse, i.e. how practice sustains and protects policies. Through analysing the making of a participatory rural development project in India, he shows that the policies did not primarily serve the function of guiding action. Rather, they served the vital function of interpreting and legitimising the action that was taken. In other words, the policies were not turned 'downwards' to implementation and field activity, as commonly assumed, but instead were turned 'upwards' as validating codes in relation to higher policy authorities.

NCDDR (1996) Review of the literature on dissemination and knowledge utilization. USA: NCDDR.

They offer some useful frameworks about the use of knowledge: [1] conceptual [which changes attitudes], instrumental [changes practices], strategic [achieves goals, such as increase in power]; [2] spread [one-way diffusion of information], choice [process of expanding access to sources], exchange [interactions], implementation [increasing use of knowledge or changing attitudes and practice]. Ideas about how knowledge diffuses have not greatly changed over the years, for example, that there is a cultural and needs gap between researchers and users, but information technologies have transformed practice. The notion of learning taking place on a blank slate still prevails in many schools, whereas constructivist theories point out the obvious fact that learners filter knowledge through pre-conceived ideas and people make sense of ideas based on their prior experience. People change their beliefs only when serious discrepancies emerge in their thinking and practice. The source of information is more important than the content, for example people accept information more readily from those they trust, eg. dairy farmers trust each other more than experts. Comprehensibility has more impact than quality. They also summarise key ideas from social marketing, e.g. audience segmentation [dividing your audience into different groups and designing different information, training, rewards etc.]. Identity and cultural differences will also play their part in deciding how information will be received.

Neilson, S. (2001) Knowledge Utilization and Public Policy Processes: A Literature Review. Ottawa, Canada: IDRC.

For many social science researchers, influencing policy makers and/or decision makers is an intended result or expectation of their research. Development researchers are no exception, least of all because they want to know if their research has had an impact on people's everyday lives in terms of poverty, food insecurity, malnutrition or environmental sustainability [...] As a result, IDRC's Evaluation Unit is undertaking a study that will examine these main questions: (1) what constitutes policy influence in IDRC's experience; (2) to what degree and in what way has IDRC-supported research influenced public policy; and (3) what factors and conditions have facilitated or inhibited the public policy influence potential of IDRC-supported research projects. This study will serve two main purposes: (1) to provide learning at the program level which can enhance the design of projects and programs to increase policy influence where that is a key objective; and (2) to create an opportunity for corporate level learning which will provide input into strategic planning processes as well as feedback on performance. [...] This resource can be found at: http://www.idrc.ca/uploads/user-S/10359912050LitReviewPres_Jan18.pdf. Last accessed 4/8/2009

Newbold, C. (1995) Approaches to Cultural Hegemony within Cultural Studies. In O. Boyd-Barrett and C. Newbold (Eds.) Approaches to Media, A Reader. London, UK: Arnold.

Newbold briefly charts the rise and decline of the hegemony approach within media studies/cultural studies. Media studies focused primarily on psychological and sociological frames in the 1960s and 70s, studying the effects of media on audience attitudes and behaviour. Since then it has expanded its scope, in interaction with cultural studies, to also include analyses of the wider cultural environment within which media operates. The cultural effects theory suggests that the media is embedded in the relations that constitute a particular society, working both to produce and reflect powerful interests and social structures.

Norris, P. (2001) Digital divide? Civic engagement, information poverty & the internet in democratic societies; Can the Internet change the national distribution of power and income? KSG, Harvard University.

Will the Internet transform conventional forms of democratic activism, or only serve to reinforce the existing gap between the technologically rich and poor? Will it level the playing field for developing societies, or instead strengthen the advantages of post-industrial economies? Will parties, interest groups, and governments use the Net to encourage interactive participation, or will the technology be used as another form of 'top-down' communications?

Nutley, S., Walter, I. and Davies, H. (2002) From Knowing to Doing: A framework for understanding the evidence-into-practice agenda. Discussion Paper 1, Research Unit for Research Utilisation, University of St Andrews. Linked to the ESRC Network for Evidence-based Policy and Practice. University of St Andrews.

Peterson, S. B. (1998) Saints, Demons, Wizards and Systems: Why information technology reforms fail or underperform in public bureaucracies in Africa. *Public Administration and Development* 18(1), 37-60.

Peterson asserts that the great potential of IT for public administrative reforms in Africa has not been realised, and reviews possible reasons for this. The focus is on both the actors involved and the importance of the cultural environment. He argues that information systems development is a highly personalised process, and therefore individuals can have significant impact both as promoters and as saboteurs. Thus he classifies the various actors as saints (pro-reform), demons (anti-reform), and wizards (IT specialists), and draws the conclusion that information systems development in Africa often fails because there are too few saints, too many demons, and inappropriate wizards. The cultural environment also plays a part. Since African bureaucracies may operate with personalised authority structures and a certain lack of continuity over time, introducing IT systems may be resisted by those who would lose power as information brokers, and reforms may be short lived.

Philo, G. (1996) Seeing and Believing. In P. Marris and S. Thornham (Eds.) *Media studies, A Reader*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

What leads people to accept or to reject the portrayal of an event in the news? Philo analyses a case study of the television news coverage of the Miners' Strike in the mid-1980s and the extent to which the news was believed to be 'true' by the audience. The news coverage selectively focused on violent incidents, portraying an image of the picket lines as primarily violent places. In Philo's general audience sample, 54% believed that picketing was indeed mostly violent. Some important reasons given by the audience for believing the television story were the perceived credibility of the source (historically and culturally mediated trust in the BBC), as well as the impact of the visual images - seeing is believing. However, the remaining 46% of the audience sample did not accept the story as it was portrayed by the news. One of the most important grounds for rejection was direct or indirect experience of the issue, e.g. through having driven past picket lines or through knowing miners. Another ground for rejection was comparison between the television coverage and other sources of information, such as newspapers. In addition, some people were sceptical due to their perception of the political agenda of the television news.

Porter, R. W. and Prysor-Jones, S. (1997) *Making a Difference to Policies and Programs: A Guide for Researchers*. Washington, USA: USAID.

This guide to researchers presents a practical and collaborative approach to the three-way communication between researchers, policy-makers and communities. It suggests specific actions that researchers may take to communicate more effectively at different stages of the research process (defining the questions, developing the proposal, conducting the study, communicating the

results). Suggestions include: involve potential users in defining the questions, establish relationships of trust, clarify which decisions the research wants to influence, choose appropriate research methods, involve users in data collection and analysis, communicate the results in appropriate ways to the different groups involved, formulate clear recommendations.

Price, N. (2001) The performance of social marketing in reaching the poor and vulnerable in Aids control programmes. *Health Policy and Planning* 16(3), 231-239.

The article reviews evidence on the impact and effectiveness of condom social marketing programmes (CSMPs) in reaching the poor and vulnerable with information, services and products in the context of HIV/AIDS/STD prevention and control. Ideally, the success of CSMPs would be judged by whether they contribute to sustained improvements in sexual health outcomes at the population level. Given methodological and attribution difficulties, intermediary criteria are employed to assess effectiveness and impact, focusing on changes in behaviour (including condom use) among poor and vulnerable groups, and access by the poor and vulnerable to condoms, services and information. It remains difficult to reach definitive conclusions about the extent to which CSMPs meet the sexual health needs of the poor and vulnerable, due largely to reliance on sales data for CSMPs monitoring and evaluation.

Pross, P. (1986) *Group Politics and Public Policy*. Toronto, Canada: Oxford University Press.

In examining the policy process in the Canadian system of parliamentary governance, Pross found that it was not sufficient to focus only on the decision-makers themselves. It is necessary to also take into account the various interest groups and even the larger milieu that has an interest in policy areas (such as health, transportation) and which exerts some kind of influence on the policy process. Pross introduced the concept of 'policy communities' to incorporate these diverse actors into the analysis. Within the policy community, he differentiates between the sub-government and the 'attentive public'. The sub-government consists of influential politicians, departments, strong interest groups, and relevant international organisations. The attentive public is made up by any actors with an interest in following current policy-making and implementation, such as less influential politicians and departments, smaller interest groups, journalists, academics, and citizens in general.

Puchner, L. (2001) Researching Women's Literacy in Mali: A Case Study of Dialogue among Researchers, Practitioners, and Policy Makers. *Comparative Education Review* 45(2), 242-256.

In this article Puchner reflects on the dialogue between her as a researcher in Mali and other practitioners and policy-makers. Her fieldwork in Mali revealed that the adult literacy programs she observed had little impact; few women became literate, and those who did learn to read did not gain any significant benefits from this. Puchner emphasised, in her research findings, that narrow literacy programs therefore need to be reconsidered and changed. However, she experienced that dialogue between her as a researcher and policy-makers and practitioners had little effect. In sum, the research/policy dialogue was insufficient to bring about change.

RAWOO (2001) *Utilization of Research for Development Cooperation, Linking Knowledge Production to Development Policy and Practice*. Publication no. 21. The Hague, Netherlands: Netherlands Development Assistance Research Council.

This collection of lectures examines the utilisation of research results from different angles. They draw on Carol Weiss' concept of 'knowledge creep' and highlight that research is not present as a ready packaged set of options for policy makers; rather, research is there as part of the constant information stream (Waardenburg). They wish to move away from the linear model of knowledge production, and instead draw up a model that charts interaction between promises, anticipation & feedback, realisation, and overlapping 'knowledge reservoirs'. The combined effect of this interaction results in the co-production of knowledge. One of the main challenges emerging from

this model is to facilitate various actors' access to knowledge reservoirs (Rip).

Riley, P. (1983) A Structurationist Account of Political Culture. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 28(3), 414-437.

The theory of structuration is proposed as a means of studying organizational culture. This paradigm is used to investigate one of the most significant and fascinating aspects of culture - organizational politics. This study compares organizational political symbols from two professional firms - one routinized and one nonroutinized - in order to investigate the interrelationships of subcultures and to identify the structures that govern the political nature of organizational culture. The results suggest that organizational culture should be viewed as a system of integrated subcultures, not as a unified set of values to which all organizational members ascribe.

Robertson, A. F. (1984) *People and the State; An anthropology of planned development*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, D., Hewitt, T. and Harriss, J. (1999) Why Inter-Organizational Relationships Matter. In D. Robinson, T. Hewitt, T. and J. Harriss (Eds.) *Managing Development: Understanding Inter-organizational Relationships*. London, UK: Sage.

The chapter starts off by describing the way in which the development arena has moved from practices referred to as serial monogamy to more complex and polygamous behaviours. With more cooperation between aid agencies, a shift can be seen from aid-based to rules-based development. Attention is turned more towards defining sector-wide programmes and macro level change. In inter-organizational terms, this might be described as a move from interaction generated by operational needs, to attempts to build more enduring relationships. There are major challenges in place trying to make sense of the underlying politics of the notion of cooperation, with focus on the real conflicts of interest and agenda which persist in all areas, and how these are managed.

Roe, E. (1991) Development Narratives, Or Making the Best of Blueprint Development. *World Development* 19(4), 287-300.

Roe argues that development policies are often based on arguments, scenarios and narratives that do not stand up to closer scrutiny. Frequently the narratives are directly contradicted by experience in the field. In spite of this, the narratives persist and continue to inform policy-making. The most obvious reaction is to dismiss the narratives as myths or ideologies, and to call for more rational policy-making or a more learning-based process. However, Roe suggests that this will not have any great effect, because the ideals of rationality and learning would not automatically fulfil the needs that the narratives do, and thus are likely to be discarded in practice.

Rogers, E. (1995) *Diffusion of Innovations*. New York, USA: Free Press.

Rogers, perhaps the most widely known diffusion theorist, in his fourth book presents a comprehensive overview of issues and problems related to diffusion. These include the generation of innovations, socioeconomic factors, the innovation-decision process, communication channels, diffusion networks, the rate of adoption, compatibility, trialability, opinion leadership, the change agent, and innovation in organisations.

Rondinelli, D. (1993) *Development Projects as Policy Experiments; An adaptive approach to development administration*. London, UK: Routledge.

Rondinelli argues that most development policies are based on the assumptions that reality is manageable and that the future is predictable. This results in universal and 'technical' solutions to development 'problems', and therefore many policies are inappropriate and far removed from the reality they are trying to influence. Rondinelli suggests that a more helpful way of viewing

development policies is to approach them as 'social experiments'. Experiments take into account the underlying uncertainty and the necessity of trial and error in order to learn. Experiments also take into account that the unexpected may happen, and that both problems and solutions may have to be redefined along the way. Policy-making then becomes less a matter of prediction and implementation, and more a matter of questions and discoveries. Rondinelli links this to wider concerns about the importance of continuous learning, flexibility, and opportunities for local ownership of the policy process.

Ryan, J. (1999) Assessing the impact of rice policy changes in Viet Nam and the contribution of policy research. Impact Assessment Discussion paper 8. Washington, USA: IFPRI.

The marketing and policy research on rice of the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) is described, and the conclusions and recommendations that emerged are discussed in the context of the decision-making processes in Viet Nam. [...] From extensive interviews the author describes the perceptions of partners and stakeholders of the influence of the outcomes of the IFPRI project. They show that the research was regarded as being of high quality, independent, rigorous, and timely. A strong foundation of primary and secondary data gathering and analysis from Viet Nam gave the modelling work on policy options a high degree of credibility among key policymakers. Linking the spatial equilibrium model with income distribution analysis based on national household surveys allowed IFPRI to satisfy policymakers that relaxing rice export quotas and internal trade restrictions on rice would not adversely impact on regional disparities and food security and would have beneficial effects on farm prices and poverty. These were major concerns of policymakers prior to the project. The research on these and other policy options gave a degree of confidence to policymakers that relaxing the controls would be in Viet Nam's national interest. They made these decisions earlier than would have been the case without the IFPRI research. A framework for the evaluation of policy research and advice is described. This resource can be found at: <http://www.ifpri.org/impact/iadp08.pdf>. Last accessed 4/14/2009

Ryan, J. (2002) Synthesis Report on Assessing the Impact of Policy-Oriented Social Science Research. Washington, USA: IFPRI.

This report from a conference on the impact of research, notes that the key factors determining the impact of research are: quality and perception as an honest broker; timeliness and responsiveness; long-term in-depth collaboration; receptive policy environment; primary and secondary empirical data and simple analysis; trade-offs between immediate and sustainable impacts; choice of partners; consensus for change among stakeholders; cross-country experience. One participant [at their conference] made the point that research is often used to confirm, rather than challenge, received wisdom while another claimed that the element of surprise increases the value of research. Another explained that when engaged in negotiation with policy-makers, it can be imperative to answer questions with research findings within hours or even minutes. Strengthening the research and policy capacity of developing country institutions was seen as a priority. A small consortium on Policy-Oriented Social Science Research, led by the International Food Policy Institute, was decided upon. This resource can be found at: <http://www.ifpri.org/impact/iadp15.pdf>. Last accessed 4/14/2009

Sabatier, P. and Jenkins-Smith, H. C. (1999) The Advocacy Coalition Framework: An Assessment. In P. Sabatier (Ed.) Theories of the Policy Process. Boulder, CO, USA: Westview Press.

This chapter examines the link between research and policy in terms of an 'advocacy coalition' framework, which aims to take into account the importance of various coalitions between certain policy-makers, influential actors and pressure groups. The coalitions form on the basis of shared beliefs and values, as actors/institutions who share a similar perspective forge relationships with each other. Advocacy coalitions therefore consist of various different actors, including different government agencies, associations, civil society organisations, think tanks, academics, media

institutions, and prominent individuals

Saywell, D. and Cotton, A. (1999) *Spreading the Word*. Practical guidelines for research dissemination strategies. Loughborough University.

This book offers a literature review of sources that have provided insights on research dissemination both in the UK and outside. They conclude that researchers should consider the potential impact of their outputs much more carefully before producing reports. They identify organisational, practical and psychological barriers to the effective dissemination of information and four explanations of how information influences policy: the 'rational' model [making information available is sufficient]; the limestone model [information trickles like water through porous rock], the gadfly model [information gets through because dissemination is prioritised as much as research itself], and insider model [researchers exploit links with policy-makers].

Shankland, A. (2000) *Analysing Policy for Sustainable Livelihoods*. Research Report 49. Brighton, UK: IDS.

While the sustainable livelihoods (SL) framework has proved a valuable way of structuring micro-level studies of livelihoods, it gives little guidance on how to link those findings with macro-level issues or with policy analysis. Bottom-up livelihoods analysis is often seen as too context-specific to guide policy making and top-down analysis misses the complexity. To bridge this gap, three elements are needed: [1] a model of interactions between policy and livelihoods, [2] a clearer understanding of the role of social and political capital, [3] an approach to policy analysis that draws on and feeds into SL analysis

Smircich, L. (1983) *Concepts of Culture and Organizational Analysis*. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 28, 339-358.

This paper examines the significance of the concept of culture for organizational analysis. The intersection of culture theory and organization theory is evident in five current research themes: comparative management, corporate culture, organizational cognition, organizational symbolism, and unconscious processes and organization. Researchers pursue these themes for different purposes and their work is based on different assumptions about the nature of culture and organization. The task of evaluating the power and limitations of the concept of culture must be conducted within this assumptive context. This review demonstrates that the concept of culture takes organization analysis in several different and promising directions.

Stacey, R. (1995) *The Role of Chaos and Self-Organization in the Development of Creative Organizations*. In A. Albert (Ed.) *Chaos and Society*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: IOS Press.

Drawing on chaos theory (transported from the physical sciences to social science issues), Stacey discusses the possibilities of moving away from 'equilibria' models of organisation to models that focus on nonlinear networks. He argues that the 'nonlinearity' of networks - e.g. the spontaneous relations formed between people, the irregular sharing of information, the informal learning processes that occur through interaction, etc - is precisely what makes networks such valuable sites for innovation. In formal institutions, the networks that form often function as 'shadow organisations' that creatively interpret and modify official strategies. More importantly, the informal networks continuously generate new and alternative strategies. Those unofficial strategies that survive and are picked up by various actors through the informal channels and networks, will normally after a time become institutionalised, thus making them official. This reinforces the control of the formal management and provides some stability. However, new unofficial ideas and responses will already be forming. Stacey argues that this constant interaction between stable organisational elements and unstable informal networks is vital if an organisation wishes to succeed.

Stern, N. and Ferreira, F. (1997) The World Bank as an 'Intellectual Actor'. In D. Kapur, J. Lewis and R. Webb (Eds.) The World Bank - Its First Half Century. Washington, USA: Brookings Institution.

Admirers and critics of the World Bank commonly agree on a surprising view of the institution: the principal function of each loan is to serve as an ideological Trojan horse. It is the critic who will term this ideological and having pejorative intent. The admirer will make the same point using different language, speaking of the Bank as not mere bank but a 'development agency', citing the technical assistance, training, and advice that it provides, as well as its contributions to development research. Both critics and admirers see loans as lever and packaging for the transmission of those ideas.

Stone, D., Maxwell, S. and Keating, M. (2001) Bridging Research and Policy. An international workshop funded by DFID, Warwick University, 16-17 July.

This paper is about the relationship between research and policy - specifically about how research impacts on policy, and about how policy draws on research. It might be thought that the relationship is straightforward, with good research designed to be relevant to policy, and its results delivered in an accessible form to policy-makers - and with good policy-making securely and rationally based on relevant research findings. In fact, this is far from the case. As a taster, Box 1 gives ten reasons why the link from research to policy might not be straightforward. This resource can be found at: http://www.gdnet.org/cms.php?id=research_paper_abstract&research_paper_id=3338. Last accessed 4/14/2009

Struyk, R. (2000) Transnational Think Tank Networks: Purpose, Membership and Cohesion. Washington, USA: Urban Institute.

This short paper provides a brief overview over issues related to think tank networks. Think tank networks are different from public policy networks in that think tank networks are usually made up of organisations with more or less the same interests and fundamental views. In this respect they are similar to epistemic communities. Think tank networks are typically characterised by webs of relatively stable relationships and informal interactions based on these relations. They are also generally non-hierarchical, and attempt to pool and share resources in a mutual manner.

Tilly, C. (2000) Introduction: Violence viewed and reviewed. *Social Research* 67(3).

In this brief introduction, Tilly outlines three broad approaches to explaining why people choose certain actions: the ideas approach, the behaviour approach, and the relations approach. This resource can be found at: <http://www.newschool.edu/centers/socres/vol67/673intro.htm>. Last accessed 4/14/2009

Varey, R. J. (2002) *Marketing Communication - Principles and Practice*. London, UK, New York, USA: Routledge.

The book takes an interesting look at traditional marketing communication theory and seeks to challenge the models used. It points to the relative stagnation in the understanding of communication issues in marketing theory, and the need to draw lessons from communication and cultural theory in order to arrive at a more useful and interesting approach to communications. The author is particularly critical of the linear transmission (transactional) approach to communication (as seen for instance in Kotler's work). Furthermore, he emphasises that communication must be seen as a social process consisting of individual and collective communicative activities, with tangible and intangible exchanges in social relationships by creating, maintaining or altering attitudes and/or behaviours. Whereas the traditional models emphasize individual behaviour, he points to the fact that identity, meaning and knowledge do not arise in the individual's mind in isolation from their environment

Volkow, N. (1998) Strategic Use of Information Technology Requires Knowing How to Use Information. C. Avgerou (Ed.) Implementation and Evaluation of Information Systems in Developing Countries. Proceedings of the Fifth International Working Conference of the International Federation for Information Processing (IFIP) IFIP WG 9.4.

Information technology is often promoted as the solution to most of the information and communication problems that organisations face today. IT is marketed as a technology with the competitive advantage in terms of increasing productivity and communication efficiency, and in facilitating responsiveness. Volkow argues that these assertions are myths, and that use of IT is not enough to improve performance. She looks at the importance of the wider national context as well as the specific organisational history and management style. If organisations are to benefit from IT, they have to consider to what extent their structures and practices are geared towards handling information itself (quite apart from which technology is used), and how favourable the organisational culture is for learning from errors.

Watzlawick, P. (1978) One Cannot Not Communicate. Watzlawick interviewed by C Wilder. Journal of Communication 28(4).

Watzlawick disputes the notion that communication is a deliberate exchange of information that only happens as a result of intentionality. Instead, he expands the concept of communication to include all behaviour in the (physical or virtual) presence of another person. The tacit dimensions of communication can be unintended, but still have an enormous impact on the reaction and subsequent behaviour of the other person. Behaviour can only be 'non-communicative' if there is no other person present in any way. Once another person is present in some way, all behaviour becomes communicative; hence the axiom 'one cannot not communicate'.

Weiss, C. (1977) Research for Policy's Sake: The Enlightenment Function of Social Research. Policy Analysis 3(4), 531-545.

For a long time the perception of how research related to policy was strongly influenced by linear and rational models, which focused on overcoming the distance between 'knowledge-producers' (researchers) and 'knowledge-consumers' (policy-makers). The assumption was that research is directly useful to policies, and therefore the solution lies in engineering the flow of knowledge from researchers so that it reaches policy-makers intact.

Williams, R. (1973) Base and Superstructure in Marxist Cultural Theory. New Left Review No. 82.

Williams develops a model for examining cultural formations in a society, in order to explore the interplay between power relations manifested in cultural understandings (drawing on Gramsci's concept of hegemony) and in the everyday lived experience of these cultural understandings ('common sense'). Williams suggests that it is useful to approach this topic through looking for three different forms of cultural formations: dominant, residual and emergent. Dominant cultural formations control most of the field, but never all of it. Residual formations are carried over from the past and are usually rooted in religious or rural practices. Emergent formations are those that present previously unimaginable social practices (the classic example being the early feminist movement). Residual and emergent formations can be either 'alternative' or 'oppositional'. Alternative cultural suggestions seek to adapt to the general framework of the existing dominant formation, whereas oppositional trends seek - at least originally - to replace dominant practices

Williamson, J. (1996) Decoding Advertisements. In P. Marris and S. Thornham (Eds.) Media studies, A Reader. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

Since different product brands within any one category (deodorants, paper towels, chocolates, etc) are not actually very different, the first thing an advertisement must do is to create a differentiation. This is done through constructing an image attached to the commodity itself. The image (e.g. 'French chic') conjures up a range of properties that the commodity (e.g. a perfume) is then implicitly

associated with. This is a process of transferring meaning from one realm and attaching it to a product. Advertisements attempt to transfer meaning for example through the way they locate images next to each other on a page. This meaning transference only works if the target group are able to understand the meanings of the implied associations (the associations of French chic), and are able to make the meanings their own (identifying with the ideal type as desirable, and making it confirm attributes of one's own identity). In sum, advertisements work because they do not attempt to sell a product; instead they sell an image, associations, meaning, ideal identity, and confirmed identity.

Wood, G. (1985) The Politics of Development Policy Labelling. *Development and Change* 16(3), 347-373.

Wood argues that all social communication makes use of 'labelling', and that development policies are themselves eminent examples of this. Policies ascribe labels to groups and situations (e.g. 'the poor', 'the landless', 'the women', etc), and this is an act of simplification that highlights one dimension of people's lives while covering over several other aspects. To a certain extent, simplification and labelling are necessary in order to make sense of the world, and everyone who communicates uses labels. But it is important to be aware that labels are also elements of a power relationship in which whoever successfully imposes labels on a group has the means to (unwittingly) control and regulate the situation.