Diagram 6: Sector Stakeholder Map

3.2.3 Subsequent Tasks

If done well, this type of brainstorming session can clearly reveal the avenues the Task Force will be required to move into, when and how. For instance, there may arise significant information or knowledge gaps about particular stakeholders (which could possibly be filled through desk research). Secondly, the qualification of the stakeholders done through the green, yellow and red dots may be too crude or simplistic a device to understand and label the positions and interests of stakeholders, lending credence to the deeper analysis tools discussed in the section below. And lastly, this brainstorming may well reveal the kinds of approaches and questions that could guide the key informant interviews, along with a list of relevant individuals to contact.

3.3 Key Informant Interviews

This tool is particularly useful when more information is required from particular stakeholders, especially in understanding and assessing relevant dynamics, histories and relationships among stakeholders.[13] As such, key informant interviews (KIIs) may take assume various purposes as required (see box text below). See **Annex I** for a list of questions that may prove useful for KIIs.[14]

> "Face-to-face interviews using checklists, semi-structured interviews and structured – often self-administered – questionnaires can all be used to collect data from primary sources. Usually these are individual respondents, though groups of stakeholders may also be interviewed, e.g. through focus group or informal group discussions. Secondary sources include published and unpublished documents, reports, policy statements, internal regulations of organizations, etc. Interviews provide opportunities to access additional secondary sources, e.g. internal documents not obtained in the initial literature search. Semi-structured interviews can help structure data collection while keeping the focus sufficiently broad to allow for hidden or emerging themes. When analyzing complex issues, especially for policy analysis, qualitative approaches are essential so as to preclude premature focusing on a limited number of aspects of the issue, to the neglect of others which may emerge during the process of data collection and analysis" (Varvasovszky and Brugha 2000).

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[13] The Task Force may also wish to use KIIs to help it weigh and rank stakeholders.

[14] This basic research technique will likely be well known by many of the Task Force members; its methodology deserves only brief mention here.

As noted by Varvasovszky and Brugha (2000) above, KIIs may well result in the use of focus groups to explore emerging aspects in greater detail.

3.4 Power vs. Interest Grid

These grids (as described in Bryson 2004) array stakeholders on a two-by-two matrix where the dimensions are the stakeholder's interest (usually its political interest) in food and food safety, and the stakeholder's power to influence food and food safety policy or practice. Four categories of stakeholders result: *players* who have both an interest and significant power; *subjects* who have an interest but little power; *context setters* who have power but little direct interest; and the
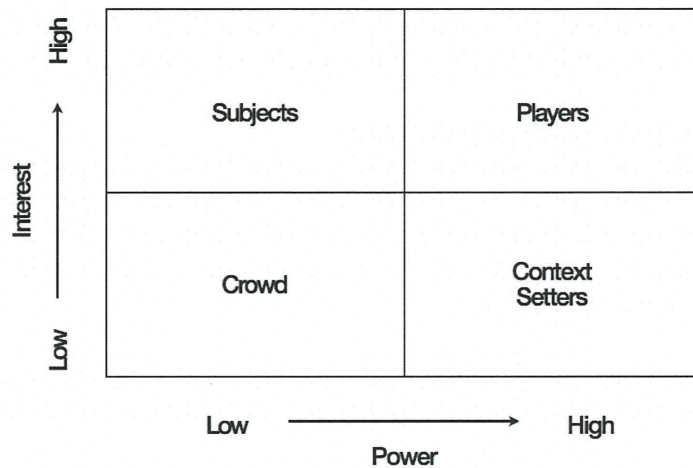
Diagram 7: Power vs Interest Grid

crowd who generally have little interest or power.

The particular value of power vs. interest grids lies in providing a visual representation of interest and power bases, which can further help the Task Force see possible alliances or coalitions among stakeholders; whose buy-in may be necessary down the road; where power and interest combine in potentially formidable ways; and who may have a strong interest in food and food safety policy yet lack the abilities to bring about change.

Following the initial brainstorming session and its list – ranked, where possible – of stakeholders, the Task Force, in a facilitated session, can do the following to create a Power vs. Interest Grid:
- on a flipchart, create the empty power vs interest grid as depicted in Diagram 7;
- on 3"x5" (76x127mm) index cards, write the names of specific stakeholders;
- discuss and determine where each stakeholder should be positioned on the grid;
- move index cards around until all members are satisfied with the relative position of each stakeholder;
- the Task Force should then discuss and summarize the implications of stakeholder placements on the grid – in particular and in general.
- finally, take a photograph of the flipchart for the Task Force's records.

3.5 Stakeholder Influence Mapping

The next step in the stakeholder analysis process is to determine how the various stakeholders interact and influence one other. It begins with a power vs interest grid as above, with the Task Force then:

- removing all index cards from the power vs interest grid (or creating new cards)
- pinning each card onto a blank flipchart page
- drawing lines of influence from one stakeholder to another on the grid (in pencil)
- identifying the primary direction of that influence. While noting two-way influences has value, the Task Force should concentrate where possible on the direction of primary influence flows.
- discussing these influence relationships, agreeing on all lines of influence (drawing them now in pen), and analyzing the results and implications of the diagram.

3.6 Stakeholder-issue Interrelationship Diagram

A third exercise that can add value and depth to the initial brainstorming shows the interests stakeholders have in different issues, and to what degree the issues, stakeholders and relationships are all connected. This again gives the Task Force a visual depiction of how stakeholders relate to each other, to the major food safety issues, with emphasis placed on areas of possible cooperation and/or conflict.[15]

Again in a facilitated setting – and preferably after having already completed Stakeholder Sheets (as in Diagram 5), a power vs interest grid (Diagram 7) and stakeholder influence mapping – the Task Force could:

- start by brainstorming particular food safety issues of prominence or urgency. These can be listed on a flipchart, discussed, with a final ranked list of 5-10 issues created.
- on another blank flipchart page, write the top issue in the middle of the page. Then the Task Force should brainstorm on which stakeholders are directly concerned by or have an influence on that issue. Draw an arrow from the stakeholder to the issue, and label that arrow with the stake or interest involved (e.g. "sets this policy" or "advocates for this reform"). Stakeholders may be involved in one, multiple or all of the issues.
- continue this brainstorming for all the identified issues.
- reflect on the chart by focusing on which stakeholders are connected on which issues, and the nature of this relationship (from cooperation to conflict).[16]

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[15] See also the Network Analysis tool described in Section 5.3
[16] Diagrams 5 and 7 adapted from Bryson (2004).
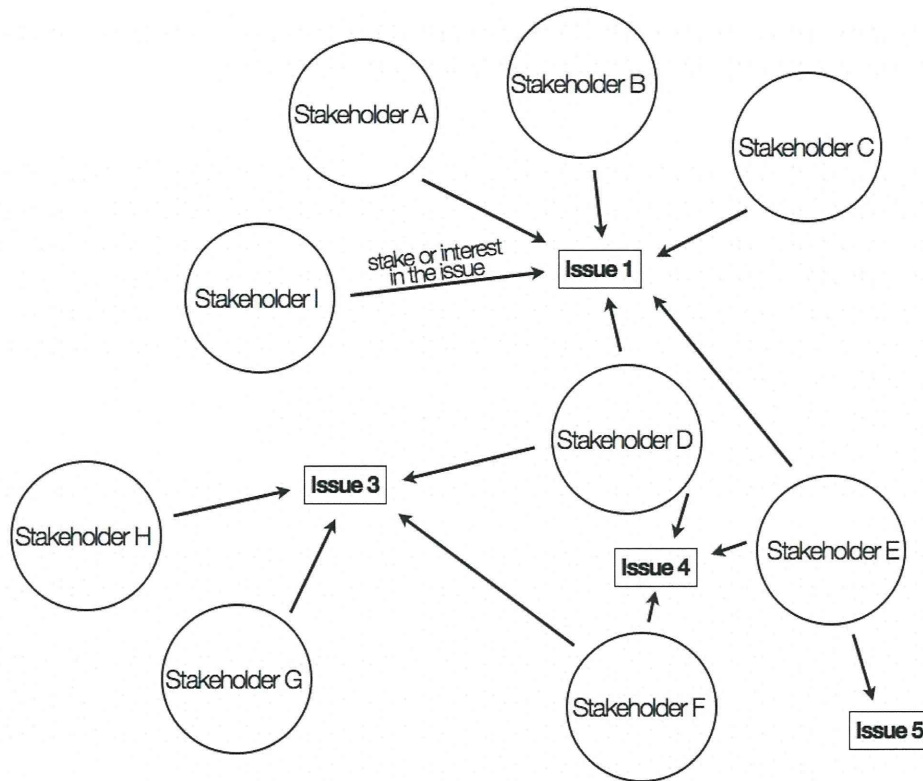
Diagram 8: Stakeholder-Issue Interrelationship Diagram

3.7 Core Package of Stakeholder Analysis Tools

There are many tools outlined in this section that may provide utility in arriving at a complete stakeholder analysis. If time or human resources do not allow the Task Force to work through each of the above suggested steps, a "core" package of tools that will still enable a Task Force to complete its work here would include:

- completing **stakeholder sheets** and **sector stakeholder maps**. While for some Task Forces this may represent only the beginning of a stakeholder analysis, for others this can be a major undertaking, and contribute to a new understanding of food and food policy issues. In many cases, assembling a "who's who" type of directory is an essential first step, a required platform for the subsequent analyses.
- of all the ensuing stakeholder analysis tools of importance, perhaps the most valuable is the **Power vs. Interest grid** as this adds meaning and depth to the above stakeholder sheets and sector stakeholder maps. Completing this type of grid allows the Task Force to reflect upon the dynamics among stakeholders, and also in isolating where stakeholders sit on issues of importance.

Both of these activities can be completed by the Task Force itself, without the need for key-informant interviews. Critically, *both activities should be guided by an expert facilitator*. Done comprehensively, these activities will provide the necessary raw data that the Task Force can then shape into a full stakeholder analysis. Of course, for truly optimal results, the Task Force will employ some of the other tools for different and vital shades of meaning, as stakeholders can

be just as complex and nuanced as the issues themselves. The more a Task Force studies and understands this complexity, the better its eventual recommendations.

3.8 Synthesis

The tools suggested in this section are simply that: tools. They are straightforward, often simple to do, and highly visual, little more than prompts designed to ground and guide discussions. Some may prove useful, others less so. However, regardless of which tools used, the Task Force must complete its stakeholder analysis work by producing a synthesis document. This is not a document designed for publication, but rather a comprehensive reflection of the process of undertaking a stakeholder analysis. It may be the only formal documentation produced during this process. It should specify:

- the approach the Task Force took to the stakeholder analysis
- the tools that were used in completing this analysis
- the broad results from the tools (e.g. lists, weightings, photographs of the flipboard charts, etc.)
- an analytic section putting this analysis into context: what it means for the Task Force moving forward; some of the direct implications for the Task Force's possible interactions with specific stakeholders on specific issues, etc.
- and lastly, the document should indicate some of the lessons learnt during this process of stakeholder analysis, with specific reference to how it could be improved. If another Task Force were to embark on the same exercise, what advice should they heed? What three things should the next Task Force do differently or more of?

4.0 Situation Analysis II: Political Context

The stakeholder analysis is the critical first step in completing these analyses. In many ways, the stakeholder analysis sets the scene for the others, and will allow the Task Force to move seamlessly to the political context surrounding food and food safety. Political context "includes aspects such as the distribution of power, the range of organizations involved and their interests, and the formal and informal rules that govern the interactions among different players. Political context shapes the ways in which policy processes work." (Nash et al 2006).

The second analysis is designed to create a systematic overview and analysis of the **political context** of food and food safety, with respect to the global, regional, and national levels. While connected to the stakeholder analysis above, this is more intended to document the political and policy environment surrounding food and food safety issues. This may include: understanding the factors external to a country that affect national policy-makers and food safety policy processes (from international food safety bodies to foreign aid organizations); structural factors within the national food industry, from economic parameters (e.g. subsidies, food handling regulations) to unique political-social trends, customs and pressures (e.g. common hand-washing practices); the degree of integration of food safety strategies in the health system; and a general understanding of the domestic food safety system, its institutions and management system, operations and capacity, as well as the resources allocated to food safety.

This political context analysis must reflect, above all, the national perspective. This manual recognizes the great difficulties in treating layers (e.g. global, regional) separately or of dissecting stakeholders who themselves operate at many different levels (e.g. multinational corporations, global agencies, government ministries). Regardless of the issue or dynamic at

hand, however, the nation-state must remain at the centre of the analysis: Task Forces should work to understand the global and regional dynamics in order to inform domestic ones.

As with the stakeholder analysis, mapping, understanding and analyzing the external, structural and systemic factors hinges on (facilitated) brainstorming sessions. Due to the complex nature and interconnections of these factors, this political context analysis would benefit strongly from some commissioned work, such as:

- a literature review oriented on these external, structural, and systemic factors, covering both peer-reviewed and grey literature, with a focus at the global, regional and country level; and
- a desk review of domestic food safety strategies, institutions, management, capacities and regulations.

Lastly, given the inherent connections between an analysis of the political context and the foregoing stakeholder analysis, there are strong possibilities of duplication here. Attention must be given to the Task Force's overarching plan of activities from the outset, and how everything might slot together.

4.1 Brainstorming the Political Context

As with the stakeholder analysis, brainstorming is a critical first tool here, and may be approached in several different ways. Building on the external, structural and systemic factors, the Task Force can begin by filling in the details for each factor. This would see the Task Force creating a long list of:

External Factors
- global regulatory or guidance bodies (e.g. WHO), global agencies (e.g. multilateral and bilateral funders), global initiatives (e.g. safe-food campaigns; hand-washing campaigns), and multinational corporations with long histories or investments within the country.
- cultural events or practices arising from the global level (disseminated, for instance, on the internet or through online social media platforms) with particular ramifications for food safety.

Structural Factors
- rules, regulations, codes of conduct, responsibilities etc. at the national level governing, for instance, food production, surveillance, inspection, sale, handling, and distribution, with particular emphasis on how these factors affect food safety.
- domestic cultural events or practices (including values, traditions, ideologies, religions) with particular ramifications for food safety.
- external events affecting any of the above (e.g. natural disasters, climate change).

Systemic Factors
- food safety strategies within the health system (e.g. as part of health promotion work); means and degrees of interaction among the domestic components responding to or advocating for food and food safety; national campaigns, coalitions, foundations working to mobilize the public or major stakeholders in issues like nutrition, reducing obesity etc.
- domestic roles and responsibilities assigned to food safety; the kinds of resources (financial, human) allocated to food safety; public-private partnerships for food safety.

The Task Force may wish to use a simple tool such as creating modified Stakeholder Sheets (as in Diagram 2 above) for each of the factors or elements. This would allow the Task Force to visualize the different factors and better understand those of high relevance or urgency. A synthesis document bringing together some of the results of the above brainstorming (combined with any of the tools below) would ideally result in:

- a common or shared understanding of the political context;
- an identification of those elements that may support, drive or impede future change, including an identification of prominent risks.[17]
- pathways for more and better dialogue among key stakeholders around major political challenges and opportunities
- an identification of how this increased understanding of the political context of food safety can ultimately shape policy and programming.

4.2 Key Informant Interviews

Again, this tool requires little elaboration here, with some possible questions included in *Annex I*. However, if the Task Force knows that it will proceed to KIIs or to focus groups to better understand and analyze the external, structural and systemic factors relevant to the political context, this can help to guide the brainstorming, particularly in identifying individuals or organizations that could contribute to the analysis.

4.3 Force-Field Analysis

This is an excellent brainstorming tool useful for not only isolating the factors within any given political context, but understanding how those factors influence the context – particularly in how they push or resist change. While this tool can easily be used to help assess and analyze the political context, it is also a very useful tool in understanding particular policy processes (as discussed in *Section Five* below). A force-field analysis usually begins in a facilitated workshop setting, though may also incorporate literature reviews and key informant interviews. Its results are usually quite stark and telling: by assessing the "forces for change" it can indicate whether shifts in particular factors or in general will unfold seamlessly, or against a background of opposition. This type of analysis shows who or what – i.e. the external, structural and systemic factors – is for or against change.
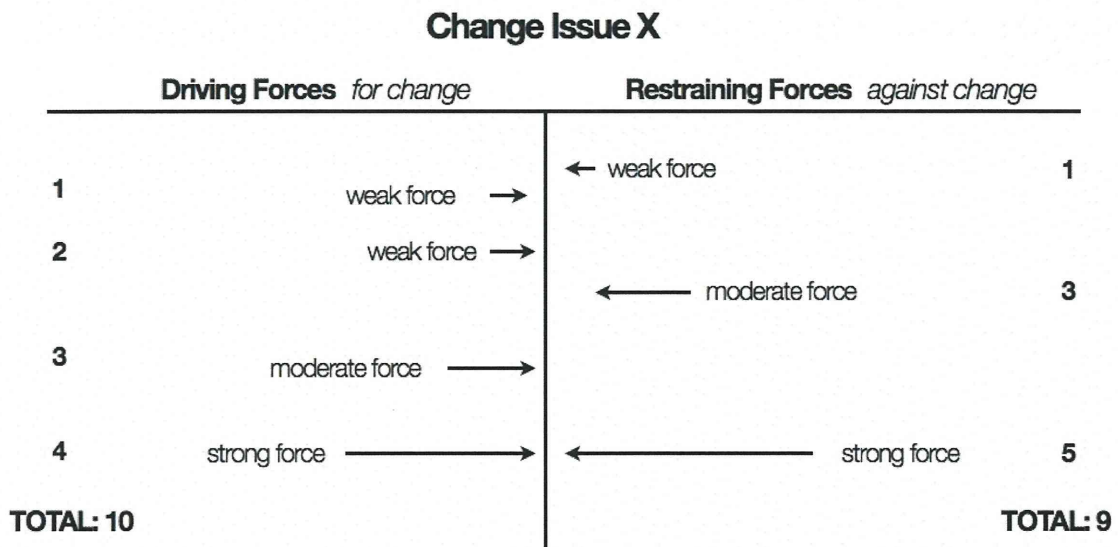
To perform a force-field analysis, the Task Force could follow these steps:
- defining the problem. What is the nature of the current situation that is unacceptable or requires modification? There could be a list of problems to address, and thus this exercise could be repeated until all problems have gone through individual analyses.
- clarifying the "change objective". What is the desired situation that would be worth working towards?
- identifying the driving forces. What are the factors or pressures that support change in the desired direction? What are the relative strengths of these forces?
- using 3"x5" (76x127mm) index cards, listing all driving forces on the cards

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[17] At this point, a Task Force may wish to conduct a simple SWOT Analysis (detailing strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats). As this is a very common approach, it is not detailed here though more can be found online. Also see ODI's 2009 "Context Assessment: SWOT Analysis". Accessed November 1, 2011

- using the chart depicted in Diagram 9 below, placing those forces in their relative positions. Task Force members should draw arrows reflecting the relative strength of each force. Then, members should assign a numerical score (1=weak, 5= strong) to represent the strength of the force.
- identifying the restraining forces. What are the factors or pressures that resist the proposed change and maintain the status quo? The Task Force should list these on index cards and pin them to the chart as well, adding arrows and a numerical score.
- discussing these forces: are they valid? Can they be changed? Which are the critical ones? How could any of the driving forces be strengthened? Added to? How could any of the restraining forces be removed or reduced? What unintended consequences may arise?
- adding up the numerical scores to have a nuanced view of forces acting on the change

Change Issue X

Driving Forces *for change*	Restraining Forces *against change*

1   weak force →   ← weak force   1

2   weak force →

                          ← moderate force   3

3   moderate force →

4   strong force → ← strong force   5

TOTAL: 10   TOTAL: 9

Diagram 9: Force-Field Analysis

proposal. Determining whether the change is viable.

Drivers of Change

The United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID) developed this analytic approach, and it shares some of the attributes of a force-field analysis – particularly in helping a group like a Task Force understand how their priorities relate and connect to those of other actors. It focuses on "power relationships and the institutional and structural factors affecting the lack of political will. It is based around a three-part conceptual model of structures, individual agents, and mediating institutions, and is coupled with an emphasis on how to effect change. As a result, this tool is better suited than many others to capturing the importance of informal institutions and relationships" (Nash et al 2006). As a framework for basic analysis, it works to examine foundational factors (how, for instance, social and economic structures influence the political system), institutional factors (how power is distributed and shared), and short-term factors (available resources, mechanisms, capacities across the political system).

For more, see Nash et al 2006; DFID 2005.

4.4 Power Analysis

The Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) developed this tool as a means to assist it, other bilaterals and multilaterals, and countries receiving development aid to better understand the nature of power within a country, the "agents for or against pro-poor change, political will and possibilities, responsibilities, resources, informal and formal power structures and power relations" (Bjuremalm 2006). There is no fixed definition of power for this type of analysis – recognizing that "power" may be a vague or context-specific term, part of using this tool lies in collectively defining "power" for the given context. While this tool may be better suited to analyze more macro-level issues (e.g. achievements of MDGs, harmonization agendas) in LMICs, it does have some strong components to offer any Task Force as it completes its political context analysis. Most particularly, this tool can help create a comprehensive perspective on the relevant social, economic, political and cultural dynamics – focusing in particular on *how* change could occur within and among those dynamics (World Bank 2007).[18]

Power Analysis

Power Analysis works to combine better knowledge with responsive, dialogue-informed programming. "What we want to achieve is to try another way of painting the political landscape, with more shades and nuances – including *formal and informal* power relations and structures, as well as another way of understanding how these factors affect and are affected by development cooperation. The analysis of actors, interest groups and structures will ideally show where *real power* in a society lies, how power is *distributed,* and possible conflicts of interest. It may also point to *what kind* of power is being exercised and *how,* as well as how this is *understood* or perceived, *by whom* and for *what purposes* and *what consequences* this has. It is hoped that allies/agents/incentives for change may be identified as well as operational recommendations on what to do… Some of the main areas of concern of a power analysis include analysis of actors, interest groups and structures with the purpose to show which are dominant, i.e. where the real power in society lies, and their scope and incentives for pro-poor reforms. The chain of voice, representation and influence tends to be cut by either discrimination (prejudice/lack of availability, access, acceptability or quality) or elite capture/corruption or both" (Bjuremalm 2006).

For a Task Force, the following five broad steps may be performed in a combination of brainstorming sessions, commissioned papers, scoping studies, key informant interviews, and focus groups. As with other tools, the Task Force will need to synthesize the results into a final Power Analysis document.
1. Define "power" in a food safety context, and then work to document who wields it. Who sets the policy agenda in food and food safety? How do formal institutions shape the distribution of power? How do informal institutions (e.g. networks) influence the policy process? (World Bank 2007).
2. Perform a *basic country analysis* that outlines all relevant economic, social, political and institutional factors affecting the dynamics and possibilities for change in food safety. This should include an analysis of formal and informal actors (i.e. with an emphasis on where *real power* lies); the structures and institutions involved in or concerned by food safety; relevant history, geopolitics, demographics and socio-economic aspects. How, for instance, has history shaped the current distribution of power in food safety?

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[18] There are a range of power analysis case studies available from LMICs – including Bangladesh, Kenya, Ethiopia, Burkina Faso, and Malawi. For details see Bjuremalm 2006.

3. Study *medium-term dynamics* of change including the capacities of and incentives for actors involved in food safety issues to change their behaviour.
4. Understand the range, influence and strategies of *external forces* (e.g. global bodies; multinational corporations).
5. Sketch out any *operational implications*, with a focus on how entities can institutionalize the needed change, alter their relationships with others, and possibly how knowledge on food safety might translate into policy (for more on this, see *Section Five* below).

4.5 Core Package of Political Context Analysis Tools

Arriving at an understanding of the political context is a highly complex undertaking – much moreso than a stakeholder analysis. Again recognizing the possible time and human–resource constraints of any given Task Force, some of the absolute minimum elements a political context analysis should contain include:

- the **desk review** of domestic food safety strategies, institutions, management, capacities and regulations, along with a **modified literature review** (perhaps restricted to the country or regional level). Like the stakeholder sheets from *Section Three*, this kind of desk research provides a baseline of information that is imperative for deepening collective understandings. While it is hoped that the Task Force would work to add value to this kind of information baseline, the information itself represents a critical and irreplaceable beginning.
- **brainstorming the external, structural and systemic factors**. This clearly builds upon the desk and lit reviews, and may provide enough commentary and weighted opinion to arrive at some strong conclusions of the political context of food and food safety.

If only this minimum package of tools is to be pursued here, the Task Force must have lengthy deliberations on the nature and distribution of power in food and food policy, as well as "the formal and informal rules that govern the interactions among different players" (Nash, 2006). This is the essence of the political context analysis. However, it should be strongly noted that this minimum package of tools may in fact be insufficient, leaving the Task Force unable to develop a comprehensive analysis.

4.6 Synthesis

The Task Force must complete its political context analysis work by producing a synthesis document. This is not a document designed for publication, but rather a comprehensive reflection of the process of undertaking a political context analysis. It should specify:

- the approach the Task Force took to the political context analysis
- the tools that were used in completing this analysis
- the broad results from the tools (e.g. broken down by external, structural, systemic factors; reproductions of diagrams, lists, photographs of the flipboard charts, etc.)
- an analytic section putting this analysis into context: what it means for the Task Force moving forward; some of the direct implications for the Task Force's possible interactions with specific stakeholders on specific issues, etc.
- and lastly, the synthesis should indicate some of the lessons learnt during this process of political context analysis, with specific reference to how it could be improved. If another Task Force were to embark on the same exercise, what advice should they heed? What three things should the next Task Force do differently or more of?

5.0 Situation Analysis III: National Policy

This final analysis very clearly builds upon the previous two. Now that the Task Force has identified, analyzed and weighed relevant stakeholders to food policy, along with careful consideration of the external, structural and systemic factors, this analysis offers the final piece of the puzzle: understanding national policy processes, and how these might – or might not – contribute to food safety. By this point, it is very likely that Task Forces have already begun mapping national policy processes as there is clearly some overlap here with the political context analysis. However, in this section the manual presents tools and approaches that will help Task Forces get a better picture of how policies are made, what prospects for change exist, and what means for incorporating knowledge about food safety into future policy processes are possible.

The third and final analysis aims to sketch and assess **national policy processes** and mechanisms related to or affecting food safety, including food safety policy. While clearly connected to the first two analyses, this is a much more focused investigation of national processes and mechanisms. This includes a description and analysis of all national policies relevant to food safety and how they have changed over time; how previous policy agendas related to food safety issues have been set, formulated, adopted, implemented and evaluated; and an analysis of current or future opportunities for influencing policy and policy processes with food safety research evidence. This last variable is critical in terms of understanding how knowledge can inform and influence change. Studying this variable must include attention to the ways and means stakeholders currently access research evidence on food safety; the overall capacities of policy-makers to access, assess, adopt and apply research evidence in food safety; the national-level mechanisms in place to encourage the sharing and dissemination of relevant research evidence; and the individual and institutional obstacles to knowledge sharing, access and utilization.

5.1 Brainstorming the Policy Process
As with the other analyses, the logical place to start here is for the Task Force to convene and to use any of the described dialogue modalities (in *Section Three*) to think through the major variables and desired approach of this analysis. Again this might be complemented by commissioned literature reviews (particularly in documenting the country's past policy or regulatory responses – or lack of responses – to food and food safety); by broader scoping studies (looking at how, for instance, policy in food and food safety has been formulated within and across sectors); and by information and opinions derived from key informant interviews and focus groups.

Some of the elements to consider in completing this analysis include:
- defining "policy". It is obviously very difficult to understand "national policy processes" if stakeholders understand "policy" in different ways. The wide, multi-sectoral scope of food and food safety may make arriving at a consensus for this definition even more of a challenge.
- defining "policy-maker". This also has its challenges as "policy" can be made, set and implemented in many different contexts by many different actors. A Ministry of Health, for instance, may determine health policy on issues related to food and food safety – however (as discussed in *Section Three*), it is hardly a monolith and policy may be formulated by many different units or individuals within the ministry, and, what's more, actually

implemented by others (who often have a very different vision of how things could and should be done).[19]

- understanding the craft of "policy analysis" as it might apply to food and food safety. Each sector in most countries has a stable of policy analysts (often employed as lobbyists or in the private sector) to assist governments in arriving at solutions to complex problems. These analysts have a variety of methods they use to understand, focus, weigh and rank problems and solutions. As they often have great experience in influencing government policy, they may be a great resource to the Task Force and could possibly form an Expert Witness Panel (see *Section Three* above) to provide specific information to the Task Force.
- understanding the broader context for policy-making in the country. Situation Analysis 2 will provide some material for this (particularly in understanding the role and weight of external factors), but the Task Force must orient itself to this broad context for the precise purpose of understanding how knowledge (including research evidence) on food safety may inform or influence national policy-making. What windows of opportunity might arise, allowing valuable research evidence and emerging best practice to inform these national policy-making processes?
- understanding these windows of opportunity requires an understanding of the broader knowledge base in the country on food safety.[20] Are significant aspects of it harvested, available and readily accessible? Do any mechanisms exist to synthesize or tailor knowledge to the particular needs of a policy-maker? What is the general relationship of researchers and policy-makers in food and food safety? How do these two communities typically interact?

One of the challenges for this situation analysis is that many of the tools available for charting and analyzing policy tend to focus on a possible policy *reform* (e.g. to advance policy X, its supporters should pursue avenue Y). While Task Forces may have different objectives (e.g. of understanding the general policy processes and opportunities for policy influence), there are specific aspects of individual policy-analysis tools that are certainly relevant and will illustrate some of the important national-level processes.

5.2 The Policy Process Matrix
Related in many ways to some stakeholder analysis tools, completing a Policy Process Matrix can provide a Task Force with a logical structure for brainstorming. Advanced by the UK's Overseas Development Institute (ODI), this tool can capture some of the wide policy dynamics within food and food safety by focusing on the policy priorities of key actors, their resources, reasons for (in)action, and degree of possible influence.[21]

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[19] For more on this concept of the policy implementer – or "street-level bureaucrat" – and his/her ability to influence how policies are actually implemented, see de Savigny and Adam (2009).
[20] a "knowledge base" includes aspects such as research findings (national, regional, global), syntheses (e.g. policy briefs, meta-analyses), systematic reviews, evaluation reports (specifically those concerned with identifying best practice), and other grey literature documenting the country's wider "experience" (e.g. policies, programmes) in the area.
[21] Details of this tool here have been distilled from ODI available here. Accessed November 1, 2011.

For a Task Force, this tool could be used in many ways to prompt discussion. Most likely, it should be used in ways to illustrate very specific food and food safety policies, as its utility increases the more precise the Task Force can be. The Task Force could:

- brainstorm on relatively focused policy areas (e.g. "macro-economic policies affecting food security"; "public investment policies influencing the agricultural sector," etc.) that have had, do, or will have a strong bearing on national food and food safety issues.
- per policy area, brainstorm the key political, economic, social, state and international actors. This can tie into some of the stakeholder analysis work already done, and may further reflect the discussed primary, secondary and key categories of stakeholders.
- determine how great a priority (low, medium, high) this policy area is for each stakeholder.
- analyze the individual stakeholder's reasons for influencing (or not influencing) policy in this area.
- identify each stakeholder's resources for actually influencing the policy area. This can stretch from financial to human resources to votes and personal connections.
- following all of this, determine the degree of actual influence each stakeholder has in the policy area.
- discuss and decide upon the real and potential alliances among the stakeholders.

Following this discussion, the Task Force may arrange the data visually by filling in the following table:

Stakeholders	Priority per policy area	Stakeholder reasons for policy influence	Stakeholder resources for policy influence	Degree of influence in policy area	Actual vs potential alliances

As with many of the other tools in this manual, a synthesis providing observations, recommendations and/or conclusions would add tremendous value here.

5.3 Network Analyses
An emerging type of analysis particularly helpful in understanding policy and the pathways towards policy influence comes through network analyses. While a relatively new approach, the potential of network analyses to radically alter what is known about the policy process – how and why policy events happen – and how change occurs, is extremely promising. Like the Policy Process Matrix described above, network analyses envision policy, policy reform and policy pathways through the networks of individuals and institutions (both formal and informal) that ultimately support them, create them, fight them, and so on.

Networks are comprised of nodes (individuals and institutions) connected by various relationships (e.g. a shared interest, a formal memorandum of understanding, a contractual obligation), and bounded by one or more variables (e.g. time, geography, membership etc.) in

many different configurations. A *policy network* is comprised very simply of those individuals and institutions active in a particular policy sector, with the network relatively – though in most societies not completely – closed in order to facilitate discussion on how best to share resources. A *social network* focuses more on the interpersonal connections between individuals and how their relationships grow in terms of direction, concordance, intensity, duration and vitality.[22] As Lewis (2005) comments, in order to understand influence – policy or other – analysts must see influence as arising from the connections among individuals. "Mapping social networks of inter-personal ties allows the analyst to generate a detailed picture based on individual connections, which adds to the more formal inter-organisational relationships that constitute policy networks. By examining who is connected to whom, it is possible to see who has access to resources and who exercises control within a network. This can be based on competition, or on collaboration and trust, or simply who has the most similar personal characteristics."

Rapid Policy Network Mapping

As discussed in Bainbridge, Potts and O'Higgins (2011), this newly developed tool allows groups to take a quick yet deep "snapshot" concerning the development and implementation of policy in any given sector. Used initially in environmental policy, this method "delivers an insight to both technical and non-technical users into the lifecycle, relationships and dependencies of policy development. The method was applied to the Marine Strategy Framework Directive and the Water Framework Directive in the UK. These two case studies highlight the environmental policy challenges to protect the UK's marine coastal environment. They identify differences in the styles of policy implementation between the devolved authorities of the UK. Rapid Policy Network Mapping provides an opportunity to create a collaborative policy data environment with a relatively small investment. As a tool for civil society it should assist in their ability to understand and influence policy-making and implementation." For more information, visit this link or download the author's open-access paper.


To create a network analysis or a network map – concerning either a policy network or a social network – the Task Force may wish to consider the following steps:

- defining the network to be analyzed and mapped. This definitional stage could see networks defined using very tight parameters (e.g. those individuals and institutions charged with regulating food industry safety standards) or very wide ones (e.g. all actors involved in national policy processes around food safety). Background information from brainstorming, key informant analysis, literature reviews etc. can work to clarify the relationships, links, flows (e.g. of resources, influence etc.) and boundaries. An Expert Witness Panel could also provide important data at this stage.

- following this, the Task Force should begin its analysis of the network. "It is important to assess the location or 'centrality' of the actors/entities within the networks. This location can help establish the importance, or prominence, of actors/entities in the network and can be different from the location in a hierarchy or organizational chart. Three important network measures are 'degree centrality,' 'betweenness centrality,' and 'closeness centrality'. Degree centrality measures network activity through the number of direct connections a node has. Nodes with the most direct connections to others are 'connectors' or 'hubs'. It is important to examine where those connections lead and how they connect nodes that would otherwise be unconnected in addition to the number of direct connections.

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[22] For more on this dense and complex topic, see Merrill et al 2008; The World Bank 2007; Wholey, Gregg and Moscovice 2009; and Provan, Fish and Sydow 2007.

Betweenness centrality assesses where nodes are in terms of others. Nodes with high "betweenness" have a high level of influence over what flows in a network. They might have a powerful role in the network but could also be an important weakness if they fail, cutting off flows between other nodes. Closeness centrality measures the degree to which the pattern of direct and indirect links enables a node to access all the other nodes in a network quickly. Nodes with high "closeness" have short paths to all others and can often be in good positions to monitor flows within networks and to know what is happening
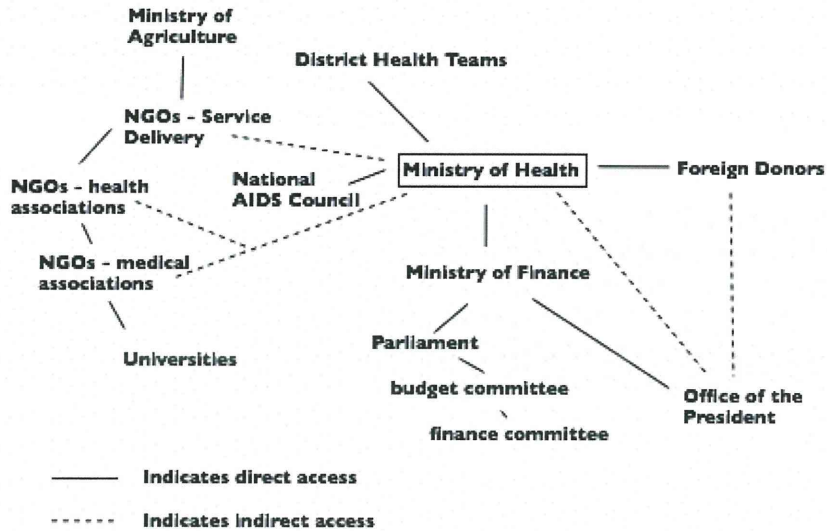
Diagram 10: Example of a simple completed Policy Network Map

within networks." (World Bank 2007).

- developments from the analysis could include an understanding of new policy pathways; could reveal new modes of influence among actors; and could lead to new approaches to evaluate either the network as a whole or specific elements of it.[23]

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[23] Diagram 10 reproduced from the Research Matters' Knowledge Translation Toolkit. 2008. Available online.

Diagram 11: Individual Influence Network Maps of Different Members of the White Volta Basin Board, Ghana, 2006. World Bank (2007).

5.4 Problem-Driven Analysis

This tool, developed by both DFID and the World Bank, seeks to understand why specific problems have *not* been successfully resolved. "In this way, it can help practitioners think about feasible policy and institutional reforms to overcome potential obstacles" (DFID 2009). While again this tool may be better suited for individual policy reforms (or lack of reform in a particular policy area), it may prove useful to Task Forces in clearly:

- identifying and elaborating upon the problem or challenges that must be addressed
- discussing the institutional, network or governance weaknesses preventing resolution of the problem
- identifying the "political economy drivers which constrain or support progressive change" (DFID 2009).

5.5 Core Package of National Policy Analysis Tools

As in the preceding political context analysis, arriving at a set of minimum tools for understanding the national policy context is extremely difficult, and will differ from context to context. Two foundational exercises here would include:

- **literature and desk reviews** to document and understand the country's past policy or regulatory responses – or lack of responses – to food and food safety. These reviews may also be able to suggest some upcoming windows of opportunity for the ways and means research evidence or burden of disease data could influence policy, along with some suggestions for how researchers and policy-makers may collaborate.
- completing a **Policy Process Matrix**. This is an excellent tool to guide and underpin brainstorming on these issues, and upon completion should give the Task Force a reasonable understanding of national policy dynamics.

5.6 Synthesis

Regardless of the tools used for this section, the Task Force must complete its national policy process analysis by producing a synthesis document. This is not a document designed for publication, but rather a comprehensive reflection of the process of undertaking a national policy process analysis. It should specify:

- the approach the Task Force took to the national policy process analysis
- the tools that were used in completing this analysis
- the broad results from the tools (e.g. definitions; ways and means of positioning foodborne disease-burden data as a comprehensive input into national policy-making; network diagrams, histories, photographs of the brainstorming charts, etc.)
- an analytic section putting this analysis into context: what it means for the Task Force moving forward; some of the direct implications for the Task Force's possible interactions with specific stakeholders on specific issues, etc.
- and lastly, the synthesis should indicate some of the lessons learnt during this process of analyzing national policy processes, with specific reference to how it could be improved. If another Task Force were to embark on the same exercise, what advice should they heed? What three things should the next Task Force do differently or more of?

6.0 Conclusions

Following the conduct of all three analyses, the Task Force may wish to convene once more to review the accomplishments, challenges, and lessons learnt during the process. There may be need to review progress, to assess harmonies and discrepancies among the different tools and analyses, and most of all, to generate recommendations about the way forward. As stated in the introduction, *these analyses are designed above all to complement the accompanying country-based burden of foodborne disease studies, working to position these studies as comprehensive inputs to the wider policy-making processes within countries, regions and globally.*

While this manual cannot provide concrete guidance on how the results of these analyses can identify opportunites to use evidence or burden of disease data at the national level – as these opportunities will be entirely context specific – the Task Force should convene one last time to discuss these opportunities. Given the results of each analysis individually, and of all three taken collectively, how might research evidence or burden of disease data increasingly inform policy discussions? In what precise ways might the foodborne disease studies become very real policy inputs? Who and what needs to be involved – how, when and why? – to ensure that evidence robustly informs a country's response to food and food safety issues? These are critical questions that should in many ways frame the activities of the Task Force. Their answers are the true terminus for its operations.

Before its dissolution, the Task Force may also decide how it wishes to proceed in terms of finalizing the required outputs. Who will write the peer-reviewed document synthesizing these three analyses, and assessing how stakeholders, structures and processes may support or impede changes towards evidence-informed policy and practice in food safety at the national level? Who will take the lead on devising a national-level strategy positioning foodborne disease-burden data as a comprehensive input into national policy-making? Who will finalize the synthesis documents from each analysis? And finally, the Task Force should designate one or more of its

members to lead the production of the evaluative reports reflecting experience, data and recommendations arising from the conduct of these situation analyses to better assist the programme's eventual scale up across all WHO regions.

Finally, the Task Force may wish to use several evaluative tools to gauge its performance, and to provide further data and guidance for its final report. Such tools include After Action Reviews, Appreciative Inquiry, Most Significant Question and others.[24]

6.1 Final Evaluative Reports

Each Task Force may wish to report final results in its own format, and to its own level of detail. Aside from any peer-review paper or strategy document, this manual recommends the creation of final evaluative reports to reflect the Task Force's experience, data and recommendations. These will capture the work of the Task Force both for its own records and to contribute to the global knowledge base to better assist the programme's eventual scale up across all WHO regions. Major sections for such a final evaluative report could include:

- background: what, in broad terms, the Task Force set out to accomplish.
- Task Force background: how it was created, who sat upon it, how it functioned, types of dialogue modalities used, facilitation etc.
- situation analysis background: an overview of the three analyses, along with some key recommendations and conclusions connecting the three analyses.
- situation analysis 1: which tools were used for the stakeholder analysis, a summary of what each tool added, and some overarching conclusions. This section may reflect some or all of the synthesis work as outlined in Sections 3.8, 4.6 and 5.6.
- situation analysis 2: which tools were used for the political context analysis, a summary of what each tool added, and some overarching conclusions. This section may reflect some or all of the synthesis work as outlined in Sections 3.8, 4.6 and 5.6.
- situation analysis 3: which tools were used for the national policy analysis, a summary of what each tool added, and some overarching conclusions. This section may reflect some or all of the synthesis work as outlined in Sections 3.8, 4.6 and 5.6.
- conclusions and recommendations on the analyses: the final word of the Task Force in moving forward, including evidence-informed opinion on how burden of disease data can increasingly become a viable policy input. *Who and what needs to be involved – how, when and why? – to ensure that evidence robustly informs a country's response to food and food safety issues?*
- conclusions and recommendations on the situation analysis process: what worked well in the process? What less so? What guidance can be provided for Task Forces in other countries or contexts? What could be done differently or better next time?

7.0 Glossary

In this section, find some definitions that have been tailored to this situation analysis work. Task Forces should review these definitions to air and clarify any differences, disagreements, or additions to these terms. Additional information on these terms can be found in the resources found in *Section Eight* below.

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[24] For more information on these evaluative tools, see the Research Matters' Knowledge Translation Toolkit. 2008. Available online

☐**concept mapping**: a participatory tool that fuses organized brainstorming with statistical analysis that may then initiate more refined brainstorming or deeper dialogue (Novak and Cañas 2008; National Cancer Institute 2007).

☐**deliberative dialogue**: a process of collective and procedural discussion where an inclusive and representative set of stakeholders consider facts from multiple perspectives, converse with one another to think critically about options, and through reasoned argument refine and enlarge their perspectives, opinions and understandings.[25] A deliberative dialogue creates joint meaning and shared understanding (Franco 2006), a unique and effective "problem-structuring tool" (McDonald, Bammer and Deane 2009) that represents the "soul" of democracy itself (Dryzek 2000).

☐**institutions**: either formal (e.g. an entity governed by rules, regulations etc) or informal in the sense of traditions, customs and social norms. Of particular relevance here are the "informal norms that underpin social hierarchies, create and perpetuate power structures and generate reciprocal obligations. In settings where formal institutions are weakly embedded and enforced, informal norms often explain how things really get done" (DFID 2009).

☐**policy**: "the result of interactions among different organizations about what course of action should be taken. The sum of these interactions constitutes the policy process. And the policy process – the interactions among organizations – is part of a wider environment, or context" (Nash et al 2006).

☐**political context**: "includes aspects such as the distribution of power, the range of organizations involved and their interests, and the formal and informal rules that govern the interactions among different players. Political context shapes the ways in which policy processed work." (Nash et al 2006).

☐**political economy analysis**: details those interactions among political and economic processes, including "the distribution of power and wealth between different groups and individuals, and the processes that create, sustain and transform these relationships over time" (DFID 2009).

☐**politics**: is defined here as those processes of cooperation, negotiation and conflict among stakeholders in the creation, distribution and use of resources.

☐**stakeholders**: any individual, group, organization, department, structure or network with a vested interest in the stated objective, project, policy, policy reform or issue. They stand to gain or lose if conditions stay the same or if conditions change. As they have a stake in those conditions, they have have rights, ownership and, very likely, information that is critical to the successful creation or implementation of the stated objective, project, policy, policy reform or issue at hand.[26]

☐**stakeholder analysis** – an approach to understand the positions, interest, power and dynamics among individuals, groups, organizations, departments, structures or networks. It "considers not only the characteristics of stakeholders with regard to the issue of interest, whether it be around a policy, project or organizational objective. It can also be used to illustrate existing organizational relationships and predict – or help develop – stakeholder

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[25] This definition has been informed by Gregory, Hartz-Karp and Watson (2008); McCoy and Scully (2002); London (2005); and Lavis et al (2009b).

[26] This definition is an amalgam of those found in Nash et al (2006), WWF (2005), Varvasovszky and Brugha (2000), Bourne and Walker (2006) and Bryson (2004).

alliances. Where there is a short-term pragmatic goal – e.g. implementation of a specific policy or project – the identification and assessments of the nature and strengths of these relationships can assist in developing strategies for managing the stakeholders" (Varvasovszky and Brugha 2000).

☐**the Chatham House Rule**: under this rule, "speakers are free to voice their own opinions, without concern for their personal reputation or their official duties and affiliations. The Chatham House Rule resolves a boundary problem faced by many communities of practice, in that it permits acknowledgment of the community or conversation, while protecting the freedom of interaction that is necessary for the community to carry out its conversations" (Wikipedia).

8.0 Resources

Below is a list of key resources for more information on any of the topics covered in this manual.

Bjuremalm H	Power Analysis – Experiences and Challenges. Sida 2006. Available online.
Bourne L, Walker DHT.	Using a visualising tool to study stakeholder influence - two Australian examples. *The Project Management Journal*, 37 (1), 2006.
Bryson JM	What to do when stakeholders matter: stakeholder identification and analysis techniques. *Public Management Review*, 6 (1), 2004.
Campbell S	Deliberative Priority Setting. A CIHR Knowledge Translation Module. 2010. Available online. Accessed November 2, 2011.
de Savigny D, Adam T, Eds.	Systems thinking for health systems strengthening. Alliance for Health Policy and Systems Research, WHO, 2009.
Department for International Development (DFID)	Lessons learned: planning and undertaking a Drivers of Change study. a DFID practice paper. 2005. Available online. Accessed October 27, 2011.
Department for International Development (DFID)	Political Economy Analysis: How to Note. July 2009. Available online. Accessed October 25, 2011.
Dodge C and Bennett G	Changing Minds: A Guide to Facilitated Participatory Planning. IDRC, 2011. Available online. Accessed October 25, 2011.
Dryzek J.	*Deliberative Democracy and Beyond*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.