

# Chapter 12: Achieving influence and driving change

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*"It is clear that better use of research in development policy and practice can help save lives, reduce poverty and improve quality of life". ([Court and Young 2003](#): p1)*

*"There is nothing a government hates more than to be well informed; for it makes the process of arriving at decisions much more complicated and difficult" (Maynard Keynes Collected Writings, vol. 21, p. 409).*

*"Policy-makers, managers, and funding agencies do not always want to know how their programmes are being implemented, unless of course they can be shown to be doing well. They may have invested considerable political and financial capital in a policy, and be afraid of not producing the desired results or of poorly managing resources. Funders are frequently resistant to research that might highlight sustainability issues or the negative unintended consequences of their programmes, such as the human resource distribution problems arising as a result of hiring people for single purpose projects.... Similarly, the concerns of minority groups may not be of interest to those groups in power, particularly if there are social and political sensitivities. ... In some cases participatory action research may even be considered revolutionary to the existing power structures. In these circumstances, an important aspect of implementation researchers' work is to find ways to get their research into agenda-setting processes to influence policy. This may also require approaches that rely more on advocacy strategies that can make use of well-designed research." ([Peters et al. 2013](#): p42).*

## 1. Research knowledge driving change

There has been growing awareness and acknowledgement of the value of research uptake and communications as an integral part of the research process. Bringing together good credible research is important, but there is increasing demand to see it come alive rather than just have it sit on a database somewhere. The World Health Organization (WHO) has also recognised the need to use rigorous processes to ensure that health recommendations are informed by the best available research evidence ([Al-Riyami 2010](#)).

In order to see relevant research make a difference requires putting the evidence into use through a variety of knowledge management and communication mechanisms – an area this chapter will explore. A more detailed focus will be presented on the use of policy briefs, an evidence-based product that places strong emphasis on clear recommendations for policy-related professionals. But apart from just communicating credible evidence, researchers also need to be more engaged and aware of the complexity of decision-making processes, as this directly influences the likelihood of whether their research will be taken up. This is another area that we will briefly examine in this chapter.

There are a number of terms that we will be using that are explained below.

**Knowledge:** is a well-researched concept and refers to information that is available and accessible. [Perkin and Court \(2005\)](#) define knowledge as "information that has been evaluated and organised so that it can be used purposefully" (p2). [Porter \(2010\)](#) reflects that the term is now often used in place of evidence as it encourages discussion on how evidence is processed and utilised, and includes tacit and informal sources.

**Evidence:** in the context that we are discussing, evidence is information generated through research, whether scientific or social, and generally communicated through research-related formats including data, statistics, indicators, scientific studies, technical briefings and reviews. In this chapter, we will focus on research evidence and the process by which it can be communicated and utilised by decision-makers including the policy community.

**Evidence-informed policy:** can be considered as “*that which has considered: a broad range of research evidence; evidence from citizens and other stakeholders; and evidence from practice and policy implementation as part of a process that considers other factors such as political realities and current public debates*” ([Newman et al. 2012](#):p17). Evidence-informed policy does not generally involve a linear transition of research findings into policy decisions; research can inform policy discourses in multiple and sometimes subtle ways. But it is valuable to understand the complex nature of decision-making processes and where your research may fit in. Even when it does not directly contribute to decision-making, it may influence the language used by policy-makers or create awareness of an issue ([Weyrauch and Diaz Langou 2011](#)). Effectively used, research evidence can have a considerable impact:

“*... initial outcomes of the study which wound up at the end of 2011 showed increased community awareness about benefits of delivering in health facilities, and phenomenal increases in facility births, with an average of 1,336 deliveries per month in the intervention area compared to an average of 461 deliveries per month in the control area*”. ([FHS 2014](#))

## 2. Literature around the research – policy nexus

The evidence-based policy concept has been well explored in the international development sector with multiple sources of literature and the development of useful models and frameworks that have helped to improve research – policy integration and research uptake by policy actors. Annex table 1 outlines some selected bodies of work that address the use of research evidence in policy.

Although important strides have been taken in raising expectations and pushing boundaries, progress is not uniform. A recent UK/Dutch workshop in London ([Wellcome Trust 2014](#)) identified that while some research organisations have led the way in exploring research uptake and knowledge management by strengthening capacity, creating alliances and pioneering new ways of working, many others still struggle. There is still much to be done in mastering the 'art' of research uptake and making sure it happens more consistently ([Morton 2015](#)).

## 3. Do we understand enough about real world policy processes?

“*There is no such thing as context-free evidence*” ([Davies 1999](#):p111).

Politics shapes how evidence is used at many decision-making levels – and this means that researchers need to understand politics and the process of decision-making. Power relations can crowd out certain types of evidence and perspectives ([Fisher and Vogel 2008](#)), so engaging with political actors and understanding how decisions are made is essential. [Porter \(2010\)](#) provides some useful guidelines for integrating political economy analysis into different stages of the research and communication process in order to negotiate the political context.

Achieving and attributing influence and change is a complex and difficult process with no easy quick-wins. As [Dagenais \(2015\)](#) argues “*despite efforts expended over recent decades, there is a persistent gap between the production of scientific evidence and its use*” (p1654). It is also

important to take account of how definitions of 'successful' influence and impact are shaped and by whom. Scott-Villiers highlights this in her case study of research undertaken in the Karamoja, Uganda which was deemed as 'not influential' by a donor, but had a significant effect on the local community ([Scott-Villiers 2012](#)). Debates around influence and impact often focus narrowly on 'policy influence' and 'policymakers' (in itself a very broad term that encompasses a whole range of different actors and that requires further definition in relation to specific contexts). However, as [Benequista \(2016\)](#) argues in a recent blog on research communications and politics, policymakers are not the only drivers of change; in fact they can obstruct positive change. An analysis of the power dynamics and relations in the context in which researchers are seeking to engage and achieve influence is essential ([Gaventa 2006](#)) in order to realise change and avoid simply reinforcing or legitimising existing power imbalances and the status quo.

This is further analysed by [Lomas \(2006\)](#), who asks how much researchers should compromise in their conception of 'evidence' and how much should decision-makers compromise in theirs? In some cases it is possible for researchers and decision-makers to be equal partners in the co-production of research ([Lomas 2005](#)), rather than the latter being seen as the end-users of findings generated by researchers ([Pope et al. 2005](#)). [Porter \(2010\)](#) suggests that practice to date shows that involving governments in the process of establishing research priorities increases the likelihood of the uptake of findings by those governments. It also makes it more likely that recommendations are not out of line with government thinking and are mindful of the realities of policymaking.

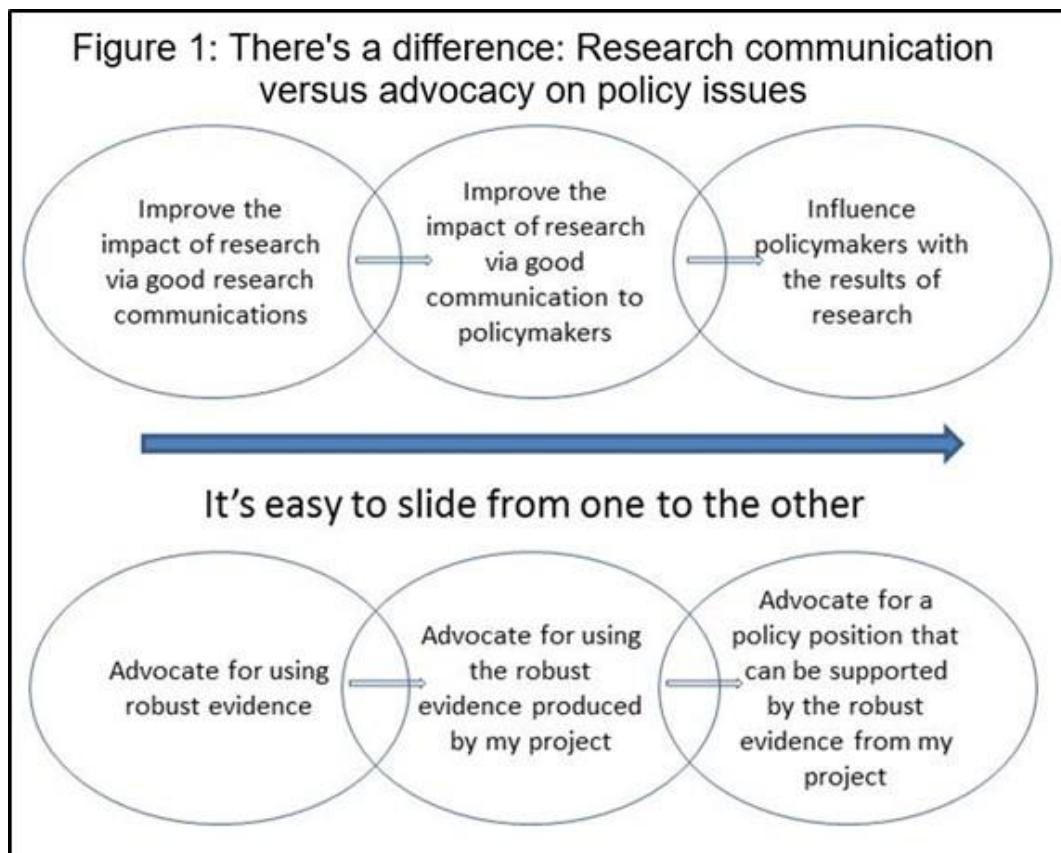
[Roger \(2006\)](#) discusses the need to confront the gap between the idealised use of research in policy development and current realities. He highlights that healthcare managers and decision-makers do not function solely within the simple paradigm of 'What works?'. Their questions more often take the form: 'What combination of interventions works where, for which sub-populations, in which environmental circumstances, in which combinations?' As [Porter \(2010\)](#) argues, policymakers often want research that shows how impacts can be achieved. They are seeking evidence that demonstrates how things should be done differently or that offer practical guidance. How policymakers define 'useful' research will often depend on whether the evidence helps them solve a policy problem. This suggests that decision-makers and researchers need to negotiate ways of meeting halfway in this process, which [Greenhalgh and Russell \(2005\)](#) describe as "*a new rationality of policy-making*" (p40).

But there is also a need to go beyond just engaging with policy actors themselves. [Dutta \(2012\)](#) argues that researchers are knowledge producers and communicators, and "*if they view their role to policy, they should be prepared to engage with stakeholders affected by policy issues and expose their findings to human interaction, review and scrutiny by others*" (p9).

#### **4. Your research needs to have impact! What can this mean?**

Realising this kind of positive transformative change is for many researchers and research institutions at the heart of what they do. In recent years, the demand on the research community to ensure the impact of research findings on the decisions, actions and behaviours of policymakers and practitioners has become an increasing priority. This has been driven in part by growing funder requirements and expectations ([Sumner et al. 2009](#)), and contested value for money agendas ([Chambers 2014](#)). [Shaxson \(2012\)](#) discusses how researchers are being put under increasing pressure to demonstrate impact and examines what that impact could look like, highlighting four very useful points:

1. Clear research evidence does not necessarily lead to clear policy messages. It can be better to focus on the quality of the evidence produced by getting it into debates, rather than trying to demonstrate impact in terms of any concrete outcomes on policy.
2. Be careful how you define 'policy relevance'. Although the term is frequently used, it has can have multiple dimensions depending on the type of research being conducted. Often, as Shaxson notes, policy relevance is not an either/or situation; it's a multidimensional and constantly shifting challenge.
3. Be realistic about what can be achieved – think breadth of impact rather than depth. Yes, research can influence policy development, but it is important to recognise that it can also affect the process by which policies are designed and implemented, and the relationships between researchers and other stakeholders. Pankhurst ([\(2012\)](#)) goes further by arguing that it is probably less important to ensure that research leads to policy change than to support local systems for reviewing and evaluating evidence, which may allow decision-makers to be better able to set that evidence in the context of what needs to be done.
4. Be clear whether you are practising research communication or advocacy. As shown in the diagram below ([Shaxton \(2012\)](#)) there should be a clear line between these two activities. Researchers and organisations need to decide where they sit, especially on which side of the line and how far to the right of the diagram they wish to operate, and to be very open about this from the outset.



## 5. I have completed my research: So, now what?

As presented earlier, the generation of credible research is in itself insufficient if you are looking to influence change. Your research methods and results need to be intelligible to non-researchers, sufficiently digestible, and have results clearly interpreted and translatable for the target audience. Many decision-makers, especially policy-related professionals, often

have little time for engaging with research and if the results are ambiguous and do not offer clear interpretation of the findings, they will be discarded, ignored or misinterpreted ([Porter 2010](#)). The produced research usually needs to be packaged in a variety of products to make it more accessible. One can use working papers, briefing papers, policy briefs, talking head videos, etc. as a way of making a much larger, more detailed research report more useful for the audience at hand.

### **Using policy briefs to communicate your research**

Built of the assumption that policy informed by evidence is more likely to lead to better development outcomes ([Newman et al. 2012](#)), we would like to explore the use of the policy brief as one research communication approach. A policy brief is a concise summary of a particular issue, the policy options to deal with it, and some recommendations on the best option. It is aimed at government policymakers and others who are interested in formulating or influencing policy as they take decisions in complex policy processes ([Beynon et al. 2012](#)).

There are a couple of things to think about when you are developing policy briefs:

1. **Who is your target audience?** Are they policy-related advisors? If not, do you need to develop a policy brief or is another knowledge product more suitable?
2. **What are your intended policy impacts?** What kind of change are you hoping to see as a result of your policy brief? Are you simply looking to create awareness on a policy issue, influence decisions around programming and funding, or looking for a change in behaviour?
3. **The audience may not be health and development specialists.** The language needs to be well-thought through without overly simplifying your key messages. The use of jargon and technical terminology needs to be avoided if possible or at least clearly explained.

**Table 1: Policy brief structure**

|                         |  |
|-------------------------|--|
| Executive statement     | Designed to give an overview of the content of the brief with an emphasis on capturing the attention of the reader.  |
| Introduction            | Explains the importance and urgency of the issue and creates curiosity about the rest of the brief. It gives an outline with the structure for the brief and an overview of the conclusions or the direction of the rest of the brief.   |
| Methodology             | Aims to strengthen the credibility of the brief by explaining how the findings and recommendations were arrived at, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Description of the issue and context of the investigation;</li> <li>• Description of the research and analysis activities;               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- What methods were used to conduct the study?</li> <li>- Who undertook the data collection and analysis?</li> </ul> </li> </ul> |
| Results and conclusions | Provides an overview of the findings/facts constructed around the line(s) of argument behind the policy recommendations moving from general and specific information. Base the conclusions on evidence, data and findings with clear, balanced and defensible assertions.  |
| Implications            | Attempts to explore what policy changes or actions the results point to, based on the evidence provided. It is less direct than recommendations and useful to include if direct advice is not requested or welcome.  |

|                                 |   |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Recommendations                 | Highlights what you as a researcher think should happen, based on the evidence presented. It is useful to make the recommendations actionable, with some precise steps of what should happen next, so the key target audience have some guidance on steps forward.  |
| References and useful resources | It is important to cite and clearly signpost the sources in your briefing to provide credibility in your analysis and recommendations. This gives authority and weight to your product. Readers generally find additional resources useful to have if they would like to undertake more detailed reading around the subject area. |

Source: [Knezovich \(2014\)](#)

Additional points to consider:

1. Policy briefs are two, four or a maximum of eight pages (1,200, 2,200 or 4,000 words);
2. Policymakers often spend around 30–60 minutes reading information on an issue;
3. Design can help highlight key facts or concepts;
4. The policy brief should be focused, succinct and make *appropriate* recommendations;
5. In addition to having solid content, policy briefs should also be *visually engaging*;
6. Accessibility is important – the style should be professional - not academic. Remember your target audience. Accessibility includes making sure that technical language is well explained.

## 6. What tools can one use in achieving influence and driving change?

There are a range of research uptake and communication tools and approaches that can be used to better support you in getting your evidence and your knowledge products (such as a policy brief) out in the health and development practice and policy world. As noted later in the chapter, any approach used should be developed as part of a wider action plan. There are different activities that a researcher can undertake with the research evidence that has been produced:

1. Sharing information: primarily one-directional - less need to capture feedback;
2. Engagement: when you might be looking for feedback or to stimulate conversation on an issue;
3. Collaboration: seeking to work in with other actors towards a shared objective;
4. Storing/capturing information: in ways that facilitate easy future access.

Multiple tools and a mixture of facilitation techniques can help to foster effective knowledge-sharing of research evidence. Annex table 2 outlines a range of tools, with examples from the health sector, that can be used by researchers in developing a research uptake strategy.

### Example: Briefing papers to communicate research findings

The aim of the [Joto Afrika briefing series](#), co-produced between multiple organisations, was to help people (particularly decision-makers) understand the issues, constraints and opportunities that poor people face in adapting to climate change and escaping poverty, by translating information in a way that would meet the demands of stakeholder groups, including communities, researchers, and policymakers.

In an evaluation survey over 90 per cent of 319 respondents noted experiencing personal learning while 45 per cent indicated taking action in their own work (beyond just learning) as a result of reading *Joto Afrika*. Many provided examples of that action. During the UN Climate Change Conference in Copenhagen (COP15), the then Kenyan Minister of Water and Irrigation, Dr Charity Ngilu, used *Joto* Issue 2 on water issues during her speech and pointed out a case study from her home area that featured a water harvesting project. Since then she has implemented various water projects in several parts of Kenya.

#### **Example: use audio-visual tools to bring your research to life**

Digital storytelling can capture 'stories of change' that have emerged either directly or indirectly from a research process. Building on the briefing series described above, a [photo-audio story](#) was produced. This is a form of digital storytelling where photographs are presented alongside a narrative (usually in the first person) giving communities a voice to tell their story.

The use of talking heads is another visually stimulating and engaging approach to getting an expert to explain why the research or key issue is important. In this example, [Dr David Heymann](#) discusses new disease threats and the most effective ways to address them

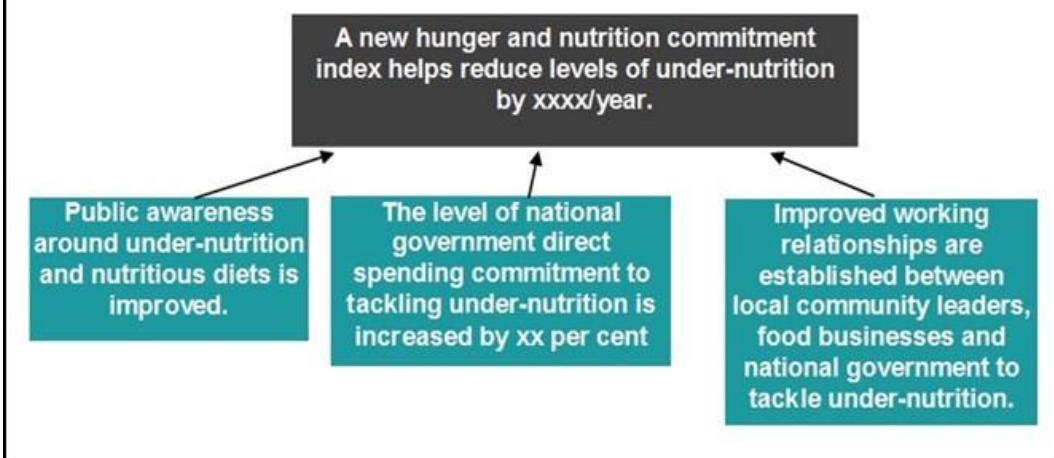
Audio podcasts can also be a useful tool to share key messages about the research. [This podcast](#) from the London International Development Centre (LIDC) focuses on the development of assessment tools for impact evaluation of malaria control for children in Mali and Senegal.

## **7. Setting engagement and influencing goals and objectives**

Despite the complexity, effective action is possible ([Jones et al. 2012](#)) if researchers can involve both potential beneficiaries and other actors including project or programme managers, government officials, health practitioners and community leaders ([Douthwaite et al. 2008; Douthwaite 2007](#)). This section of the chapter will outline practical approaches and tools and tactics that can help researchers design effective influencing and engagement strategies in relation to their work, with a particular focus on how to identify, understand, prioritise and target key audiences.

Defining a clear and measurable engagement and influencing goal, underscored by some narrower objectives, is a critical first stage of the design of any influencing and engagement plan. These objectives need to be consistent and flow from the intervention *theory of change*, ([Vogel 2012](#)), as discussed in chapter 4. The goals and objectives could relate to an institutional or organisational priority, a research programme or project or a specific output such as a research report. They will help inform decisions around which particular organisations or individuals such as activists, NGOs or government officials you seek to engage with and influence, and how, in order to achieve the change you want to see.

**Figure 2: Engagement and influencing goals**



## 8. Understanding your audiences and their operating environment

If researchers aim to engage in dialogue through structured processes, experience has shown that careful planning is required to clarify intentions, select who to engage with, when to engage, and how best to do so ([Dutta 2012:9-15](#)). Once you have your engagement and influencing goal and objectives, you can start to think about which individuals and organisations will be critical in helping you achieve them. Thinking beyond individuals and organisations in isolation, and taking into account the broader international and national political, social, economic and cultural environments they are operating in and the power dynamics and the relationships between you and your audiences and their relationships with each other is critical ([Court et al. 2004](#)). Demonstrating this understanding in your engagement and influencing tools and outputs will be critical to establishing credibility amongst your key audiences, and ensuring the uptake of your research findings.

### ***The stakeholder mapping process***

There are various stakeholder mapping tools that can be used to help researchers identify and prioritise the audiences that they will need to engage with and influence in order to achieve their policy-influencing and engagement goals and objectives. The following diagram outlines the general stages of the mapping process that need to be undertaken.

Figure 3: Stakeholder mapping process



In relation to your influencing goals and objectives:

- **Identify** stakeholders (individuals, organisations);
- **Categorise** stakeholders by type (government, media, donors);
- **Map** relationships and links between stakeholders;
- **Rank** stakeholders (by influence, power, alignment, interest, attitude);
- **Analyse** stakeholders' positions, perspectives, links and relationships, how you might want them to change, and what this might mean for your strategies to engage audiences;
- **Prioritise** your key audiences.

As discussed in chapter 5, stakeholder mapping should be an ongoing process throughout the implementation period. The process needs to reflect the dynamic spaces where relationships and power balances are constantly shifting, and needs to be reviewed and updated on a regular basis.

#### Example: Participatory Impact Pathways Analysis

The Participatory Impact Pathways Analysis ([STEPS Centre undated](#)) offers researchers the opportunity to come together with partners, beneficiaries of their research and other key stakeholders, including government officials and practitioners to define and visualise how they are going to achieve their policy engagement goal. In 2013, the Institute of Development of Studies working with Practical Action, and funded as part of the International Development Research Centre's (IDRC) Think Tank Initiative's Policy Engagement and Communications Programme hosted a workshop for South Asian think tanks. As part of this workshop the think tanks, some of whom were

more research-focused and some of whom were more advocacy- and policy-orientated, worked to define their own institutional engagement and influencing goal and undertook a PIPA exercise in relation to this goal. The results, including the impact stories of pathways to change that the groups came up with, were hugely varied and offer an interesting insight into the PIPA process ([Georgalakis 2014](#)). The discussions they had as part of the process of listing, grouping and analysing their stakeholders were extremely valuable.

### ***Stakeholder mapping tools***

There are a number of matrix and network mapping tools that can be used to undertake the stakeholder mapping process. The following links provide detailed explanations of some of these tools:

- [Power/Interest Matrix](#)
- [Alignment, Interest and Influence Matrix](#)
- [Participatory Impact Pathways Analysis](#)
- [Net Mapping](#)

## **9. Developing your engagement and influencing plan**

As part of the stakeholder mapping process you will have already started to think about how you can reach some of your audiences in terms of their relationships to you and your organisation, and also in terms of their relationships with each other. An effective engagement and influencing strategy will need to include a number of essential questions in relation to a specific audience group including:

### ***HOW do they access information and who or what influences them?***

Different audiences access information and evidence in a variety of ways. A recent study by the University of Manchester of how UK civil servants engage with academic research and expertise ([Talbot and Talbot 2014](#)) found that they preferred research information that had been 'pre-digested' in the form of a briefing or a media report. However, they also found that just over half of the respondents were accessing more traditional academic outputs such as peer-reviewed journals.

### ***WHO is best placed to communicate with them?***

This question helps to focus thinking on the relationships and leverage that exist within your organisation in relation to your target audiences and about the capacity and resources you have to act upon these. [Benyon et al. \(2012\)](#) consider the effect of a policy brief that included an opinion piece from a sector-recognised expert on changing behaviours and prompting actions. The study found that including the opinion led to an increase in sharing the brief more widely, but not necessarily in changing the existing perceptions and attitudes of readers.

It is important to note that others outside your organisation, such as research partners, might be better placed to act as knowledge brokers or knowledge intermediaries to communicate with a specific audience. This may lead to questions about whether they have capacity to act in this way, irrespective of how well placed they are in terms of physical location and access. There is an interesting case study of a Knowledge Broker programme implemented in Burkina Faso to strengthen the way that scientific knowledge was made available to health practitioners and policymakers ([Dagenais et al. 2015](#)).

## ***WHEN is the best time to engage with them?***

The response to this question should be shaped by internal factors such as the research timeline programme or moments in an institutional strategy, and by debates and policy windows in the external environment. The Overseas Development Institute (ODI) ROMA guide to policy influence and policy engagement ([ODI 2014](#)) outlines some useful steps to help map the external environment in relation to national government-driven policy formulation and change. However, it is important to note that national governments and the formal policymaking process are only one part of how change happens, and you will need to look to debates and activities being led by multilateral organisations, community activists, local governments and NGOs to develop a fuller picture to guide your own timeline of engagement.

## ***WHAT do you think the best tool or tactic will be to reach them?***

A wide range of different tools and tactics will be required to target and reach different audiences, which will need to be used in combination. In trying to ensure effective capturing and sharing of learning from a UNICEF and IDS social protection research programme, researchers found that “multiple media was required” ([Perkins and Batchelor 2011:7](#)).

## ***WHAT is the expected outcome – the change in behaviour or policy that you wish to see?***

It is important to ensure that your activities remain focused and that you can measure how successful they are. It could be useful, where possible, to include some broad measures of success within these, such as percentage increases in spending, Minister of Health attends and speaks at an event, citations in media or parliamentary debates.

The following table sets out these questions and an example of how you might respond to them in relation to a particular audience that you have identified.

**Table 2: Policy-influencing and engagement plan example**

| Audience                                  | HOW do they access information and who or what influences them?   | WHO in the organisation or programme should communicate with them?  | WHEN is the best time to engage?  | WHAT do you think the best tool or tactic will be to reach them?  | WHAT is the expected outcome, change in behaviour or policy that you wish to see?  |
|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| Special Advisor to the Minister of Health | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Policy briefings</li><li>• Weekly MOH internal emails</li><li>• National newspapers and particular journalists</li><li>• University to which they have an affiliation</li><li>• Colleagues at the Finance/Treasury Department</li></ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Director of research organisation has an existing relationship</li><li>• Research partner based at university to which they have an affiliation</li></ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Over next six months in run up to national budget</li><li>• Prior to attendance at international meeting on nutrition</li></ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Cost analysis</li><li>• Briefing note in advance of meeting</li><li>• Face-to-face meeting</li><li>• Invitation to speak at country launch of new hunger and nutrition commitment index</li></ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Greater political will to tackle under-nutrition</li><li>• Increase in Ministry of Health direct spending on under-nutrition</li></ul> |

## 10. Assessing the success of your engagement activities

As the ODI ROMA guide mentioned above [highlights, traditional monitoring and evaluation approaches](#) “which rely on a simple feedback model with predefined indicators, collecting data and assessing progress towards pre-set objectives – are simply not adequate in the context of policy-influencing interventions” ([Young et al. 2014:44](#)). This is something that [Benyon et al. \(2012\)](#) reflect on in their study of the effectiveness of policy briefs. They highlight that the simple linear model of actors such as government officials receiving policy-relevant messages, taking action upon these messages, leading ultimately to improved lives, vary rarely plays out in real life. Changes in behaviour and attitudes are also difficult to capture, especially through quantitative data. This is where impact stories and narratives can help illustrate your reach, influence and impact.

However, practical steps towards measuring the success and impact of influencing and engagement activities are possible and could include the following:

1. **Review your stakeholder map:** have the positions of stakeholders, in terms of their relationship to the research, your organisation or to each other, changed, and can this be attributed to your policy-influencing and engagement objectives?
2. **Measure your success against your defined indicators:** how far have you been successful in some of the broad indicators of success outlined in the expected outcomes section of your engagement plan? [Scott and Munslow \(2015\)](#) highlight some useful approaches to tracking research and policy conversations in online spaces.
3. **Capture the results of your activities in impact stories:** attribution in relation to policy-influencing is complex and difficult. Quantitative measures are one part of this process. However, using narrative in the form of the written word or multimedia content ([FHS 2012](#)), can help bring your stories of change to life.

## Annex

**Table 1: Selected bodies of work on research evidence**

| Body of work  | Overview of research questions   | Examples of research actors   |
|---|--|---|
| <i>1. Approaches and frameworks for connecting research and policy</i>                  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What processes mediate and facilitate the use of evidence and knowledge in policymaking?</li> <li>• How does evidence contribute to effective policymaking?</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Overseas Development Institute RAPID framework of research – policy linkages</i> (<a href="#">Court and Young 2003</a>). Key influences identified: (1) Political context and institutions (2) Credibility and communication of the evidence (3) Links, influence and legitimacy (4) External influences.</li> <li>• <i>The British Government Cabinet Office</i> views the use of evidence as one of eight core competencies of professional policymaking (<a href="#">Cabinet Office 1999</a>).</li> </ul>  |
| <i>2. Assessing the impact of research and research communication</i>                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What factors seem to matter (or not matter) for increasing the impact of development research on policy?</li> <li>• What role does the communication of research play?</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The <i>International Development Research Centre (IDRC)</i> has analysed different methodologies for assessing the impact of research on policy and examining the challenges of assessing impact (<a href="#">Card.en 2009</a>).</li> <li>• The <i>UK Department for International Development (DFID)</i> commissioned working papers and developed strategies /guidance notes in the area of research communications and research uptake (<a href="#">DFID 2008</a>; <a href="#">Yaron and Shaxson 2008</a>).</li> </ul>  |
| <i>3. Theories of policy influence and models of policy change and policy processes</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What are the processes by which policy decisions are made?</li> <li>• How do political processes determine decisions?</li> <li>• Models of the policy process contain assumptions in relation to how evidence is used in policymaking.</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <a href="#">Lindquist (2001)</a> The nature of decision-making can vary considerably.</li> <li>• <a href="#">Weiss (1979)</a> How policymakers engage with and ‘use’ evidence: Enlightenment model; Problem-solving model.</li> <li>• <a href="#">Stone (2001)</a> Bargaining and coalition formation lead to policy formulation.</li> <li>• <a href="#">Roe (1991)</a> Dominant narratives can shape problem-definition and open or close off political space.</li> </ul>   |
| <i>4. Models and guidance for research utilisation</i>                                  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How is research consumed by policymakers?</li> <li>• What are the different factors that influence how policymakers demand and utilise research?</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <a href="#">Weiss (1979)</a> six models that explain different types of research utilisation: Knowledge-driven; problem-solving; interactive; enlightenment; political; tactical.</li> <li>• <a href="#">Stone (2002)</a> outlines 12 perspectives for improving research utilisation. These can be summarised into three categories of explanation; supply-side, demand-led and policy currents.</li> <li>• <a href="#">Caplan (1979)</a> ‘Two Communities’ theory of under-utilisation of research focuses on the cultural gap between researchers and policymakers. Proposes two types of research use: instrumental and conceptual use.</li> </ul> |

Source: Adapted from [Porter \(2010\)](#): tables 1 and 3.

**Table 2: Tools for developing a research uptake strategy**

| Sharing information  | Collaboration                       | Engagement  | Storing/capturing  |
|--|-------------------------------------|---|--|
| Face to face   | Face to face                        | Face to face  | Repositories: e.g. <a href="#">HighWire Press</a>        |
| Email  | Wikis                               | Skype   | Databases: e.g. <a href="#">InfoSci-Medical Database</a> |
| email lists: e.g. <a href="#">WHO email listserve</a>                                | Google docs                         | Teleconferencing  | <a href="#">Social bookmarking</a>                       |
| Discussion lists: e.g. <a href="#">Healthcare for all by 2015</a>                    | Skype<br><a href="#">Confluence</a> | E-discussions: e.g. <a href="#">UN-moderated e-discussion on Global Public Health</a> | Websites   |
| Online communities/communities of practice (CoP): e.g. <a href="#">Global Health</a> | <a href="#">Storify</a>             | Blogs   | Minutes  |
| Twitter (#health, #GlobalDev)  | <a href="#">Google hangouts</a>     | Online communities: e.g. <a href="#">Healthboards</a>                                 | <a href="#">Open data</a>                                |
| Web gathering  | <a href="#">Moodle</a>              | Twitter   | Tagging  |
| Webinars   |                                     | Webinars  |  |
| Moodle   |                                     | Learning modules: e.g. <a href="#">Canadian Network on Health in Development</a>      |  |
| Blogs  |                                     |   |  |
| Websites   |                                     |   |  |
| Open data  |                                     |   |  |

## Other useful online health-related resources

[Evidence-informed Policy Network](#) (with WHO)

[Exploring the Impact of Research Communications – What Difference Does a Policy Brief Make?](#)

[Loewenson, T. \(2014\) Annotated Bibliography of E-Platforms Used in Participatory and Peer Exchange and Learning](#), Harare: Equinet,

[Overseas Development Institute ROMA guide to policy influence and policy engagement](#)

[ResUp MeetUp Symposium and Training Exchange 2015](#)

[Research Communicators: Let's Talk Politics, Shall We?](#)

[Research Gate](#) Research sharing website

[K4Health Research Utilization Toolkit](#)

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