CREATING AN EVIDENCE BASED ADVOCACY CAMPAIGN IN THE EaP COUNTRIES

By the International Centre for Democratic Transition

Index

Chapter 1: Understanding Advocacy

In many situations we encounter every day, groups and individuals attempt to exert influence over others and to persuade others to see things their way. Advocacy is not only relevant in constructing an advocacy campaign, but is also relevant in our daily lives. For example, lawyers are trying to convince judges of the innocence or guilt of the defendant in question. In the advertising world, producers are trying to convince consumers to see why the ownership of their product would be useful or beneficial for the consumer. As the focus in this guidebook will be on advocacy as a process in the policy-making field, it is important to understand how the term is used in this context.

Advocacy as a policy-influencing process

In the policy-making field, advocacy can be used in different ways. However, the ultimate goal of advocacy is always to influence decision-makers' opinion or the public's opinion in such a way that they accept your idea of what good policy should look like and hopefully take the steps in implementing your good policy. No matter what type of advocacy is used, the process always contains a number of core characteristics. Any advocacy campaign that does not take the following points into consideration is bound to miss its target.

- Advocacy is a long-term process
- Advocacy is context-dependent
- Advocacy is a carefully planned strategy
- Advocacy requires organization
- Advocacy requires communication

<u>What types of advocacy are there and what is their relationship?</u>

Because the term 'advocacy' is used in a variety of contexts, there are many types of advocacy. Also, many types of advocacy can have different names which in the end mean the same. Therefore, there is no clear consensus about what the exact types of advocacy are. However, some clear distinctions between different types of advocacy can be made.

The first distinction that can be made is between *direct* and *indirect* advocacy. In the case of direct advocacy, individuals or organizations aim to influence decision-makers. In the case of indirect advocacy, individuals or organizations aim to influence public opinion, which in turn should strengthen their cause and in turn influential decision-makers into changing the policy. In this distinction, the target of the advocacy campaign is central.

The second distinction can be made between *citizen-advocacy* and *self-advocacy*. In the case of citizen-advocacy, a cause is pleaded on behalf of a group of people. In the case of self-advocacy, an individual or a group is pleading its own cause. In this distinction, the agent of the advocacy campaign is the focal point.

Finally, the third important distinction is that between *rights-based advocacy* and *evidence-based advocacy*. In the case of rights-based advocacy, the aim is to influence policy-makers on the basis of a claim of a universal right. Human rights are often used by international organizations and CSO's to attempt to influence policy-makers to make policy more inclusive. Evidence-based advocacy is based on a claim that policy change would be good because evidence suggests that different policy would work better than the current policy. Therefore, this form of advocacy is based on research data instead of universal values.

In the case of *direct evidence-based advocacy*, the target is the policy-makers themselves, who are to be convinced of the necessity change through concrete evidence sustained by data. In this case advocates can offer advice on which change may lead to better policy, based on the evidence provided by other cases.

In the case of *indirect evidence-based advocacy*, the target is shifted to the public opinion

and other stakeholders. Through media campaigns and public events the advocate can offer evidence to the public as to why policy change is needed. When the advocates manage to convince the public opinion of their cause, policy-makers may in turn be influenced to change policy.

In the case of *direct rights-based advocacy*, the target is again the policy-makers. However, in this case they are to be convinced on the basis of rights. This means that the advocates act more in the role of a lobbyist than as an advisor.

Finally, the *indirect rights-based advocacy* targets again the public opinion and other stakeholders, based on certain rights. In this case the advocates attempt to spur the public opinion by use of activist approaches.

What type of advocacy will be the focus of this guidebook?

In this guidebook the main focus will be on the use of evidence-based advocacy. Nevertheless, as advocacy can become a very complex process, other forms of advocating should also be taken into consideration. Finding the right form of advocacy depends on various context-dependent elements such as the policy you want to change, how different actors within the process might react and the skills and capacities required by the organization. Therefore, when necessary, other types of advocacy will also be considered.

What is the importance of evidence-based advocacy?

As previously mentioned, evidence-based advocacy can be an important tool for bringing about policy change. When sound evidence is presented in a convincing argument, it will be hard to ignore the claim for policy change. However, the quality of the evidence provided depends on a number of things, such as: the quality of the data used for evidence-gathering, the analytical skill of the interpreter and the communication capabilities of the advocate. These issues will be dealt with at a later stage.

Chapter 2: the Components of Evidence-Based Advocacy

An overview of evidence-based advocacy

Now that we have defined what evidence-based advocacy is and how it is related to other

types of advocacy, it is time to go into more detail on its characteristics. This chapter will describe the central components of evidence-based advocacy; therefore, it is of theoretical nature. The third chapter will describe in detail on how to launch a successful advocacy campaign.

Component 1: The Issue

The first step of any advocacy process starts with having something to advocate for. Steps must be taken to prioritize issues and to address the most important ones first. In the case of evidence-based advocacy, detailed knowledge of various aspects of the issue is necessary to understand the causes and the problems of the issue at hand. This means that before starting the research on the causes and possible solutions of a certain problem, it is necessary to have a basic overview of the situation.

Component 2: The Evidence

Not surprisingly, evidence forms the central component of evidence-based advocacy. The strength of the evidence presented determines strength of the advocacy message as a whole. The evidence in evidence-based advocacy relates to both the issue (component 1) and the message (component 4), as it concerns both research into the cause of the problem and looking for eventual solutions. Furthermore, research into the causes of the issue and the solutions will also point out who is responsible for which part and who has the possibility to change it.

The first step in gathering evidence concerns the determination of useful indicators that say more about the different variables that play a role in the issue. Setting the indicators also involves defining the concepts into measurable terms. This is crucial in the world of policy-making where vague terms are often used.

A number of things need to be addressed about the data-collection phase. First, there is a broad academic debate about which approach for data-collection is the correct one. Some academics are convinced that qualitative methods are the only right way for collecting data, while others are arguing for quantitative methods. Another group takes a position in which they argue that both should be used in order to combine the best elements of both worlds. For those who are interested in research methodology of the social sciences, there are a number of handbooks available.

Second, while the discussion about which form of data collection is better is not the subject of this guidebook, it is important to discuss some of the criteria of what is considered to

be valuable, usable data. The two most important criteria for assessing data quality are *validity* and *reliability*. Acquired data is valid when the measuring tool used is really measuring what it is supposed to measure. Also, it is important that you rule out any other variables that might come into play, or that one at least accounts for this. In order to determine whether your data is valid or not, you can ask yourself the following questions:

- How representative is the sample for the entire population? In other words, is it possible to generalize on the basis of the data provided?
- Is the data complete or are there important measurements missing?
- Is the data-collection and –interpretation free from values, or are the researchers biased?

Data is reliable when the same tests produce the same results. In order to check if your data is reliable or not, there are a number of tests that can be done:

- It is possible to let different observers collect and analyze the data, and to see if they come to the same conclusions.
- It is possible to do a test twice or more often, to see if the results are stable.

Component 3: The Goals and Objectives

When the issue at hand has been thoroughly analyzed, it is time to determine the goals and the objectives of the advocacy message. While goals and objectives are often used interchangeably, there are some clear differences between the two terms. The clearest distinction is that the goals are usually seen as the long-term project, while the objectives are seen as concrete ways through which the goal can be achieved.

In order for any advocacy message to be successful, the objectives through which the goals are to be achieved have to be reasonable and within reach. Using the SMART-criteria is a sensible option to determine whether there is a chance of succeeding in fulfilling the objectives. In order for objectives to fulfill The SMART-criteria they have to be (figure 2.1):
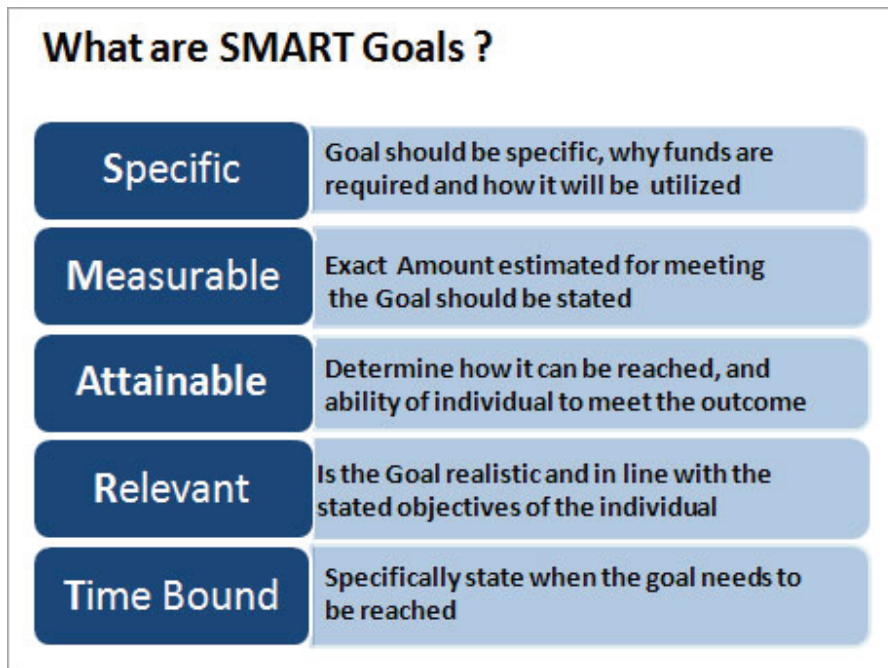
Figure 2.1: the SMART-criteria

First, in order for objectives to be specific, they have to be well defined. This means that there has to be a clear consensus about what the objective is. Therefore, when stating the objective, it is important to make sure that there are no vague terms which can be understood in different ways. Also, it is important to use verbs that indicate specific actions, which do not leave any doubt about how the objectives should be met. Second, objectives should be measurable as it is important to be able to track the change over time. The indicators that have been developed in the issue-defining phase should be helpful in providing guidance about how objectives can be measured. In order for objectives to be measurable also means that any qualitative data should be quantified. Third, objectives should be achievable. Setting an objective that is not achievable in the end is a pointless venture. There are a number of factors that can be taken into account when determining whether an objective is feasible or not. Does the advocate have access to sufficient resources? Is the scope of the objective within reach of the organizations logistical possibilities? Fourth, the objectives should be relevant. Any objective that does not contribute to reaching the goal is not worth setting. Also, relevant objectives are more likely to get support from other actors involved. Finally, the fifth criterion is for objectives to be time-bound. Clear deadlines help put pressure on actions, and make sure that everybody knows what has to be done at which date. However, these deadlines have to be set at a realistic point in time. Deadlines that are difficult to meet will have negative consequences for the whole process, while deadlines that lay too far

ahead in the future can lead to inaction.

Component 4: The Advocate

The advocate is the messenger that sends out the message to the recipients. This puts the advocate in the center of the process, because the impact of the advocacy message on the recipient stands or falls with the ability of the advocate.

As mentioned, advocacy can be carried by individuals as well as groups. The focus of this guidebook is mainly on groups; however, the individual skills of people within the organization are not to be ignored. The strength of advocating as a group is that it is possible to cover up weaknesses of individual group members, and that people can be assigned clear tasks within the process. Therefore, this section will be divided into two; one dealing with individual skills and one dealing with capacities as an organization. Important individual skills that come to mind are the following (Bear in mind, this list is far from extensive):

- Analytical skills
- Writing skills
- Public speech skills
- Argumentation skills
- Communication skills
- Networking skills
- Monitoring skills
- Evaluating skills

As can be seen, many of these skills are linked to one or more components of the advocacy process. For example, the analytical skills play a central role during the evidence-gathering phase. Written and oral communication skills form an important part of sending out the message. Argumentation skills are necessary to make sure that your message is convincing. Communication skills and networking skills can determine whether or not possible recipients are willing to listen to you or work together with you. Finally, monitoring and evaluating skills are necessary to determine whether your advocacy was successful, and if not, to determine what has to be changed in order to make it successful. This complete package of skills is not very likely to be present in a single individual. Furthermore, in this guidebook the focus is more on the

advocacy process from the perspective of an organization. Within an organization it is crucial to look at which person is suitable for which task. How to determine this will be dealt with in the next chapter.

With regard to organizations as advocates, it is important for an organization as a whole to possess certain capacities in order to carry out the advocacy process. As with advocating on an individual level, having a good message is not enough. Organizational capacities can include the following:

- The capacities to sustain the long-term process
- The capacities to adapt to the context
- The capacities to define and approach stakeholders
- The capacities to organize in an effective way
- The capacities to identify goals and objectives and construct the right strategies

As was the case with the individual skills, this list is far from extensive. However, it does cover many of the important aspects of a successful advocacy campaign. First, organizations should keep in mind that advocacy is a long-term process, which means that time and resources have to be allocated accordingly in order to properly maintain and facilitate the campaign. Second, the context in which the advocacy process takes place is subject to change, as elections and other factors that are out of the control of the organizations intervene. Third, it is important for organizations to be able to calculate who will be effected by the advocacy process, what their interests are and how they can be involved into the process. Fourth, the organization itself has to be led in an effective way, as a lack of clarity is bound to damage the process. Finally, organizations have to be able to clearly define their goals and objectives, and to find the right strategy for moving ahead.

What is important to keep in mind is that no individual or organization possesses the perfect skills and capacities. Luckily, both of these aspects can be improved upon. How this might work is something that will be dealt with in the next chapter.

Component 5: The Message

What is a message and why is it important? A message is a straightforward statement that

encapsulates our advocacy objectives and goals. It includes what, why and how we want to achieve in our campaign. Formulating our message is a time-consuming effort. The language should be plain, meaning that we have to be absolutely clear about what we want to say so it is easily understandable. The advocacy message should be planned in a way that the targeted audience would understand and be convinced about our ideas. Communicating the ideas is very important as the aim is to change public opinion. Since we want to engage the targeted audience, we need an in-depth audience profile, for whom we will shape our message. Then we will select the appropriate advocacy activities and communication tools. All campaigns have their risks, so strategic risk elements have to be analyzed and responses worked out for the challenges.

If we see advocacy as a means of getting a certain group of people to adopt our ideas, the starting point should be to know this group of people as thoroughly as possible. The profile of the targeted group will be our guide in the whole process of communicating our message. According to Fenton Communication (2009), it will allow us to create messages that will resonate with them and even touch upon certain emotional aspects as hopes or fears concerning the issue at hand.[1] Target audiences of public policy issues are usually of mixed background, who are not interested in a deep research, but the implications of the findings. So we will have to develop an argument from their perspective, including the benefits of the proposed change, and also "threats" of what would happen without the proposed changes. Young and Quinn (2012) suggest that in formulating the message, the followings should be considered: the message should be policy relevant, provide practical solutions, should be accessible, memorable and portable.

When we have formulated the message, we can start thinking about how to make the target audience accept it as their own. In planning our activities, the following should be considered: what we want to achieve, what are the obstacles, how much involvement with the audience is needed, what type of activities are needed, are these consistent with the general principles of our organization, and how long the campaign is going to be. To get our message through we need to find communication tools appropriate for the target audience. They should be recognizable, commonly used, provide information that suits the target audience and they should be easily accessible. Essentially there are three types of target audiences: the experts, the informed non-experts, and the general public. The first two would be interested in more detailed messages, such as policy reports and conference presentations, while the general public receives more basic information through the media, social networking and public hearings.

Having reached this point, we should assess the risks of our campaign, paying special

attention to the negative reaction of the opponents you will inevitably encounter. We should always consider the potential risks of our actions. When formulating our message, it is also important to try to avoid producing such positions or evidence that would seem to support a position with which we do not want to be associated with. This is a very important step in planning our campaign, for at this stage we might begin to reconsider our objective, message, etc.

Besides the risks, we should also take into account challenges and responses from supporters and opponents. We should be prepared to defend our point of view and work out how to manage predictable responses and even get ready for irrational ones. We must not forget that that advocacy is not about presenting some findings, but a two-way process in which our message will develop through a dialogue with the audience.

Component 6: The Recipients

An advocacy campaign usually aims at bringing about changes in the legislative system, public opinion, or initiating some transformation of the social environment. To be successful in our campaign we must identify our key actors involved. This process is called stakeholder analysis, a process which will be explained in detail later on in the guidebook.

So we must begin by identifying members of the five basic types of actors involved in a campaign. These are: our allies (they are people who for any reason are already supporters of our cause – they are active and do not require additional positive influencing in favor of our issue at hand); beneficiaries (they are the people who will benefit from the changes brought about by a successful campaign – they can also be considered allies, but are rather more passive); opponents (they are the people who are prone to actively opposing our cause. The PHR Tookit (2010) states that it is important to try and keep opposition as neutral as possible); decision makers or primary targets (they are the people who have the authority to bring about the change we wish to achieve); influencers or secondary targets (they are the ones who due to their position, knowledge, relation, etc. have the power to influence decision makers).

Now that we have mapped out the actors of our campaign, we can identify our targeted audience. First we should consider the primary targets. Although, especially if we aim at a legislative change, we think of institutions, the bodies, organizations that represent institutionalized power, a target is never an institution, as it is impossible to exert influence over an impersonal entity. Our target is always a person or a group of people, who have the power to respond to or act upon our demand for change. Nevertheless, changing the law may not be

enough to bring about a change in practice. When we want to achieve a change in the society at large, we might wish to target figures of less formal nature but who have influence over large segments of the society, such as religious leaders, public figures, celebrities, the media, etc.

Secondary targets are also of vital importance, as they affect the opinions of the primary targets. They include relatives, business associates, staff, and advisors – formal or informal – of the primary target. They may also include people or groups opposing our aims.

When identifying our target, Save The Children (2007) states that our basic question should be: Who has the power to bring about the desired change? Answering of this question will again involve answering five more specific questions: Who are the primary targets of the field we wish to influence? At what institutional level is the actual decision made? What is the process of arriving to a decision? Who are the primary and the secondary targets in the specific issue? From among the targets – either primary or secondary – who are supportive, who are opposed to it, and who are undecided? When identifying our target, it is also important to keep in mind that influential power may not always be invested in the visible mechanisms of decision making processes. There are also hidden, behind the scenes factors influencing the process, and even invisible ones, the norms and beliefs, traditions, and preconceptions behind a policy or practice. If we only focus on the visible elements, and exclude the others, we will limit our chances of achieving the desired aim of our campaign.

Component 7: The Monitoring Process

We should plan monitoring and evaluation right at the start of our campaign, but the strategy can be developed later. The reason for this, UNICEF (2010) argues that the advocacy campaigns often last long while data from monitoring and evaluation may be needed sooner. During the course of the campaign our strategies can shift and monitoring and evaluation are tools to make successful adjustments. In an advocacy campaign monitoring and evaluation usually focuses on the process not the outcome, which means that partial achievements of goals will be recorded and as such the whole campaign will not be considered a failure. Monitoring is "the systematic and continuous assessment of the progress of a piece of work over time which checks that things are going to plan and enables adjustments to be made in a methodical way" (Water Aid 2007). Although monitoring our campaign may be a difficult task, we should not avoid it. It will tell us whether our plans and reality are in harmony or we should adjust as a result of new information or unexpected factors. If we take monitoring seriously we will be able to act

upon the first warning signs.

How should we go about monitoring? Indicators are essential elements in the process. An indicator is "a quantitative or qualitative factor or variable that provides a simple and reliable means to measure achievement, to reflect changes connected to an intervention, or help assess the performance of a development actor" (TASCO 2011). In order for an indicator to fulfil its purpose, we should agree on what we consider achievement. When formulating an indicator, we should think of what we want to measure, what changes should be initiated, who in the process should change, what time period are we talking about and what location. So if the indicators are well formulated, they will reflect on our performance and its quality on the one hand, and the changes of the targets, beneficiaries, and how we know these changes came about.

In order to achieve effective monitoring, we should create a system on the basis of the following questions: who wants to know, what they want to know and how to get the information to the people who need it. TASCO (2011) states that this means first we clarify our objectives and assess the ongoing process, then identify what should be monitored and select the indicators, and finally set up an information flow chart.

Component 8: The Evaluation

Evaluation is "the periodic assessment of the relevance, performance, efficiency and impact of a piece of work with respect to its stated objectives. An evaluation is usually carried out at some significant stage in the project's development, e.g. at the end of a planning period, as the project moves to a new phase, or in response to a particular critical issue" (Water Aid, 2007).

Evaluation measures to what extent our advocacy campaign was successful, and what we can learn from the process. TASCO (2011) claims that we can evaluate a campaign on the basis of five criteria: relevance (is the issue at hand still present), efficiency (whether the resources were used wisely), effectiveness (did we managed to realize the changes we planned), impact (did these changes changed something in the life of the target group), sustainability (are these changes lasting). Our evaluation is only useful if the targeted group participated effectively; if the initiated change and the strategies by which it is to be achieved was agreed on by everyone involved; and if adequate budgets were created for the various aspects of the campaign.

While in certain aspects they may be similar, monitoring and evaluation are different. Monitoring is a part of the management system, carried out by those working on the project. However, for really effective monitoring the targeted audience should also be involved in the

process. On the other hand, evaluation is concerned with the progress a project made such as completion of activities, achieving goals, planned and unexpected changes brought about by the project. Effective and useful evaluation is very much based on monitoring because it is difficult to evaluate progress if information is lacking with regards to the project's operation. Monitoring should be carried out during the whole project with regards to the everyday activities and the progress and changes achieved. The project staff and the targeted audience should participate in regular interviews and meetings. As a result, reports are produced for the management, the targeted audience and donors. On the other hand, evaluation is the periodic assessment of overall achievement and progress towards targets. Main participants of evaluation besides the targeted audience, the project staff and donors are external evaluators. At the end of the evaluation, Water Aid (2007) states that a written report is produced with recommendations for changes. Both monitoring and evaluation provide evidence whether the project has brought about the planned changes. However, the system of monitoring and evaluation is only useful if the evidence produced is credible and valid.

Chapter 3: Evidence-based advocacy and Good Governance

Introduction

In previous part of the publication the authors focused on the explanation of advocacy as a policy – influencing process and presented components and best practices of evidence - based advocacy. In this part we would like to focus on how to use evidence - based advocacy for the enhancement of abilities of the local civil society organizations for the promotion of the "good governance" and "rule of law". Although we will offer more practical view what everything can be done and support it by specific examples (short descriptions as well as case studies), we would also like to frame and explain more theoretical aspects, connected with key terms "good governance" and "rule of law" and we will focus on them within the context of evidence-based advocacy.

Rather broadly, advocacy is a strategy to influence policy makers (e.g. people with formal political power) to make a public policy change. International Centre for Policy Advocacy adopts advocacy perspective and examines the policymaking process and actors involved in it, perceiving advocacy mainly as „approaches adopted by organizations and coalitions... focused on influencing decisions of public policy".

Instead of having only one strict definition, it is more important to depict key ideas[1] which are common for different definitions, because it helps us to focus on important elements of advocacy. From this perspective and according to ICPA, advocacy is:

- *a strategy to affect policy change or action*
- *with primary audience of decision makers (influenced directly or indirectly)*
- *containing a process of persuasive communication (or media work)*
- *Conducted by groups of organized citizens.*

The word "public policy" mentioned as a key element in previous definition can be perceived as any government intervention, short-term or long-term, having impact on public, prepared and realized with the purpose to implement governments organizational or societal plans in a specific area. This may include strategies, plans, agendas; laws, regulatory measures, judicial decisions, budgeting and funding priorities, as well as implementation processes.

What is good governance?

There are various ways how public policies can be implemented, having impact on how societies can be governed. In this publication we will focus on good governance, because we think it is the area where advocacy can be useful. The advocacy offers one of the approaches how to achieve that public policies will respect needs of citizens and the ways how government executes the interventions will be in accordance with good governance principles.

But what exactly do we mean by "governance" and "good governance"? The term "good governance" is connected with the way how the power is exercised, how society is steered and how public administration is implementing the goals. It is quite a new term and it would be good to mention what preceed before it was adopted (Klimovsky 2010).

Traditional public administration (speaking about 2nd half of 20th century) was based on the principles of rational bureaucracy with strict rules and hierarchical approach, which started to be in conflict with finding new ways to improve public administration. **Public management** as an

---

[1]http://advocacyguide.icpolicyadvocacy.org/21-defining-policy-advocacy

approach which appeared in 1980´s brought economic aspects into governance and public policies preparation. The shift from hierarchical management to management based on performance, focused on results and managed through total quality management appeared.

At the end of 1990´s term **good governance** appeared in the language and concepts of institutions focused on development aid in developing countries (World Bank, OECD, International Monetary Fund etc) as a prerequisite of effective use of public money. Very quickly it started to be used not only in the world of development agencies, but also in the broader context, expressing not a structure or institution, but more a way of doing something, process framing relationships of the subjects involved.

A variation of good governance is **participatory governance**, focused on participation as one of the main principles of good governance. Nowadays it is a mainstream approach in democratic countries and the government from this point of view is perceived as an enabler of coexistence of various actors and facilitator of public policy processes. The reason for participation is necessity to involve diversity of citizens and organizations and to offer them active role in decision making, because – as stakeholders – they are influenced by these decisions.

The World Bank has elaborated main principles, which should be used for assessment of the presence of good governance in the society. Various sets of similar principles are used in various institutions, looking mostly at:

- who is involved in decision making, who has the voice and power
- how and why are decisions made
- who is accountable for making decisions
- how are decisions implemented and controlled.

This publication focuses on six main dimensions of good governance, as they are reported in the Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) project, which are voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence, government effectiveness, and regulatory quality, rule of law and control of corruption.

However, to be better able to understand the issue, it is good to mention also other dimensions or principles of good governance as they are presented in various publications. Principles of good governance used by various institutions differ mainly in specify and scope. United Nations Organization brings 8 elements of good governance – rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, orientation on consensus, equity and inclusiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, accountability and participation[2] (UN, 1998). European Commission presents 5 principles underlying European governance such as openness, participation, accountability, effectiveness and coherence (CEC, 2000). The Council of Europe has elaborated 12 principles of good governance at local level, including tools for implementation[3]:

1. fair elections and citizen participation
2. citizens expectations are met
3. effectiveness and efficiency
4. transparency
5. the law and judicial decisions are respected
6. ethical conduct
7. skills and capacity are continually improved
8. openness to change and innovation
9. development is sustainable
10. sound financial management
11. respect for human rights and cultural diversity
12. accountability

It is also good to keep in mind that behind these various sets of good governance principles you can find different approaches to development. The first one (managerial) approach looks on development from the view of effectiveness (how things are managed), the second one (societal) perceives good governance as important factor od social development (what is the goal of development). Political approach views good governance from the point of view of human rights ensuring participation in public policy-making process (who has the right to participate). Deeper awareness of what is behind these principles can help us in preparing advocacy strategies while

---

[2] http://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/good-governance.pdf
[3] http://www.coe.int/t/dgap/localdemocracy/Strategy_Innovation/12principles_en.asp

focusing on what kind of evidence we need to gain and examine.

How can evidence-based advocacy be used in relation to good governance

The vision of good governance society gives us an argumentation basis; allows us to compare what exists in reality with what we can achieve. Although the diversity of principles used by various organizations is broad, we can perceive them as a set of useful tools. When preparing a campaign, it is good to look at what change of public policy we would like to promote and which specific principle it follows. We may ask:

- What are the the principles of good governance we will focus on?

- Are they present in our society, in the city / community or in government performance (on any level)?

- If some of them are not present, what is the impact of their absence?

- What is the evidence showing negative impact of certain public policy, not respecting some of the principles? What is the impact of policy respecting such principles and based on them? What does it say to us?

- How can we get, interpret and present such evidence? How shall we use it to support our causes?

There are various reasons to make a change:

- The approval process is not transparent,
- the construction of underground parking will destroy the park and therefore it is not in the interest of public,
- lack of social services for seniors or people with special needs exclude them from society and reduce their quality of life,
- Decision making processes on investment projects were not open to public and erode the principle of participation...

Strategies for using evidence-based advocacy

To improve and strengthen good governance we can use several approaches, which create a space to use evidence-based advocacy through various strategies on national and international level:

- self-regulation of public sector (based on internal power and capacity)
- pressure of civil society sector (citizens, initiatives, NGOs, academia, experts)
- International pressure (based on international obligations).

In Slovakia there are several important NGOs focused on advocacy issues, research and watchdog activities as well. Except for NGOS being a part the of the international network, where the use of evidence in advocacy is normal practice (Greenpeace Slovakia, Transparency International) many of them use evidence to enforce the change. It is visible, that except for traditional approaches also new approaches appear, using:

- new technologies and applications
- work with various data, including big data
- new media and social networks
- visualization of data, infographics and visual campaigns,
- new approaches in working with big groups - crowdsourcing, crowdfunding or e-participation

With the spread of social media and new communication technologies, perception of activism and advocacy action is continuously changing. Activities that have been linked to influencing policymakers in the real world (demonstrations, rallies, protests on the streets) are often transferred to the virtual world and activism is transformed to online petitions, where real engagement is replaced by clicking. Terms "slacktivism" or "clicktivism" appear, describing approaches when people show their support not by engaging in a real life, but trying to influence things by clicking on Facebook posts, sharing content, signing petition, discussing on public fora, organizing protests by using social media instead of traditional tools (face to face communication, canvassing, telephones, leaflets). Even there is a criticism of such approach

(Clicktivism can be perceived as reducing activism to online petitions), these interventions can also trigger interest of media, increase public awareness and stimulate greater engagement of people - individuals as well as groups and help to foster the changes.

In following part of publication we will bring you several examples of successful advocacy efforts, based also on evidence. Because previous chapters focused on how to get the data, we will focus more on how to work with data to make them more understandable.

It is nearly impossible to do good advocacy work without evidence. There are enormous amounts of data all around us and you have to translate them to get useful and true information which shows also connections between data. Evidence is not only the text, numbers, statistics or images. Sets of information visually structured and arranged together can show important relationships. If we are not able to find these connections, show causality, create strong arguments and communicate them to the public, the evidence loses its value. On next pages we will show on 3 principles of good governance how to use the biggest asset of advocacy – the data.

Transparency principle

The example how to work with evidence on transparency principle; regarding the use of public funds, are websites that allow you to visualize the use of public finances. Presentation of budgets and financial flows is much easier to understand if instead of matrix and tables, infographics is used. Examples of free tools you can find here: http://www.fiscaltransparency.net/, http://www.openspending.org. But this is not the only way how to do it.

Fair-Play Alliance, Slovak NGO well-known for its fight against corruption has used crowdsourcing to increase its capacity in the control of management of public finances. They worked with 110 volunteers in an interesting campaign focused on getting most of state contracts on internet. According to open government policy, Slovak government agreed to publish government contracts on the internet but they were published in the format which was unsearchable. FPA organized their transcription and with the help of volunteers the organization was able to publish 20 000 contracts on a website "Open Contracts"[4] which led to better control

---

[4]http://otvorenezmluvy.sk/

of public finances and enabled to discover concrete cases where money was misused. Advocacy work of Fair-Play Aliance focused on transparency principle to be applied.
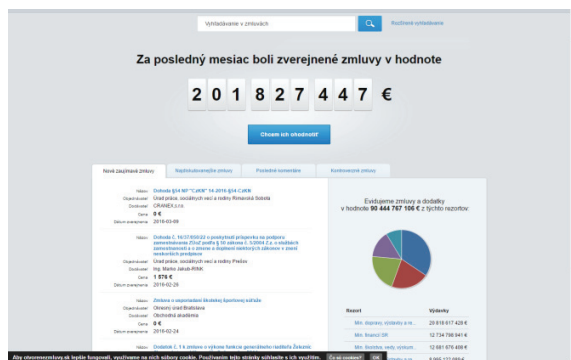
Screenshot of a website showing number of contracts and amount of money behind these contracts. Published contracts are searchable so anybody is able to use it and discover whether there is not misuse of public funds. www.otvorenezmluvy.sk

In 2013 the Centre for Public Administration Research (KDZ) created an open spending portal in Austria www.offenerhaushalt.at holding the spending data of all 2,100 municipalities. After 2 years more than 40 % of municipalities have published their data.

https://www.offenerhaushalt.at/gemeinde/salzburg/finanzdaten/subventionen

https://www.offenerhaushalt.at/
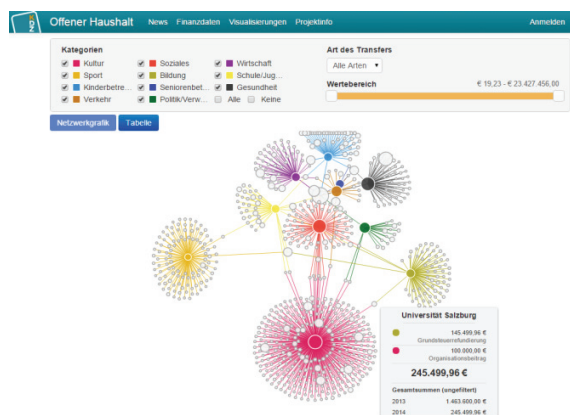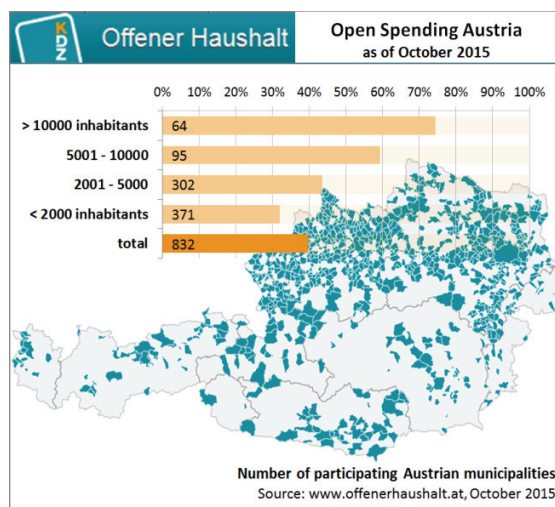
Effectiveness and efficiency principle

The Slovak Governance Institute[5] is a not-for-profit research and policy institution based in Bratislava, Slovakia. It is one of Slovakia's leading think tanks focusing on good governance and public policy. It also monitors and evaluates enforcement of anticorruption policies and

---

[5]http://www.governance.sk/

legislation in Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia. It has extensive international experience in designing and implementing projects aiming at enhancing the quality of public policy and public administration. Except for focus on public policies, SGI is trying to influence performance of municipalities in Slovakia by monitoring and enabling daily feedback from citizens. The website "Message for Mayor" was inspired by "Fix your street" website in Great Britain and cooperates with the page "For pedestrians" which was established in Prague, Czech republic. Not only it delivers information about bad maintanance of public spaces, but also compares performance of specific municipalities.

www.odkazprestarostu.sk

http://www.fixyourstreet.ie/
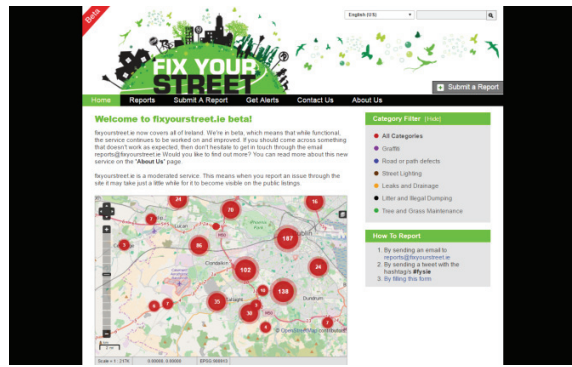
Ethical Conduct principle

Evidence which enables control of politicians and civil servants is used in several ways. Interesting approach is to record "public pledge" and check promises whether they are fulfilled or not. One of famous websites is the Obameter page and the newer one is Trudeaumetre that monitors promises of Canadian prime minister.

https://www.trudeaumetre.ca/

http://www.politifact.com/
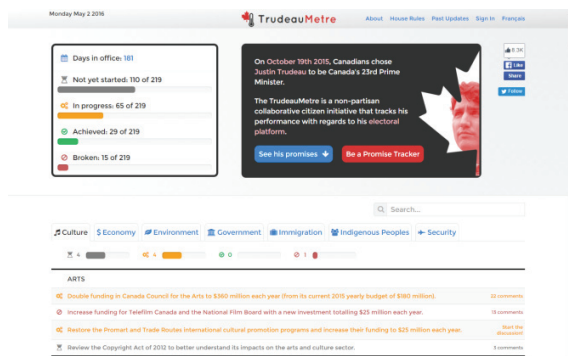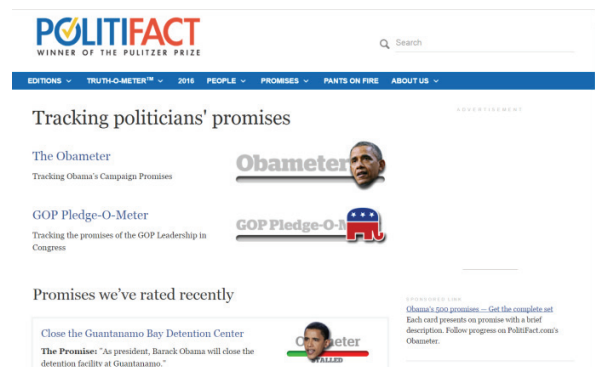
The project "Demagogue"[6] is an interesting project in Slovakia that doesn´t follow the promises and their fulfillment, but the political discourse in the media, and then check the veracity of politicians´ statements. After qualitative evaluation follows quantitative one, showing ratio between true and false statements and rankings of politicians. The website looks also on statements of the Slovak President and Prime Minister as well.

Another interesting way is visualization of formal or economic connections between politicians.
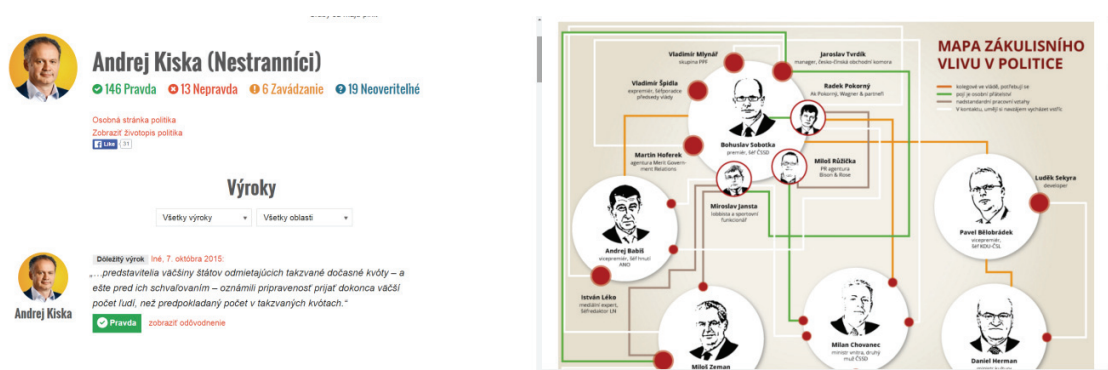
Success story on Good Governance

The third sector in Slovakia has to cover many things which state does not do, which leads to the concentration of vast expertise of non–profit sector - intellectual, technical or scientific. The same is valid for CVEK (Centre for ethnicity research), which is an independent non-governmental research organization at the interface between classical NGOs and academic organization. The center was founded in 2005 and it does not want to operate only in the area of research, but wants to focus also on changing the society - it strives to contribute to building a more just and cohesive society through research, analytical and educational activities.

The work of this NGO is rooted in defending fundamental human rights principles such as respecting dignity of every person and promoting diversity of society. The activities of CVEK focus particularly on ethnic, language and religious minorities. They specialize in promoting inclusion of marginalized population groups, be it the Roma, migrants or other minorities.

---

[6]http://www.demagog.sk/

Thematically, they place emphasis especially on education, housing, labor market, culture, interethnic relations and integration on various levels.

Slovakia is a country very strongly ethnocentrically defined as the nation-state. According to research from 2011, three quarters of people see Slovakia as a country of Slovaks and want to keep it that way, which means that the majority should decide who will be the minority in the country and what rights should they have. The aim of the organization is to change this perception of mutual co-existence of various groups in the country.

When in Norway, 2011 Breivik´s attack on young people happened, response in Slovakia was the need to tighten control, or perhaps restrict the rights of certain groups. The reactions in Norway were different, the main message was: "We are free country, we are open to all and we must not allow Breivik to take away our freedom." Inspired by such approach, it is important to teach people to respond differently to the conflict and change Slovakia into an open country, where the people are able to co-exist in a diversity.

In the past, the organization had more watchdog approach. Initially they did research and then they criticized state institutions in media and at public events for what they did wrong or what they fail in. The organization has, for example, human rights lawyer who published critical articles against a government and shut the door to constructive dialogue. Gradually, however, they found that it is not effective, because when the state institutions are attacked by NGOs, they defend themselves. In following case study we will show you how was the NGO able to influence public policies in specific areas.

Racial Prejudice and Discrimination in Foster Care – Time for a Change

The project analyzed the situation of Roma children in foster care with the emphasis on ethnicity, discrimination and violations of children's rights. It focused on the process of removing children from their families, their placement in different types of institutional care and treatment of Roma children as a specific group of children in the foster care.

Analytical activities of the project addressed also the process of de-institutionalization of the foster care and existing alternative and supporting services pursuing the best interest of the child. The project included advocacy activities and workshops for professionals aimed at developing strategies, specific measures and communication in order to influence public policy making and discourse on Roma children in foster care, eliminate prejudice and potential

discrimination.

At the beginning of the project, CVEK has conducted research focused on Roma children in institutions dealing with foster care. It came up with the hypothesis that there may be discrimination, but based on research, they don't find it there. It turned out, however, that in these institutions staff does not work with cultural diversity and enforce assimilation attitudes ("*We know what is good for children, the state will take care of them better than the alternative or biological family*"). One strategy would be to write articles and publish how are the rights of children violated. CVEK did something else - they started to meet with decision-makers and policymakers (state institutions, ministries or parliamentary committees) and presented the results of research to them. They also offered assistance with improving the things, all the time acknowledging experience of addressed institutions. State institutions received the findings of the research very well and because there was no confrontation, they started to cooperate. The Ministry of Labor asked CVEK to prepare training for 300 people in 60 foster care homes. Because the training met with an excellent response from the employees, the Ministry offered the continuation of cooperation focused on promoting diversity of children.

Work with children's foster care institutions was successful thanks to the approach, using evidence without confrontation and offering cooperation and support and it led to changed approaches in dealing with Roma children.

Integration of migrants on the local level: capacity building of local actors

A similar procedure to what was done in previous project implemented CVEK in the issue of integration of migrants on the local level. In another project, Union of municipalities in cooperation with CVEK experts provided assistance to five selected municipalities in the field of migrant integration. The project's main objective was to improve local actors' know-how and attitudes when implementing integration policies on the local level. Furthermore, the project facilitated drafting and implementation of local integration strategies in five selected municipalities.

Main activities included information days, public discussions, short films, conference; education: trainings of municipalities' representatives, publication of a guidebook for drafting local integration strategies; pilot implementation of local integration policies in five selected municipalities and support and coordination of activities of municipalities in the field of migrant

integration.

The organization start by conducting the research on what do foreigners living in Slovak towns and cities experience as obstacles and barriers in the integration. Then they have offered services to local government based on the research to create public policies - local integration strategies.

At the beginning they approached 28 municipalities with the offer of the training aimed at preparing public policies, including the change in attitudes. Local governments were presented by the results of the research and statistics on how many foreigners live in the city, who they are and what problems do they face. From 28 municipalities CVEK has selected seven pilot towns.

Research was not only critical, it pointed particular to the positives and the challenges which governments could face if it doesn´t change the attitude. Local teams began to meet regularly to identify areas where they see ways for improvement in their cities, space for taking action and policy change. Within one year cities stopped using the term "foreigners" and began to use the term „city residents". Finally they prepared simple policies, nevertheless with important symbolic value because they had accepted that the foreigners should be perceived as residents of cities. Strategies identified a number of measures that were not costly and could be easily implemented – e.g. articles in the local media, school meetings and cultural events, free courses of Slovak language when old teachers were teaching adults and children. These were very small steps without special money needed, but with the potential to start other activities.

Why is the case important?

CVEK was able to build an organization which is being respected through constructive approach. From noisy people cited by media as critics, they have gradually become those which they cited as experts and collaborators. CVEK became a relevant partner to local governments, but also to public institutions, including ministries.

The organization kept it´s values and continued in advocating for public policies change, but thanks to arguments and evidence from the research and thanks to strategy of cooperation it was able to change specific public policies.

What is Rule of Law?

We may perceive the term "rule of law" from various perspectives – except for the definition which stresses equality of all individuals and entities before the formal law, it if we are to live well, it is important to live where there are laws valid and where people have access to justice. There are various organization dealing with this topic in Slovakia – most important is the organization of lawyers well – known for it´s victories in various lawsuits on all levels, connected also with following case study.

Success story for the rule of law: Dumps don´t belong in town

Pezinok landfill offers the story of a small town and its citizens who faced hazardous wastes landfill in the close vicinity of the city and decided to fight together against it. A fascinating experience offers the first example when the citizens and the city government fought together and presented this lawsuit before the Court of Justice of the European Union. Pezinok citizens also succeeded in May 2013 at the Slovak Supreme Court, which annulled the permit for the construction of the landfill. Their case is a significant example of advocacy work dealing with public interest law.

Situation

Pezinok is a small town with 20,000 inhabitants in close vicinity of capital of Slovakia Bratislava, well known for it´s wine production, nice historical center attracting tourists, pleasant living and vital community life.

In the 1960s, a waste dump was built in Pezinok just few hundred meters away from a town center. This old landfill is currently filled with millions of tons of municipal as well hazardous waste. It operated for decades without barriers and without drainage system to keep the toxic chemicals from leaching into the soil. Cancer, respiratory diseases, reproductive disorders and allergy in the area began to rise.

As the old waste dump started to reach capacity, a developer proposed to build another dumping ground and **continue dumping of the waste for next 20 years. Proposed depth of the waste**

dump was four story block of flats and proposed surface should cover nearly 12 football fields. When people learned that there is a plan to build a new landfill near the old one, they felt they have to do something.

Waste dump: 12 football fields / 4 storey building / 1200 people involved[7]

What was the problem?

Although spatial plan of Pezinok prohibits further construction of landfill and despite the opposition of the municipality (local government), regional authority in Bratislava has permitted the dump construction. The reason was very simple: the head of the authority, was the political appointee of the strongest governing party, but also co-owner of the land determined for construction. Even more, his father owned the company which wanted to build the dumpsite. Despite the opposition of the city and the citizens, and despite several court decisions that stopped the construction, the dumpsite was gradually built.

What did citizens of Pezinok do?

In the fight against the dumpsite citizens, entrepreneurs and municipality together with wine producers, students, church leaders, and other members of the community created the initiative "Dumps don´t belong in town" and launched a grassroots campaign to shut down the dumpsite. The initiative was supported also by several advocacy NGOs. The most important was the help of public interest law organization Via Iuris, well known for its legal expertise and successful lawsuits at the Supreme Court and the Constitutional Court in

---

[7]Infographics and photography: http://www.viaiuris.sk/aktivity/kauzy/priklady-kauz/pezinska-skladka.html

fight for protecting citizens 'rights.

It was necessary to inform the people what´s going on, to mobilize the civil society and to strengthen the ability to resist political, administrative and economic power focused on building the dump. Thanks to good communication and cooperation, most of the town population disagreed with the construction of new landfill and many of them were able to continue in several years lasting public protests – public meetings, demonstrations, rallies, concerts or photographic exhibits etc. The first demonstration brought together 6000 thousands of local residents and their municipal leaders. For Pezinok it was the largest demonstration since the Velvet revolution in 1989. But the fight was not only about the citizens - protest were supported by 150 well-known public figures and by many NGOs from Slovakia. Also the media coverage was intense - more **than 100 reports per month appeared in national media.**

Pezinok citizens actively fought against the construction and they used all legal means to prevent it. They organized protests in their own town, but also in the capital Bratislava in front of the seat of a Government, or a bicycle ralley from Pezinok to the Constitutional Court in Košice, on the opposite side of country. They have negotiated with the Minister of the Environment, addressed parliamentary committee of the environment and the Prime minister, they have sent a petition to European Parliament against the violation of citizen rights under the Aarhus Convention with altogether 8,000 signatures. 1200 people took part in the proceedings and hundreds were participants in lawsuits when Via Iuris took the case through the Slovakian and EU judiciaries. Via Iuris was helping the citizens in all lawsuits connected with decision-making process; they have represented several hundred citizens in the procedure for authorizing the landfill, requesting a review of the legality of permits and proceedings. They have also represented the municipality and citizens in lawsuits on Regional and Supreme Court of

Slovak Republic as well as European Court of Justice.

After seven years of litigation the Supreme Court has decided (based on the recommendations of the European Court of Justice) that the authorization for the construction of the landfill has been issued illegally and in May 2013 he has abolished it. Currently, the landfill is not used.

Why is this case important?

The case study is important because it has showed that it was possible to stop public authorities which have been deliberately and repeatedly violating legal regulations and the Constitution during the dump permit procedure. The town of Pezinok and its citizens were able to win the case and **to protect the principles of the rule of law and the democratic political culture of Slovakia. Citizens of** Pezinok were awarded by White Crow Award 2008 in appreciation of their activities and in April 2016 Zuzana Čaputová, Via Iuris lawyer was awarded the Goldman Prize, considered to be equivalent of Nobel Prize for the environment.

Chapter 4: Best Practices of Evidence-Based Advocacy

In this chapter a step by step process will be discussed on how to approach the creation of a successful advocacy campaign. By taking previously explained examples, links and analyses, we are able to create a clear structure to follow. Therefore, the main components of evidence based advocacy will be arranged according to the process and together with helpful tools and techniques they aim to form a practice based guidance.

Step 1: Assessing the initial situation

Define the problem

As the first step, we have to make an analysis of the problem and the policy issues involved.   Therefore, we might have a look at several questions which can help us for

the identification.

What is the advocacy issue to be addressed?

Why is it important and to whom?

How has the issue been raised?

(e.g.: Has there been research, demand by grassroots organization, or a comparison with good practice elsewhere?)

Does the problem have a policy dimension?

What current policies reinforce the problem?

What changes in policies could lead to improvement?

Who is responsible for those policies?

(Buckley, 2014)

Selecting the issue

When the problem and its consequences, as well as its connections to relevant policies are identified, it is crucial to organize the already gathered information. We might want to visually group the roots and consequences around our issue in order to facilitate our understanding and identify the issue.

Any process of advocacy, whether it is based on rights or evidence, starts with selecting an issue, that one wants to advocate for. This suggests, that there is already a basic knowledge of what is wrong, what is causing it and how we want to solve it present. After defining the problem with the help of the above listed questions this information should already be gathered. Afterwards, in order to gain some insights into these issues, a schematic approach might be helpful. There are several methods to create a schematic overview. First, a brainstorming session might help to create a mind map, which can assist to make distinctions and show the relations between several aspects of the advocacy issue.
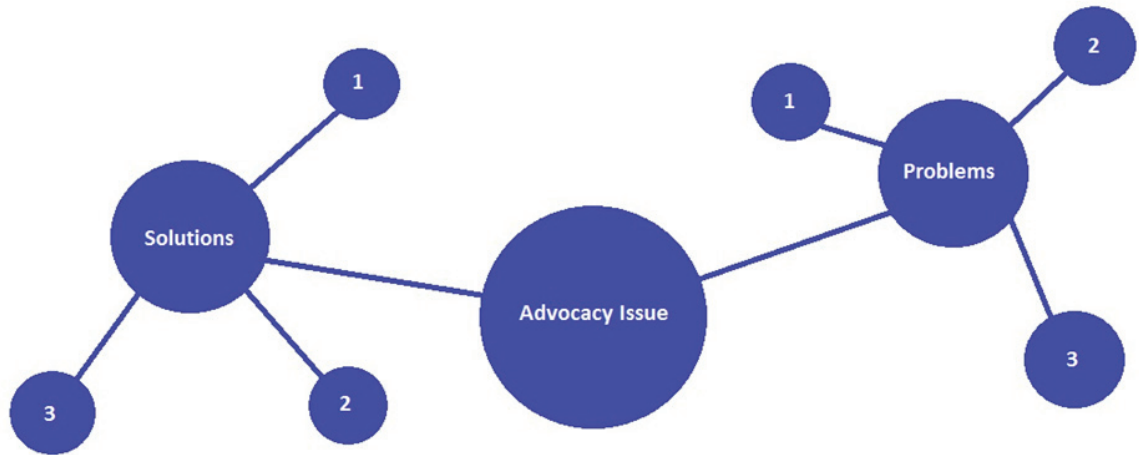
Figure 3.1: An example of a mind map

A second way of organizing and categorizing problems and solutions is by making a problem tree. In contrast to the mind map, the problem tree shows a more linear causal effect chain.
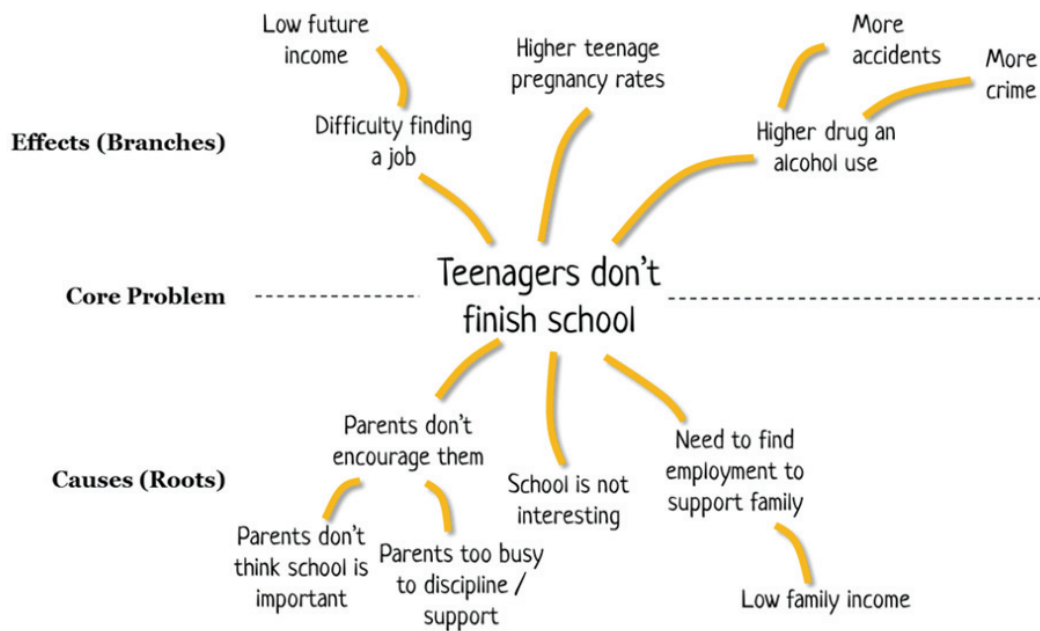

Figure 3.2: An example of a problem tree

Step 2: Collecting the data

The second step in the advocacy process concerns the collection of data. As discussed above, what is needed to obtain data are indicators that turn the concepts into measurable items. During the first step, it should already have become clear which concepts will play an important role in the advocacy campaign. These are the concepts that are to be turned into indicators for the data-collecting phase. Through literature studies it is often possible to find out how others have defined the concepts and made them measurable. Therefore, it will often not be necessary to come up with useful indicators yourself. However, you do have to know how the indicators are constructed, what they measure, and, not to be neglected, what they do not measure.

In order to effectively influence public opinion or persuade involved actors, information has to be gathered by doing research. It may be already obvious to us what we are advocating for and why it is necessary, but that does not mean that it is visible to others. Therefore, it is important to provide proof for any claims or arguments that may be used by doing research. This process can include several activities and approaches, from looking for data and statistics on documents in the library over taking pictures to talking to witnesses. There are several reasons to keep in mind about why doing research is essential. According to Community Tool Box (2015), the following bullet points may help us to show the advantages one can gain by researching carefully.

- By adding facts and statistics we can provide hard evidence for people who may not be convinced by believes and passion only.
- By digging deeper we may discover further information to support our case.
- By comparing similar events or cases we may be able to estimate the outcome of our campaign. It will be easier for us to get an idea of tactics that already have been successful before.
- By finding one relevant example, our situation may be empowered. Even though statistics and facts are helpful to support claims, a real life practical example can improve the effectiveness of our campaign.
- By gathering opinions of experts, we can provide evidence for an issue about which we already know that we are right, but others might not.
- By making cost- benefits arguments we will be able to convince our targets easier.

Displaying the initial situation and comparing an alternative one, by calculating the actual costs and showing the benefits with the help of numbers, the difference will become clearer.

- By creating credibility through researching well, we will make people listen to and believe in us.

- By researching on possible counter arguments we can make sure that we are prepared for the oppositions claims. It will be easier to cope with their questions and weaken their position.

- By researching well, we can become the expert of an issue. People and officials might ask us for our advice or for giving the answer to a particular question. This will certainly strengthen our position and increase our possibilities.

To identify the right way of investigation one has to take, we have to look at the questions for which an answer is needed. Possible types of approaches for finding answers will be listed below.

- If the question may be answered with a known fact, looking through books and articles or consulting an expert can be useful.

- If there is need for finding evidence for an intervention, one may conduct a study or search for already existing records.

- If information is needed to influence actors to move into a certain direction, data documents from municipal archives can be used.

- If one wants to reveal a harmful action caused by an actor, one may come back to actual detective work. This can include taking pictures and records during observations, analyzing samples or talking to employees.

Step 3: Forming the mission, the goals and the objectives

Before objectives can be defined to achieve the initial goals, the mission has to be developed. It will give us a better understanding of what we want to achieve in the end.

Therefore, first of all, we will identify the achievements, which we want to accomplish in the future to further then define the exact objectives which will lead us to them. To make sure that all relevant issues are covered, several questions will assist us in the process of defining the mission.

What are the long-term social changes we wish to see?

Who is affected by these changes and how?

What are the short-term outcomes or solutions we wish to achieve?

What is the expected impact of our plan?

(Flowers and Goyal, 2003)

In the previous chapter considerable attention was spent on setting goals and objectives. We established that goals are usually long-term projects that are less detailed than objectives, and that objectives are strategies to reach the goals. We introduced the SMART-criteria to assess whether the objectives set are obtainable. To review, as described by UHR (n.d.), SMART objectives are: Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-bound. In this section we will discuss how the SMART-criteria can be fulfilled by giving examples from other advocacy campaigns as well as naming some issues that have to be kept in mind when setting the objectives.

- **Specific**

What is meant by specific was that the objective should be described in such a way that there can be no doubt about what the objective is and how it should be achieved. Therefore, a significant amount of attention should be spent on the phrasing of the objective. We can identify three types of questions that should be answered when formulating the mission. The focused should be laid on What, Why and How.

Example:

By August 1, 2009, implement a new performance management system for Classified Staff, A& P Faculty, and University Staff using clearly defined processes and guidelines so employees and managers can more competently evaluate performance and develop their careers.

Explanation of Example:

"Implement a new performance management system for Classified Staff, A& P Faculty,

and University Staff" = what

"using clearly defined processes and guidelines" = how

"so employees and managers can competently evaluate performance and develop their careers = why

- **Measurable**

    Goals and objectives have to be measurable, so, that tangible evidence can be provided to proof the accomplishment of it. The goal statement should serve as a measure for the project. However, usually there are several short-term or smaller measurements built into the goal.

    Example:

    By August 1, 2009, implement a new performance management system for Classified Staff, A& P Faculty, and University Staff using clearly defined processes and guidelines so employees and managers can more competently evaluate performance and develop their careers.

    Explanation of Example:

    The essential metric is whether or not the system is operational by August 1st.

- **Achievable**

    An achievable objective is an objective that lies within the capacities and the resources of the advocate. Again, a key factor involved with this is to be realistic. Setting objectives that are ambitious but not achievable will not help anyone. Therefore, focus should be centered on defining a time frame. Furthermore, objectives are set in order to reach a long-term goal. In many cases, smaller achievable objectives are better than ambitious objectives as they contribute to reaching a goal in the long term. Finally, achieving an objective may open up possibilities for a next objective, thereby creating a step-by-step process in which the long term goal can be reached.

    Example:

    By August 1, 2009, implement a new performance management system for Classified Staff, A& P Faculty, and University Staff using clearly defined processes and guidelines so employees and managers can more competently evaluate performance and develop

their careers.

Explanation of Example:

In order for us to reach this goal, we must have a skill set, in this case in the area of performance management, that allows us to understand the nature of the goal, and the goal must present a large enough challenge for us to remain interested in and committed to accomplishing it.

- **Relevant**

    Relevant objectives are objectives that in the end contribute to reaching the long-term goal. An objective that is irrelevant to the goal will turn out to be a waste of time and resources. Relevant objectives are also sure to get support from others. Therefore, it is crucial to set objectives which measure the outcomes and not the activities.

    Example:

    By August 1, 2009, implement a new performance management system for Classified Staff, A& P Faculty, and University Staff using clearly defined processes and guidelines so employees and managers can more competently evaluate performance and develop their careers.

    Explanation of Example:

    The result of this goal is a process that allows employees and managers to more competently evaluate performance and develop their careers, not the individual activities and actions that occur in order to make the goal a reality.

- **Time-Bound**

    A time-bound objective makes sure that considerable attention is given to what shall be done at which time. As mentioned before, deadlines and the creation of a timeframe add pressure and make sure that everyone involved in the advocacy campaign knows what is expected of them. As with the aspect of achievability, it is important to be realistic. When time pressure is too intense, people are bound to get stressed, damaging the effectiveness of the advocacy campaign. However, when deadlines are too relaxed, people will have the tendency to push crucial work to the future. Therefore, we have to focus on setting realistic deadlines.

    Example:

By August 1, 2009, implement a new performance management system for Classified Staff, A& P Faculty, and University Staff using clearly defined processes and guidelines so employees and managers can more competently evaluate performance and develop their careers.

Explanation of Example:

August 1, 2009 provides us with a time-bound deadline.

Step 4: Knowing who receives the message

What is Stakeholder Analysis?

Stakeholder analysis is a process aimed at finding actors who have a 'stake' in the issue which is to be targeted, as well as to provide information related with their point of view and priorities. A good understanding of their interests and beliefs, as well the environment in which they are concerned must be considered as the basis on which to build any good strategy. In conjunction with this, one will be able to focus their efforts on the right targets, spending their time and resources in a more productive way. Moreover De Toma (2012), claims once individuals, organizations or institutions that could take important action for the achievement of the desired goals are identified, a thorough stakeholders' analysis should allow to clarify their positions on certain issues, as well as an assessment of their level of influence and importance.

Collecting this data will be useful to identify possible opportunities and constraints we could meet on this path, with a consequent improvement of the likelihood of a success as well as a substantial reduction of the risks in regards to interacting with stakeholders. A comprehensive knowledge of the stakeholders' points of view will allow you to plan where, when and how to develop and modify one's strategy. According to Ruairí Brugha and Zsuzsa Varvasovszky (2000), stakeholder analysis could be useful to improve our knowledge in order to comprehend stakeholders' "behaviour, intentions, interrelations, agendas, interests, and the influence of resources they have brought, or could bring, to bear on decision-making process"18.

Who may be considered a stakeholder?

During an advocacy campaign, advocates are not the only ones involved while there is an issue being advocated, rather, the advocates are just one amongst many others involved directly

or indirectly with the issue(s) of concern. Those relevant parties, namely individuals, groups, or organizations, of any form, size and capacity that can influence the decision making processes are identified as stakeholders. The interest of these actors in the issue we are going to advocate can be more or less evident, or even presumable. Schmeer (1999) identifies stakeholders from the following sectors: both national and international actors and institutions, local and state governments and officials, non-governmental organizations, associations, interest groups, profit and non for profit organizations, researchers and academics, media, etc.

In order to identify these actors, we may ask ourselves:

• Who has a 'stake' in the policy that is to be promoted?

• Who could be affected by the change? (Both positively and negatively)

• Who could influence the decision-making process?

• Who could be influential for the successful of our advocacy campaign?

What is to be considered in analysis?

According to Brugha and Varvasovszky (2000), when making a stakeholder analysis we have to have a look at the background first, where we can differentiate between policy roots, management roots and development roots.

POLICY ROOTS

Firstly, analyzing the policy roots, Smith (1993) emphasizes that networks and communities are structuring people's interests in the policy-making process, due to the fact that formal and informal contacts as well as relationships are shaping policy agendas and decision-making. Moreover, Benson (1975, 1982) states, that networks of interests within a policy sector have to be understood in order to make an analysis, which can be divided into three main parts. First of all, administrative networks concerning the dependency on resources have to be considered. Secondly, the interest group networks, which display the shared interests within a policy sector and thirdly, the rules, defining the limits of the administrative and interest network levels actions have to be analyzed.

In addition, Lindblom (1959) created a model that is characterized by negotiation,

bargaining and adjustment between the different interest groups. In general, policy makers need to take part in the formulation and implementation of a policy as well as mobilizing support and resources.

MANAGEMENT ROOTS

Secondly, as Preston (1990) states that by meeting the needs and expectations of customers, employees and the general public, the fourth stakeholder group, the shareholders would benefit. To achieve this, interest and influence play a key role when evaluating threats and opportunities for change as well as for implementing and managing it successfully. "For carrying out an effective decision-making process, the behaviour, intentions, interrelations, agendas, interests and influence of the relevant actors have to be understood" (Blair and Whitehead 1988, Fottler et al. 1989, Blair et al. 1990).

DEVELOPMENT ROOTS

Thirdly, looking at development roots, Lindenberg (1981), emphasized, that for creating systematic political analysis, development managers have to understand the position and importance of the different actors. According to him, there are several steps to follow within the political analysis process. These include; making an inventory of the actors involved in decision-making; collecting information to determine their importance and to filter out the ones who will make the final decision; a quantification of the actors concerning their levels of influence and their interests; an assessment of their capacity and willingness to mobilize resources; and the mapping of actors. When mapping the actors, the relationships between them, the possibility of developing alliances and their relationships to the desired outcome have to be taken into consideration (Lindenberg, 1981).

Once the background is defined and the multitude of possible stakeholders are skimmed over, it is time to focus on the stakeholders' characteristics. These include their position on the reform issue, their interests, their beliefs, the environment and their power and influence.

- **Stakeholders' position on the reform issue (the initial position)**
  The first point to consider is the initial stakeholders' position on the reform issue. We can split these positions in two main categories: support or opposition. In order to have a more

defined idea of the level of opposition or support an actor may commit on the issue, one may arrange the amount of hypothetical support in a scale from one to five, in which one represents strong opposition, three neutrality and five strong support. Then, one will have five hypothetical categories: opponents, passive opponents, neutrals, allies, strong allies. Following this framework, UNICEF (2010) lays out, we may understand the level of conceivable support or opposition of a stakeholder. Through the collection of information, be it through public, private, or confidential sources, and analyzing the networks and the positions of partners on an issue, we can better categorize stakeholders. Once the hypothetical level of stakeholders' support has been defined, future strategies should be designed to persuade potentially neutral actors to become allies and opponents to at least remain passive.

- **Interests**

Stakeholder analysis is a process that needs time and will most likely focus on several actors with each of them most likely having their own interests and priorities. A careful understanding of their interests will represent an essential step to identifying a solid common ground between our needs and their priorities. We must comprehend, whether their interests will be, or not, in line with the issue that we have to advocate for. Once clarified, we may presume the likelihood of their support or opposition. Snyder (1997) claims that we must remember that in order to support someone it is usually necessary that benefits outweigh costs. Setting up our analysis on their interests, we must be able to comprehend what the terms "benefit" and "cost" concretely mean for each stakeholder. This requires the ability to look at the scene from the stakeholder's point of view in order to gain an understanding of their priorities.

- **Beliefs**

The Advocacy Coalition Framework (ACF), developed by Sabatier and Jankins-Smith (1999), tries to describe the entire policy process, considering it as a competition between coalitions of actors who want to advocate beliefs about policy problems and relative solutions. We may define it as the set of actors who are actively concerned with an issue and regularly seek to influence public policy related to it. Following this theoretical framework, the number of "actors" involved in this competition can be considered rather wide and we may include: "local

and state government officials, advocacy groups, non-governmental organizations, community groups, researchers and academics, media, etc". Stakeholder's motivations, desires, aspirations, and goals can be drastically different from one's own, causing an uneasy alliance and can potentially lead to the swift dissolution of the collaboration. In order to better identify a potential coalition partner's beliefs, ideas and the drive behind their policy making decisions, the ACF outlines three main belief components which should always be considered:

- Deep core beliefs represent the fundamentals of thought and beliefs that affect both policy core and secondary aspects which are developed through individual education and experiences. These ideas shape the vision of people, policy, and society.

- Policy core beliefs are an adaptation of deep core beliefs in the form of policy positions, strategies, and perceptions that are used in actualizing deep core beliefs in reality.

- Secondary aspects are merely instruments in which the policy, based on the policy core, influenced from the deep core, is conveyed.

The ACF argues that most coalitions are formed around policy core beliefs as this is likely the most relatable of the three. ACF also states that individuals view the world accompanied with a variety of cognitive biases and reservations, which acts as guidance for them in difficult situations. These filters are composed of preexisting beliefs, typically deep rooted and are left unshaken when attempted to alter. People are inspired to form their beliefs into a detailed, objective policy but, because of these reservations, they are often restrained in doing so. Naturally, if on one side they tend to filter or ignore what could not be compatible with their beliefs, on the other side, they easily accept information that confirms their previous beliefs, by reinforcing them more and more.

An example of a coalition formed around policy beliefs in Hungary is the "Unity" coalition led by the Hungarian Socialist Party MSzP, the largest opposition party in the Hungarian parliament. MSzP is a center-left social democrat party that has incorporated a huge variety of participants in the coalition, from a myriad of minor left parties to former communist party members. This shows that members of a coalition, even with incredibly different deep core

beliefs, can still form a coalition around policy core beliefs as a former communist party member's deep core beliefs would be drastically different from a modern social democrat's.

- **The Environment**

To foresee whether a stakeholder will support our cause or not, Young and Quinn (2012) suggests that we need to take into account the context in which the advocacy campaign will take place, the socio-political landscape, as well as how its decision-making process works; both formally and informally. It is very important to comprehend that what one will do is almost always a consequence of not only of one's intentions, but as Cesa (2014) reminds us that also of the opportunities and the constraints that are to be found in any given situation. "When one sets out to judge if anybody is going to do a thing, it is necessary first to see if he wishes to do it, then what assistance he may have, and what hindrance in doing it" (Machiavelli, 1506) .

A deep understanding of the context as well as a detailed study of the process and dynamics underlying stakeholders' actions, consequently becomes an essential element to take into account. A grounded comprehension of the policy landscape is one of the main aspects to consider. According to Brugha and Varvasovszky (2000), when making a stakeholder analysis one must look at the background and the policy roots first. Benson (1975, 1982) states that networks of interests within a policy sector have to be understood in order to make an analysis, which can be divided into three main parts. First of all, administrative networks in regards to the dependency on resources have to be considered. Secondly, the interest group networks, which display the shared interests within a policy sector and thirdly, the rules defining the limits of the administrative and interest network levels actions have to be analyzed.

In addition, Lindblom (1959) created a model that is characterized by negotiation, bargaining and adjustment between the different interest groups. In general, policy makers need to take part in the formulation and implementation of a policy as well as mobilizing support and resources.

- **Power and Influence**

The amount of strategic resources stakeholders can allocate to a specific issue is one of the main points to take into account. At the same time, the influence a stakeholder has on carrying out the process may be considered the result of its indirect power as, for example,

reputation and credibility.

The power of stakeholders depends on their capability to move and control critical resources; however, it should be noted that the strength of stakeholders does not only depend on the amount of strategic resources they can dedicate to an issue, but also on their level of influence and credibility in the field. Indeed, beyond the direct amount of power and possibility to control critical resources, we have to consider their indirect weight in terms of credibility for the cause we are advocating.

When to conduct a stakeholder analysis

According to many authors, timing is one of the main factors to consider in conducting a proper stakeholder analysis. As mentioned above, the aim of this analysis is to develop a strategy through the collection of data and information. Moreover, having this kind of information, we will also have the possibility to improve or modify its strategy, if necessary. Facing several actors, each of which has its own priorities, subsequently we have to be flexible, shaping both the analysis and plan of action to the stakeholders' characteristics.

For this reason, stakeholder analysis should precede the reform proposal, representing the base of any advocacy strategy. The sooner the analysis gets done, the more possibilities to build a good strategy we will have. Arranging it at the beginning of the path, we will gain awareness of the sustainability of this plan, having so the possibility to address its resources and efforts in a most productive way. Moreover, wherever the situation is not clear enough, we will have the chance to improve the analysis through the acquisition of additional data and deeper information, to so be able to enhance our advocacy campaign.

How to focus your messages to shift stakeholders' positions

The feasibility of our advocacy objective is also influenced by the level of consensus or conflict around an issue as this is often an indicator of how easily the process will move. This is especially true where new technology or new approaches to a problem are introduced and policymakers are more susceptible to change.5

When conflict between actors exists, you need to know the various positions being taken and understand why these groups are holding onto these positions. By trying to understand the

motivation behind the actors' decisions, you can work out how firmly entrenched they are in these positions and also if there is a chance to move them. You can also see where your argument would fit in the current debate and who might benefit from it.

Step 5: Making the advocacy message

When the mission, the goals and the objectives are defined and the important stakeholders are identified, the next step is to form the message. It has to be structured in a way that it clearly states what needs to be changed, why it needs to be changed and how it has to be changed. Since we are dealing with evidence-based advocacy the argumentation will be based on collected data.

What are the techniques?

In what way the data is collected depends on the nature of the data. As mentioned, the data collection can be of a quantitative or of a qualitative nature.

Quantitative methods of evidence gathering

On one hand, we have quantitative data, which basically revolves around the use of statistical methods. The results produced, can then be easily summarized, compared and generalized. The research study can usually be repeated due to its high reliability. It will be displayed in the form of numbers and statistics, which is often arranged in tables, charts or figures (USC Libraries, 2016).

There are several ways to collect numerical data, such as experiments, or records and observations of well-defined events. Furthermore, Management information systems or surveys, which are based on closed-ended questions may contribute to data collection (University Wisconsin Eau Claire, n.d.).

Nevertheless, when we use techniques which are used for a quantitative information gathering, we have to make sure that our results can be easily measurable by numbers and figures. To become familiar with possible research methods, we might have a look at the following examples provided by Researchprofessionals (n.d.).

When the decision is made to conduct an interview, we have to bear in mind that it has to

have a structure, where the interviewer follows a standard set of questions. This can be assured by using a checklist or a formulation to which the reply comes in the form of ´yes´ or ´no´ or numbers.

By choosing an observation for data gathering, once more we have to make sure to follow an accurate structure to clearly define the purpose of the research. To develop a category system or use a checklist may ensure the effectiveness.

Questionnaires, may be considered an option as well, but their creation is a difficult and a long process. However, from a quantitative methods point of view they only involve closed questions. Before using them they should be tested in several ways regarding the validity and reliability of the questions.

Another helpful tool may be represented by scales. Rating scales allow the researcher to rate behavior or create lists by categorizing numerical values.

Assuming, that an advocacy campaign is connected to or based on a health issue, physiological measurement might be used. Through self-report, direct measurement, laboratory tests or electronic monitoring useful data can be collected.

Qualitative methods of evidence gathering

On the other hand, we can identify several qualitative data collection methods. These approaches usually involve either a direct interaction on a one to one basis, or a direct interaction with individuals in a group setting. In general, we can say, that they are mostly time consuming and costly. Nevertheless, the information gathered from a qualitative method is richer and and enables a deeper insight into the phenomenon or study. The main types, which we are going to discuss more detailed are individual interviews, focus groups, observations and action research (University of Surrey, n.d.).

As stated by Thomas, Nelson and Silverman (2015), conducting interviews, is certainly the most popular method to gather qualitative data. They usually rely on open-ended questions and are rather unstructured, like a conversation. To get the interviewee to open up and speak freely, a comfortable environment has to be created, where the interviewee believes that he can trust the interviewer. It requires a lot of training and self-evaluation of the interviewer. He has to adapt to the interviewee, use clear and meaningful words and be a good listener. Interviews may

be audio or video recorded in order to preserve the information and facilitate a follow up analysis.

As a second technique, we can have a look at interviews with a small group of people, which is called a focus group. There, researchers are usually interviewing a homogeneous group of people, such as a group of students or teachers, in one session. In general, this facilitates the situation for the participants to speak up und loose the fear. Nevertheless, opinions might be adapted to other people's point of view.

Additionally, the authors argue, that an observation might be carried out. Notes have to be taken while the focus lays on what is seen. We have to be aware of the fact that the participants become accustomed to the researcher being around. Otherwise, the shown behavior might differ from the initial one.

What are the skills needed?

Only following the above described methods of quantitative and qualitative evidence gathering may not lead to an effective collection of data. To avoid gathering inaccurate results and poor data several skills have to be acquired. Some of these you may already have and others may be important to develop or improve. The following list will provide a few simple tips to increase the effectiveness of your advocacy evaluation efforts.

Formulating questions in right is a very complex but often underestimated issue. First of all, the use of leading questions should be avoided. For instance, do not ask if "the cold weather" has impacted their decision to not participate, but rather ask: "Why did you not participate?" Using open questions avoids sending someone towards a particular answer.

Furthermore, when conducting a survey, make sure, that besides letting someone choose only between your predetermined answers, they always get an "other" option, to enable him to express his thoughts.

When giving feedback bear in mind that not all feedback comes via the written or spoken word, but there is also an artistic response. Carefully observe the way your interview expresses himself or how he is structuring his answer. Moreover, people tend to speak more open and freely if you consult them about their opinion and encourage them giving them continuous attention. It is important that, if you receive feedback, you acknowledge it, thank him or her and explain how you have used it. Additionally, do not be afraid of using digital technology to receive feedback.

Online tools, like Web cams, online conferences and telephone can make your evaluation easier.

As mentioned above, through quantitative methods, we can collect numerical data. Numbers and figures provide facts and that people are going to believe it is more likely. Therefore, it is crucial, as far as it is possible, to turn qualitative information into a number. For instance, asking questions with limited choices, will make it easier to give a percentage of people who have chosen a certain option.

Moreover, picking a truly random sample to make sure that it reflects the views of the population they represent, is crucial. It depends on how detailed you need to get. An online survey sample might be a good tool if your target group is primarily and often using the web (The Aspen Institute, 2011).

How can capacities be improved?

Carrying out an advocacy campaign will certainly require a lot of effort and may even involve huge costs. To overcome these obstacles and work more efficiently we may rely on increasing our capacities. Not advocating alone but allying with other organizations and building coalitions will increase the likelihood of having an effective campaign and reaching our goals. Furthermore, even whole national or transnational advocacy networks may evolve to fight for a common cause. Benefits and costs as well as the structure and the formation of alliances and networks will be discussed below.

Benefits and Costs

The ability to structure alliances and other actors has to be considered as one of the main elements of trying to be influential and successful in our advocacy campaign. Building alliances, or joining them, will give us the possibility to both enlarge our audience as well as get support for the issue we are advocating for. Moreover, the critical mass behind our cause and our credibility in front of key actors will be reinforced. Additionally, our political weight and negotiation power will be improved. Through this, our advocacy campaign may rely on stronger foundations. Furthermore, through the establishment of alliances with other actors, or even simply building good relationships with them, it becomes possible to concretely share among one another respective resources, skills, knowledge, networks and experiences. On the contrary, in joining an alliance, it is generally known that the main cost consists in a possible loss of autonomy of its members[28].

Depending on the degree of cohesion and legitimacy, one may distinguish between networks, alliances and coalitions[29]. However, the general functions of these terms can be considered as similar and throughout this paper, we will not differentiate between them. To gain a basic understanding of how alliances emerge and how they are structured we have to be aware of certain dynamics that will now be introduced.

External and Internal dimension of alliances

First of all, one must distinguish between two main phases: the formation and the management phase of alliances[31]. Whenever we are forming or joining an alliance we usually have high expectations related to the benefits mentioned above, but we must also be aware of the fact, that the management of an alliance, as well as the division of paths with other actors, may include costs and risks. Again, before moving closer together with others, we must acquire additional information related to the so-called internal dimensions of alliances. There may be differences in strength of the actors that are joining the alliance, alongside with the existence of possible conflicts or convergences among allies' particular interests, or the common cause. Bargaining between allies could be affected by these elements and the decision to form an alliance, as well as a good management of it, should take this information into account. Alliances are complex phenomena, whose dynamics require a deep understanding and particular attention. Although it is generally accepted, that the members of a coalition simply work closely together in order to achieve a shared objective, alliances' dynamics are often more complex and deep.

Besides their external dimensions and the common cause on which allies decide to share a path together[32], we have to be aware that each member of an alliance has its own particular interests and priorities as well as a different specific level of influence in relation to other members. The dynamics that follow represent the base of inter-alliance relations, and constitute the internal dimensions of alliances, which are equally (if not even more) important to consider than the external ones33.

Most of the time, allies don't act as a unique body and their cooperation should be considered only as a consequence of their momentary common goal. In fact, relations among the members of an alliance go beyond the pursuit of achieving their mutual goals. In order to better understand the hypothetical expectations an alliance could hold, as well as to choose the right

partner(s), we have to be able to recognize and analyze some important dynamics underlying the phenomenon of alliances. Moreover, we must consider the capabilities of each member and the resulting influence, which is the strategic force that each member will have in relation to the others. This will allow us to distinguish between symmetrical and asymmetrical alliances. Additionally, we have to distinguish between the interests of the coalition as a whole and the interests of its members. As a consequence, we may be able to understand the degree of hetero- or homogeneity among the allies' interests. A good understanding of these dynamics is crucial to foresee, and hopefully avoid, potential problems between allies.

Symmetrical and Asymmetrical Alliances

The distinction between symmetrical and asymmetrical alliances, may be useful for gaining a theoretical understanding of the main dynamics that most likely could affect relations and bargaining among allies. As discussed above, actors are more likely to form or join alliances when benefits of doing so are greater than costs, which Snyder (1997) argues is normally associated with the possible loss of autonomy of its members. Indeed, in order to coordinate their policy, allies could run into general constraints of their freedom of action. Therefore, the necessity to negotiate and mediate with partners must be considered as the base of every good alliance. A good level of understanding of the type of dependence that binds allies may be useful to shed light on the available bargaining spaces that are present among each partner. Hence, in order to distinguish between symmetrical and asymmetrical alliances, one should be aware of the "strategic force" of each actor. This can be defined as "the combination of the degree of control over certain resources, and the importance that the other actors attribute to such resources" (Cesa, 2001).

- Symmetrical alliance

Following this statement, one can affirm that an alliance in which the members are endowed with approximatively the same amount of capacities and strengths, is deemed to be a symmetrical alliance. Under these kind of circumstances, relations between allies will be of mutual benefit and, in case of unexpected disagreements, a compromise between allies will be easier to achieve. The bargaining range between allies, described as "the space delimited by the possible agreements both parties would rather come to an agreement than to have no agreement at all" (Cesa 2010), will most likely be wider. Indeed, bargaining dynamics will lie on safer foundations as each actor will be endowed with important resources desired by the other ally and a similar

strategic force. Moreover, restraints among them will be reciprocal as well as the need to share a path together.

- Asymmetrical alliance

However, if members' capacities are starkly different and the imbalance of power among them is evident, one is facing an asymmetrical alliance. In this case, if power relations are heavily weighted to one side, relationships amongst allies could be based on more unstable foundations and different dynamics such as the dominance of the strongest ones and the dependence of the others. The alliance's strategy and decisions could reflect the imbalance in power relations among allies. Therefore, alliances´ relationships could be characterized by a hanging tension among its members.

As mentioned above, the ability to modify ones´ preferred policy to suit the coalitions´ priorities, has to be considered as the base of every good alliance. However, in the case of asymmetrical alliances, these dynamics tend to be replaced by dynamics that are less supportable for the weakest members of the coalition. Even though, one may not consider this as a rule, UNICEF (2010) argues that one has to be aware of the fact that these actors could fear to be over-powered by the coalition or its strongest members and that, sometimes, this is the reason why smaller organizations may be reluctant to join an alliance with larger ones present.

- Homogeneous and Heterogeneous Alliances

It is logical to presume that, most of the time, allies do not share similar principles, perspective and priorities and that, in order to form an alliance, this is neither a necessity nor a priority. However, the level of compatibility among allies' particular interests and causes, as well as the strength of the common cause, can be useful to have an idea of the level of solidity a coalition could have. As Duroselle (1962) states, referring to international dynamics among states, one needs to distinguish between the interests of the alliance as a whole, and the particular interests of its members. The same dynamics can be considered relevant for many other levels of analysis, including the one related to organizations. One may assume, that relations among allies go beyond the achievement of the common cause and the consideration of the particular interests of each member will shed light on another important element of inter-ally dimension: the level of homogeneity and heterogeneity of the alliance. In this case, instead of the "strategic force" of

each ally, we may focus their attention on their particular interests in relation to the other members with the common cause.

If the common cause is strong enough to monopolize allies' priorities and actions, one may be engaged in a homogeneous alliance. There, the achievement of the common cause "will not be affected by requirements deriving from the particular causes and does not, in turn, prejudice pursuit of such particular causes" (Cesa 2010). Under this kind of circumstances, members will most likely coordinate their actions and strategies and the path towards the common goal may result easier or, at least, less problematic.

On the contrary, if allies' particular interests are not sufficiently compatible with each other, as well as with the common cause, one is most likely facing a heterogeneous alliance. Here the common cause could be overshadowed by individual causes and bargaining dynamics among allies could become more complex. Instead of focusing on the benefits of the coalition as a whole, allies could behave in a more opportunistic manner jeopardizing both the outcome of the campaign and the existence of the alliance.

The awareness of the inner level of heterogeneity an alliance has could be useful in assuming which kind of bargaining will take place between allies in case of disagreements. We can determine that bargaining between allies can essentially be of three varieties:

Accommodative bargaining

This dynamic should be recurring in homogeneous coalitions. As allies consider their shared interests to be more important than conflicting ones, they will be willing to find a shared solution to gain a common outcome, even if it would require a step back.

Coercive bargaining

Heterogeneous alliances are often affected by this kind of bargaining; especially if the alliance, beyond the heterogeneity, is asymmetrical and power relations are heavily weighted to one side. "Conflicting interests are deemed to be just as important as, or more important than, the shared interest" (Cesa 2010). In this case, the main risk is the withdrawal of one member's support or, worst-case scenario, the dissolution of the alliance.

Persuasive bargaining

One may consider this kind of bargaining as a middle grounds in which one of the members is aimed to convince the partner of the effectiveness of its position. However, in case of an undissolved disagreement, the reach of a compromise is rather likely and, unlike in coercive bargaining, the threat of a withdrawal of one allies' support has not to be considered. The common cause is here judged more important than particular ones in conflict.

In each of these cases, diplomacy has to be considered the priority and, to maximize diplomacy's effectiveness, one must be able to look at the inter-ally dimension from the point of view of the other members. As Morgenthau (1948) pointed out, diplomacy has three main tools at its disposal: persuasion, compromise and threat. The ability to persuade as well as the one to find a good compromise is one of the most important elements that has to be taken into account.

Conclusion

- We have to be clear with our allies about the advocacy issue proposed as well as with the focus of the alliance (the common cause).

- During the formation phase, expected benefits represent a strong incentive to join an alliance. Nevertheless, inter-ally relations, so the management of the alliance, is equally (if not even more) important to consider.

- We have to be aware of the difference in strength among actors that will join the alliance, as well as of the existence of both, possible conflicts and convergences among allies' particular interests. This will further determine the effectiveness of our advocacy campaign. Moreover, having this information we will probably be able to foresee which kind of bargaining will affect inter-ally relations.

- As alliances' benefits are several and remarkable, we may follow an expression and affirm that "the more the merrier". At the same time, we have to be aware of the fact, that overreaching for members could cause a deadlock and the paralysis of the alliance. W Riker's coalition theory (1962) argues that, in order to win, actors would prefer to form minimal-size coalitions; his "size principle" shows in fact the tendency of winning coalitions toward the minimal winning size. Instead of the more classical "accumulation of power" theory, the author speaks rather of mere sufficiency. To support the one view or

the other would be quite short-sighted; the decision should depend on the situation we are facing and on the cause we are going to advocate for and in respect of whom.

Practical Advice

- If the number of members is high, we have to consider the designation of an "executive office", in which to plan decisions and strategies with our partners as well as alliance's purpose, scope and priorities.
- We should be willing to compromise with our partners, by giving more importance to the common cause rather than to our particular interests.
- We should ensure communication and consultation among alliance's members.
- We have to monitor the situation regularly: both progress and complications.

Transnational advocacy networks

During the end of the 20th century state and non-state actors, such as international organizations, started to become more active. The recent interactions have built networks which consist of researchers and experts in a variety of fields as well as activists. These networks are called transnational advocacy networks. They are present transnationally, regionally and domestically and play a significant role in shaping social and cultural norms. By expanding their networks, international resources can be easily accessible and used to improve on a variety of situations such as the environment, human rights, transparency, ect. According to Keck and Sikkink (1999), "a transnational advocacy network includes those actors working internationally on an issue, who are bound together by shared values, a common discourse, and dense exchanges of information and services." The main objective of this is to exchange and mobilize information to persuade and influence powerful organizations and governments. Besides promoting norm convergence and harmonization at a regional and international level, they also focus on the implementation by pressuring target actors to adopt new policies. Therefore, transnational advocacy networks can be seen as political platforms were formal or informal negotiations take place. Even though transnational networks function in different ways, we can identify some characteristic patterns, tactics and strategies they use to gain influence.

What is a transnational advocacy network?

Networks in general are stressing fluid and open relations among knowledgeable actors who are working on a particular issue. They are called advocacy networks because advocates are defending causes of others or propositions while they are standing for persons or ideas. We can see that advocacy networks are formed to promote certain ideas, principles and norms. There are several actors in advocacy networks who may be present. International and domestic NGOs, local social movements, foundations, the media, churches, trade unions consumer organizations, intellectuals, international and intergovernmental organizations and executive and parliamentary branches may be among the actors that will play a role in these networks. Groups present in these networks are centered around certain values and ideas with the belief that individuals can make a difference. They are frequently exchanging information and services and organize efforts to gather information on issues affecting them.

Why and how transnational advocacy networks have emerged?

Since the nineteenth century, certain groups display characteristics of advocacy networks, but only during the last three decades have they witnessed a period of substantial growth in regards to their number, size, professionalism and complexity of their connections and networks. As a result of this, only recently can we consider them as transnational advocacy networks. In general, we can identify three main issues and conditions under which transnational advocacy networks are more likely to emerge.

First of all, if there is a lack of channels or if cooperation is not efficient enough for resolving a conflict, the boomerang pattern will be set into motion.
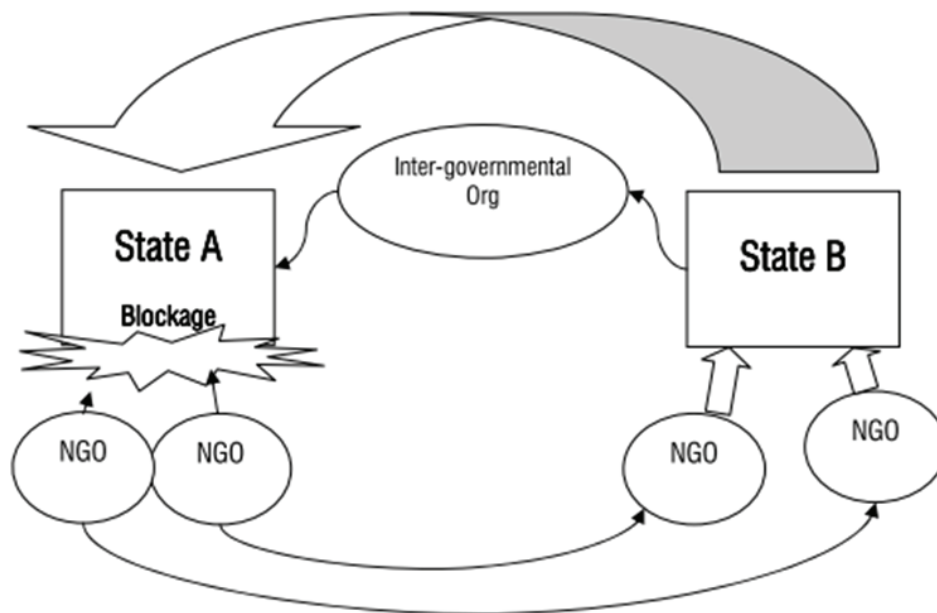
Figure 3.3: The Boomerang Pattern

When transnational advocacy networks build connections between activists from developed countries with others from less developed countries, they seek to influence the behavior of states. Through these connections international allies may be built to put pressure on their states from outside. This strategy is called the boomerang pattern, where the target of the actors is to change a states´ behavior.

Secondly, transnational advocacy networks appear when activists or political entrepreneurs want to promote their campaigns and missions effectively. They might use these networks as a tool to achieve this goal.

Thirdly, international conferences and other types of international dialogue may contribute to creation of new or strengthening of preexisting networks.

How do transnational advocacy networks work?

According to Sikkink and Keck (1998), transnational networks seek to influence in the same way that other political or social groups do, but they are not powerful in the traditional sense. Therefore, those networks have to create power by using their information, strategies and

ideas to edit information. To get an overview of the tactics those networks are using Keck and Sikkink (1999) have created a typology.

By using information politics, politically usable information has to be moved to where it has the most impact. In this case information is often transferred in an informal way, through telephone calls, e-mail, fax, newsletters, or pamphlets. They can make information comprehensible and accessible for activists who might be geographically or socially distant. By doing this, non-state actors can increase their influence and persuade and stimulate people to take action.

To experience the effective process of persuasion, several factors have to be considered. A clear and powerful message about the shared principles has to be released. Furthermore, by asking an NGO to seek out people who can give testimony or share their experiences about a particular issue, awareness of the issue will increase. One has to bear in mind that technical and statistical information can only have a significant impact in reaching and influencing people when individual cases and stories are provided along with them.

Moreover, the media or a particular journalist may play an important role when a medium for spreading information effectively is searched.

As a second tactic used by transnational advocacy networks we can have a look at symbolic politics. There, activists are trying to create and support explanations for their desired goals with the help of symbolic events. Due to these, awareness is raised and the process of persuasion will be facilitated. For instance, when in the summer of 1988 a drastic amount of rainforest burned down due to a heat period many people got convinced that global warming and deforestation are serious issues that are linked together.

Additionally, activists might follow the concept of leverage politics. In general, they are always concerned with political effectiveness, which they try to achieve by influencing governments or international institutions. To be successful they seek leverage over more powerful actors. For creating an effective network campaign, we have to differentiate between two kinds of leverage: the material and the moral one.

Material leverage is usually implemented after symbolic and information politics took place. It usually involves either money, goods, trade or prestige.

As a second leverage, we can identify a moral one. It is playing with the potential of shame state actors might deal with. When they value international prestige a mobilization of shame implemented by activists can be effective.

As a last tactic applied by transnational advocacy networks, we can identify accountability politics. To influence governments, networks and their activists push state actors to make commitments and chose a side in a certain issue. As soon as they have publicly announced their position, for instance in favor of human rights or the environment, they try to expose the difference between the government's promises and their real actions. This can be embarrassing for them so it provides an effective tool for the activists.

Under what conditions do advocacy networks have influence?

To determine the effectiveness of the influence advocacy networks can gain, we have to have a look at the different types and stages. These types often develop in a gradual manner until they reach their final impact. On the first stage we can see the process of issue creation and attention or agenda setting. This is usually done by provoking media attention, debates, hearings and meetings by raising issues which have not been discussed publicly before. Secondly, they can gain influence on positions of states and organizations. This is a crucial process to bring states and international organizations to change their declarations and policies. Moreover, transnational advocacy networks may not only gain influence on organizations and actors positions but as well on institutional procedures. At a more advanced level, they may be able to play a role in the actions their target actors take towards other states which were not directly manipulated by the network and its activists. As another stage we can identify the influence on policy change by targeting actors like states, international or regional organizations or private actors like companies. Finally, there is the level of influence a network can have on a states behavior. There the aim is not anymore to change the states behavior, but to rather hold them to their word.

Nevertheless, a successful change in a states or organizations behavior is more likely to occur when the first three of the above mentioned stages already took place. Additionally, whether there will be a significant impact or not initiated by the networks depends strongly on their strength and density and their ability to persuade others.

Furthermore, the authors have identified two main issues were such networks appear more often on an international basis. The first one, where there is bodily harm involved responds to a

normative logic, whereas the second type involving legal equality responds to a judicial and institutional one. Looking at the first issue, we can determine, that it is more likely to catch international attention, due to the fact that physical harm towards vulnerable or innocent individuals is involved. Since this topic is often an issue of interest beyond the own borders, the efficiency of transnational campaigns and a tightening of networks may increase. Therefore, we can see, that environmental campaigns in the past have been way more efficient, when the connection between the environmental damage and the harm it would cause to people has been stressed. According to Arneson (2002), for a successful campaign, an issue has to be converted into a ´causal story´. Within the story, the storyline has to be short and clear, to point out the parties involved and create a convincing case about their responsibility and guilt.

Analyzing the second issue, we can see, that transnational campaigns appear more often and be more effective, when it comes to legal equality of opportunity. Opportunity in this case means that all individuals have the same possibilities and chances to achieve or be what they want to. According to this claim, caste society systems or hierarchical orders do not determine the development and life of individuals. Probably one of the most effective campaigns was therefore the anti-apartheid one, following a legal denial of equality of opportunity.

Transnational networks and regional integration

As Sikkink and Keck (1998) stated, it is becoming more and more internationally accepted, that states no longer have the sole control over public affairs and that they do not look unitary from the outside anymore. An increase in the use of terms like international interactions also known as transnational relations, international civil society or global civil society can be experienced lately. This means, that interactions among individuals, groups and actors from states as well as from regional or international institutions seem to appear more often. Their interests are reaching and bringing together different parties on a worldwide basis.

We can see, that due to recent empirical work in sociology, experts came to the conclusion that we can speak of a diffusion of world culture. It appears due to an increase in activities by global intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations. Even though western human rights norms have certainly had an influence in defining a framework for many networks, most of them have been formed by cultural and political negotiations. By experiencing an increase in the connection and density of transnational advocacy networks, cultural differences,

for instance concerning human rights, were minimized.

Network theory, can provide us with an explanation for transnational change and give us an insight into how interconnection can lead to the formulation of shared norms and beliefs. Modern networks can therefore be promoters for communication and political exchange, with the possibility of influencing and changing the actions of participants and their targets.

Concord and Trialog

This section will provide an example of transnational advocacy networks through the efforts of Concord (2016), a European confederation of relief and development NGO's that achieved great success through cooperation and networking that took place during the Trialog project.

Concord, well known for their involvement within the institutions of the EU on development policy, driven by the idea of a poverty and inequality free world, are a massive network of institutions from all around Europe. Concord states (2016) they consist of 28 national associations, 20 international networks, and 3 associate members that represent over 2,600 NGO's. With the cooperation that was built amongst Concord's partners across its network, Concord was able to successfully execute its flagship operation Trialog. There is also a wealth of additional information on their website that you can find here: http://www.concordeurope.org/

The Trialog project (2015) was a massive fifteen yearlong project that began in 2000 aimed at NGO's in countries that were about to join the European Union, or new member states (NMS). The Trialog project's goals were to prepare NGOs' to be able to actively participate in their government's development policies by establishing national development platforms. Keep in mind, this project started in 2000, four years before the absorption of 10 of the 13 new member states. The beginning of the assimilation of the NMS was vital for the Trialog project to carry on its further plans. To support this process, TRIALOG has been leading activities in different fields including capacity building, information distribution, policy support, networking and advocacy on national and European level. Among these plans were to inspire NGO's to embark on advocacy campaigns of their own and to also support Concord, encourage NGO's to create dialogue about advocacy issues on a national and EU level, and to prepare NGO's to become new donors for international development. Although the Trialog project has ended in September of 2015, the plan was so major successful in the NMS that the model of the Trialog project is being

considered to be used again if the Western Balkans become EU candidate states/NMS. This video elaborates on the foresight demonstrated by Concord and details the success of the Trialog project: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VZwGV0_R6_A Concord also offers a booklet summarizing the efforts of the Trialog project over the past 15 years that you can find here: http://www.trialog.or.at/images/doku/trialog_15_years_supporting_cso_to_engage_in_developm ent.pdf Naturally, Concord is involved in more projects than just Trialog. The following link is one of Concord's recent works of bringing awareness to the masses, this time involving the amount of money that is given towards development. http://www.concordeurope.org/campaigns/aidwatch

Step 6: Assessing the success of the message

When formulating our message, we should take into account the audience. Messages that resonate with the audience either through emotional connection or some pre-existing belief will greatly aid us in achieving our goals. For this reason, it is important to assess our message. If the correct message is communicated via the appropriate method, it will reach the targeted audience. In the field of advocacy effectiveness of the campaign can be measured at two levels: formative and summative. Summative evaluation, as stated by Lewis (2008), will measure the changes in the targets' behavior, while formative evaluation measures the targets' reaction to the message.

Formative evaluation has two parts: one that precedes the formulation of the message. This is the phase, Coffman (2002) states, when we assess our audience: how they think about the issue at hand, what type of messages work for them, and what type of messengers to choose to achieve a successful campaign. The other is testing that is when we present draft messages to see the reaction of the audience, before finalizing the message.

Nowadays campaign goals and messages are increasingly formulated following thorough research of the audience. Effective campaigns usually do not target broad segments of the society, but multiple specialized audiences. Rice and Atkins (2013) argue that the formative evaluation helps identify high priority subgroups. Finding relatively homogenous focus groups is important in formulating our message. It also helps determine the kind of actions that could be used in the campaign, as well as eliminate behaviors that would be resisted by the audience. However, sometimes it is exactly these resistances that are targeted. These usually involve misconceptions or behavioral inhibitions. We must be informed of the audience's awareness of the issue of the campaign, because it helps us identify areas to work on. A good way of

evaluating the message is to have respondents go through a checklist of message options. It helps see which message ideas are the most effective and even the strengths and weaknesses of individual messages. Carrying out such surveys sets our direction and eliminates weaker approaches. They may even result in a completely new approach.

Now we are ready to create our draft message and test its effectiveness. Rice and Atkins (2013) state that when doing such tests, we look for five key reactions: the attention value of the message, it's comprehensibility, it's relevance to the intended audience, its strengths and weaknesses, and any sensitive and controversial elements. There are various techniques to be utilized in developing advocacy messages: focus group interviews, individual in-depth interviews, central-location intercept interviews, self-administered questionnaires, theatre testing and other techniques such as readability, usability, and gatekeeper review. These all help us in creating the most effective message for our targeted audience. Formative evaluation of the message helps design more effective campaign plans and messages, refine campaign strategies, avoid risks, and improve the quality of the final message.

Bibliography

Arneson, R. (2002) *Equality of Opportunity*. [Online] Available from:
http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/equal-opportunity/#LegEnfEquOpp
(Accessed: 24th February 2016)

Brugha, R., Varvasovszky, Z. (2000) *Health Policy and Planning; Stakeholder analysis: A Review*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Buckley, S. (2014) *Advocacy Strategies and Approaches: Overview Paper*. Association for Progressive Communications. [Online] Available from: https://www.apc.org/en/node/9456
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Business Innovation factory. (2014) *Decide on a Problem*. [Online] Available from:
http://td4ed.businessinnovationfactory.com/curriculum/define/decide-problem
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Carboni, N. (2009) *Advocacy Groups in the Multilevel System of the European Union: a Case Study in Health Policy-Making*. Bruxelles: Observatoire Social Européen. [Online] Available from: http://www1.worldbank.org/publicsector/anticorrupt/PoliticalEconomy/PDFVersion.pdf
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Cesa, M. (2010) *Allies yet Rivals: International Politics in 18th Century Europe*. Stanford University Press. p.1-3.

Cesa, M. (2010) *Allies yet Rivals: International Politics in 18th Century Europe*. Stanford University Press. p. 56.

Cesa, M. (2010) *Allies yet Rivals: International Politics in 18th Century Europe*. Stanford University Press. p. 61.

Cesa, M. (2010) *Allies yet Rivals: International Politics in 18th Century Europe*. Stanford University Press pp. 63-67.

Cesa, M. (2014) *Machiavelli on International Relations*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, p.127

Coffman, J. (2002) *Public Communication Campaign Evaluation*. Harvard Family Research Project, p. 13

Community Tool Box. (2015) *Section 1. How to conduct Research: An Overview*. [Online] Available from: http://ctb.ku.edu/en/table-of-contents/advocacy/advocacy-research/overview/main
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Concord. (2016) *About us. Concord: The european NGO confideration for relief and development*. [Online] Available from: http://www.concordeurope.org/about-us
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

De Toma, C. (2012) *Advocacy Toolkit: Guidance on how to advocate for a more enabling environment for civil society in your context.* pp. 39-42. [Online] (Available at: http://www.cso-effectiveness.org/-global-report,052-.html)
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Duroselle, J. (1962) *Paix et guerre entre les nations*, *La theorie des relations internationales selon Raymond Aron*. Revue francaise de science politique, vol. 12, pp.963-979

Fenton communications. (2009) *Now hear this. The 9 Laws of Successful Advocacy Communications*. Fenton communications. p.7

Flowers, N., Goyal, R. (2003) *Developing effective advocacy campaigns*. [Online] Available from: https://atmire.com/dspace-labs3/bitstream/handle/123456789/11875/Guide_DevelopingEffectiveAdvocacyCampaigns.pdf?sequence=1
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Lewis, J. (2008) *Advocacy for Gifted Children and Gifted Programs.* Texas: Prufrock Press Inc., pp. 24-25.

Machiavelli, N. (1506) *Letter to Giovanni Ridolfi*.

Morgenthau, M. (1948) *Politics among Nations: the struggle for power and peace*. New York: Political Science Quaterly.

PHR Toolkits. (2010) *Advocacy: Demanding Change*. [Online] Available from: http://phrtoolkits.org/toolkits/student-chapter-toolkit/advocacy-and-education/advocacy/
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Researchproposalsforhealthprofessionals. (n.d.) *Data Collection (Quantitative Research)*. [Online] Available from: http://www.researchproposalsforhealthprofessionals.com/data_collection%20quantitative.htm
(Accessed: 24th February 2016)

Rice, R., Atkin, C. (2013) *Public Communication Campaigns*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications Inc., p. 57-58

Rice, R., Atkin, C. (2013) *Public Communication Campaigns*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications Inc., p. 62-63

Riker, W. (1962) *The Theory of Political Coalitions*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press. pp. 300

Save the Children. (2007) *Advocacy and Campaigning. Identifying and influencing advocacy targets*. p. 5

Save the Children. (2007) *Advocacy and Campaigning. Identifying and influencing advocacy targets*. p. 9

Schmeer, K. (1999) *Guidelines for conducting a stakeholder analysis*. Bethesda, MD: Partnerships for Health reform, Abt Associates Inc.

Sikkink, K., Keck, M. (1998) *Transnational advocacy networks in international and regional politics*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press. [Online] Available from: (http://isites.harvard.edu/fs/docs/icb.topic446176.files/Week_7/Keck_and_Sikkink_Transnational_Advocacy.pdf

(Accessed: 24th February 2016)

Snyder, G. (1997) *Alliance Politics*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press

TACSO. (2011). *Advocacy and Policy Influencing for Social Change.* Sarajevo: TACSO. pp.162-164

The Aspen Institute. (2011) *Skill Building 101: Basic qualitative and Quantitative Skills for Advocacy Evaluation*. [Online] Available from: http://fp.continuousprogress.org/node/93
(Accessed: 24th February 2016)

Thomas, J., Nelson, J., Silverman, S. (2015) *Research Methods in Physical Activity*. 7th Ed. [Online] Available from: http://www.humankinetics.com/excerpts/excerpts/explore-four-methods-for-collecting-qualitative-research
(Accessed: 24th February 2016)

Trialog. (n.d.) *After Trialog*. [Online] Available from:
http://www.trialog.or.at/news-list
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

UHR. (n.d.) *Writing S.M.A.R.T Goals*. [Online] Available from:
http://www.hr.virginia.edu/uploads/documents/media/Writing_SMART_Goals.pdf
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

UNICEF. (2010) *Advocacy Toolkit.* New York: UNICEF. pp. 15-51. [Online] Available from:
http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/Advocacy_Toolkit.pdf
(Accessed: 22th of February 2016)

UNICEF. (2010) *Advocacy Toolkit.* New York: UNICEF. p. 71 [Online] Available from:
http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/Advocacy_Toolkit.pdf
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

UNICEF. (2010) *Advocacy Toolkit.* New York: UNICEF. pp.100-102. [Online] Available from:
http://www.unicef.org/evaluation/files/Advocacy_Toolkit.pdf
(Accessed: 22th of February 2016)

University of Surrey. (n.d.) *Module 9: Introduction to Research*. [Online] Available from:

http://libweb.surrey.ac.uk/library/skills/Introduction%20to%20Research%20and%20Managing%20Information%20Leicester/page_60.htm
(Accessed: 24th February 2016)

University Wisconsin Eau Claire. (n.d.) *Data Collection Methods*. [Online] Available from: https://people.uwec.edu/piercech/ResearchMethods/Data%20collection%20methods/DATA%20COLLECTION%20METHODS.htm
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

USC Libraries. (2016) *Organizing your social Sciences Research Paper: Quantitative Methods*. [Online] Available from: http://libguides.usc.edu/writingguide/quantitative
(Accessed: 22th February 2016)

Walt, S. (1990) *The origin of alliance.* Ithaca: Cornell University Press

Water Aid. (2007) *The Advocacy Sourcebook.* London: Water Aid. pp. 79-80

Word Press. (n.d.) Transnational Advocacy Networks. [Online] Available from: https://bluean9el.wordpress.com/2011/11/22/transnational-advocacy-networks-tan/

(Accessed: 24th February 2016)

Young, E., Quinn, L. (2012) *Making Research Evidence Matter, A Guide to Policy Advocacy in Transition Countries*. Budapest: Open Society Foundations. pp. 69-95.

Young, E., Quinn, L. (2012) *Making Research Evidence Matter. A Guide to Policy Advocacy in Transition Countries*. Budapest: Open Society Foundations. p. 119

Young, E., Quinn, L. (2012) *Making Research Evidence Matter. A Guide to Policy Advocacy in Transition Countries*. Budapest: Open Society Foundations. p. 133

Young, E., Quinn, L. (2012) *Making Research Evidence Matter. A Guide to Policy Advocacy in Transition Countries*. Budapest: Open Society Foundations. p. 137

This guidebook was written by Balazs Czottner, Sophie Dieber, Rutger Nijhof, Marco Scardovi and Drake William Wiza,