

What To Do When Stakeholders Matter: A Guide to Stakeholder Identification and Analysis Techniques

By

Prof. John M. Bryson
Hubert H. Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs
245 Humphrey Center
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, MN 55455
612-625-5888
jmbryson@hhh.umn.edu

and

Visiting Professor for 2002-03 Academic Year
Graduate School of Business
University of Strathclyde
199 Cathedral Street
Glasgow G4 0QU
Scotland

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Abstract

This paper begins with a review of the *stakeholder* concept in the literature on public and nonprofit management. The literature concurs on the need for stakeholder support to create winning coalitions, and to ensure the long-term viability of organizations, policies, plans, and programs, as well as communities, and even nations. Yet *stakeholder analyses* appear to be done far less frequently than might be advisable, so in the next section explores various reasons for this neglect. Next, a range of *stakeholder identification and analysis techniques* are reviewed. The techniques cover: getting started with stakeholder analyses; problem or issue identification; proposal development, review, and adoption; implementation; and participation process design. The paper argues that wise use of stakeholder analyses can help frame problems or issues that are solvable in ways that are technically feasible and politically acceptable, and that advance the common good. The paper's concluding section presents a number of recommendations for practice, research, and management education.

What To Do When Stakeholders Matter: A Guide to Stakeholder Identification, Analysis, and Influence Techniques¹

By
John M. Bryson

Introduction

The word "stakeholder" has assumed a prominent place in public and nonprofit management theory and practice in the last 20 years, and especially in the last decade. The term refers to persons, groups or organizations that must somehow be taken into account by leaders, managers, and front-line staff. Research and writing on the subject has both contributed to the rise in the use of the term, and to knowledge about what it might mean in practice. Ironically, while the term has passed the "tipping point" into common use (Gladwell, 2000) and the notion that key stakeholders must be attended to is an idea "in good currency" (Schon, 1971), there is remarkably little in the public and nonprofit literatures on exactly how to systematically identify and analyze stakeholders. This article is a response to that deficit and offers a start at rectifying that situation.

First, however, it is important to note that the stakeholder concept has a long history and broad applicability. At least as early as 1708 the term meant "a person entrusted with the stakes of bettors" who must deliver the stakes to the winner of the contest (Merrian-Webster Collegiate Dictionary, 10th Edition, 1998). The meaning of stakeholder in this sense carried a fiduciary responsibility. Later, a second meaning was added, so that a stakeholder became "one who has a share or an interest, as in an enterprise" (American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 4th Edition, 2000). This latter definition eliminates, or at least masks, the idea that the stakeholder has

¹ I would like to thank my colleagues Fran Ackermann, Colin Eden, and Charles Finn for their insights into the nature of stakeholder identification and analysis techniques. I would also like to thank Stephen Osborne for encouraging the preparation of this paper. Earlier versions of the paper were presented to senior managers of the United States Forest Service and to the Research Seminar of the Graduate School of Business at the University of Strathclyde. Partial funding for the research on which the paper is based came from the 2002-03 University of Minnesota Extension Service – Humphrey Institute of Public Affairs Memorandum of Understanding.

any fiduciary responsibility; instead, the stakeholder is essentially a claimant toward whom others may or may not have a fiduciary responsibility.

It is this latter definition that has predominated in the business management literature, where W. Edward Freeman wrote the classic text, *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach* (1984). In that work Freeman defined a stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives" (46).² The latter definition also is the one that has predominated in the public and nonprofit management literatures. Typical definitions of stakeholder from these literatures include the following variants:

- "....." Nutt and Backoff, 1992
- "Any person, group, or organization that can place a claim on the organization's attention, resources or output, or is affected by that output" (Bryson, 1995, 27)
- "People or small groups with the power to respond to, negotiate with, and change the strategic future of the organization" (Eden and Ackermann, 1998, 117)

The sample definitions from the public and nonprofit management literatures differ in how inclusive they are. To Eden and Ackermann, for example, stakeholders can only be people or groups who have the power to directly affect the organization's future; absent that power, they are not stakeholders. In contrast, Nutt and Backoff and Bryson urge consideration of a broader array of people, groups, or organizations as stakeholders, including the nominally powerless. In addition, while there is no explicit ethical content in any of the three definitions, Nutt and Backoff's and Bryson's definitions would seem to be more compatible with typical approaches to democracy and social justice, in which the interest of the nominally powerless must be given weight (Lebacqz, 1986; Boyte and Kari, 1996; Stone, 1997). The decision about how to define stakeholders therefore is consequential, as it affects *who* and *what* counts (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997). On ethical

grounds at least, it therefore would appear to be wise to begin any stakeholder identification and analysis procedures with a more inclusive definition (Lewis, 1991).³

While specific stakeholder definitions vary, this literature concurs in the need for stakeholder support to create and sustain winning coalitions (Riker 1986; Baumgartner and Jones, 1993) and to ensure long-term viability of organizations (Eden and Ackermann 1998; Bryson, Gibbons and Shaye 2000; Abramson and Kamensky, 2001), as well as policies, plans, and programs (Bryson and Crosby 1992; Baumgartner and Jones 1993; Roberts and King 1996; Jacobs and Shapiro 2000). Key stakeholders must be satisfied at least minimally, or public policies, organizations, communities, or even countries and civilizations will fail (Huntingdon, 1996; Friedman 2000).

Why Stakeholder Analyses Have Become Important

² It is worth noting that Freeman also has been a leader in the development of what are called "stakeholder theories of the firm," in which the ethical responsibilities of the firm toward its various "legitimate" stakeholders are emphasized (Freeman, 1984; Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997).

³ Regardless of which definition is chosen, however, it is possible to see that a concern for stakeholders occupies a central role in the humanities and social sciences. There are differences in the specific categories used to label different stakeholders, but the ubiquity and importance of the concept are clear. In other words, while the term *stakeholder* may be essentially a management term, it points to an extremely broad range of actors that are attended to by a broad range of subject matter disciplines relevant to management. For example, consider the following fields and the characteristic stakeholders to which they attend:

- **Political science** – interests, publics, constituencies, citizens, formal office holders (e.g., Dahl 1990; Roberts and King 1996; Baumgartner and Jones 1993; Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith 1999)
- **Economics** – stockholders, management, employees, suppliers, consumers, unions, bankers, regulators, policy makers (e.g., Porter, 1998a, b, c and d)
- **Business, public, and nonprofit management and marketing** – owners, managers, employees, suppliers, funders, customers, service recipients, competitors, collaborators, policy makers, regulators, communities (e.g., Freeman 1984; Nutt and Backoff 1992; Boschken 1994, 2002; Bryson 1995; Rowley 1997; Eden and Ackermann 1998; Bryson, Cunningham, and Lokkesmoe, 2002; and Nutt, 2002)
- **Ethics and the law** – in ethics: who and what counts (e.g., Lewis, 1991); in law: the courts, judges, lawyers, juries, parties with and without standing, plaintiffs, defendants, law enforcement officials, probation and prison services (e.g., Cooper, 1996)
- **Public planning** – policy makers, organizational leaders, planners, citizens, taxpayers, communities, developers, employers, society as a whole, future generations (e.g., Kaufman 1986; Christensen 1993; Healey 1997; Forester 1999)
- **Public policy analysis** – policy makers, interests, beneficiaries and payers, society as a whole, future generations (e.g., Dunn, 1994; Weimar and Vining, 1998)

Stakeholders of various kinds also play an important role in more specialized theories and practices related to, for example, community organizing (e.g., Kahn, 1991, 1994), community development (e.g., Asian Development Bank Institute, 19xx), conflict management and dispute resolution (e.g., Thompson, 2001), collaboration (e.g., Bardach, 1998; Huxham and Vangen, 2002; Huxham, forthcoming), consensus building (e.g., Innes, 1996; Susskind et al., 1999), coalition formation (Riker, 1986), game theory (e.g., Bryant, 2002), and military strategy (e.g., Smith, 2002).

Stakeholder analyses no doubt have always been important. For example, Barbara Tuchman (1984) in her sobering history, *The March of Folly from Troy to Vietnam*, recounts a series of disastrous misadventures that followed in the footsteps of ignoring the interests of, and information held by, key stakeholders. She concludes, "Three outstanding attitudes – obliviousness to the growing disaffection of constituents, primacy of self-aggrandizement, and the illusion of invulnerable status – are persistent aspects of folly."

The story continues with Paul Nutt's *Why Decisions Fail* (2002), a careful analysis of 400 strategic decisions. Nutt finds that half of the decisions "failed" – that is, they were not implemented, only partially implemented, or otherwise produced poor results – in large part because decision makers failed to attend to the interests of and information held by key stakeholders. Other quantitative studies report broadly similar findings with respect to the importance of paying attention to stakeholders (e.g., Bryson, Bromiley and Jung, 1990; Bryson and Bromiley, 1993). Failure to attend to the information and concerns of stakeholders clearly is a kind of flaw in thinking or action that too often and too predictably leads to poor performance, outright failure, or even disaster.

Stakeholder analyses are arguably more important than ever because of the increasingly interconnected nature of the world. Choose any public problem – economic development, poor educational performance, natural resources management, crime, AIDS, global warming, terrorism – and it is clear that "the problem" encompasses or affects numerous people, groups, and organizations. No one is fully in charge; no organization "contains" the problem. Instead, many individuals, groups, and organizations are involved, or affected, or have some partial responsibility to act. Figuring out what the problem is and what solutions might work are actually part of the problem (Bryson and Crosby, 1992; Bardach, 1998).

Governmental and nonprofit reforms across the world are also prompting the need for more attention to stakeholder analyses (Peters, 1996; Osborne and Plastrik, 1997, 2000; Light, 1997; Barzelay, 2001; Kettl, 2002). Peters (1996), for example, identifies four emerging models of

governance that imply differing reasons for doing stakeholder analyses. The *market model* sees monopoly as the major reason why governments do not perform better. A move to market-based reforms places a premium on attention to customers, an important category of stakeholders. The *participative government model* sees hierarchy as the key problem. Flattening hierarchy and more consultation, negotiation, and participation generally by employees and other stakeholders is the solution. The *flexible government model* thinks the permanence of government agencies is the problem and the way to keep government more responsive to stakeholders is to emphasize "virtual organizations," temporary personnel, experimentation, and coordination. It is hard to imagine these things being done well without effective stakeholder analyses to back them up. Finally, *deregulated government* involves freeing up government from too many regulations and too much red tape. Deregulated government is expected to prompt responsiveness to key stakeholders by providing the managerial freedom and encouragement of entrepreneurial behavior necessary to respond. In each of these models, the need to manage relationships is part and parcel of the need to govern, to the point that Feldman and Khademian (2002) assert "to manage is to govern." And it is hard to imagine effectively managing relationships without making use of carefully done stakeholder analyses.

Beyond that, competently done stakeholder analyses would appear to be a "smart practice," which Bardach defines as a "method of interacting with a situation that is intended to produce some result; ... [and] also involves taking advantage of some latent opportunity for creating value on the cheap" (1998, p. 36). Stakeholder analyses are smart because they are quite easy to do; are hardly time- and resource-intensive, particularly when matched against the costs of potential failure; and would seem to go hand in hand with the "craft" (Lynn, 1996, pp. 89-108; Bardach, 1998, pp. 19-51, 306-323) of "creating public value" (Moore, 1995). In short, stakeholder analyses are crucial both to finding ideas worth implementing and to assessing and enhancing political feasibility (Meltzer, 1972; Van Horn, Baumer, and Gormley, 2001), especially when it comes to articulating and achieving the common good (Bryson, Cunningham, and Lokkesmoe, 2002).

Reasons Why People Do Not Undertake Stakeholder Analyses

In spite of the widely acknowledged importance of attending to stakeholder interests and information, especially in democratic contexts, and in spite of various approaches to public and nonprofit sector reform seeming to prompt them, it is surprising how infrequently or perfunctorily stakeholder analyses seem to be performed. I know of no systematic assessment of the use of stakeholder analyses by public or nonprofit organizations. However, recorded case studies of planned change are typically silent on what methods, if any, are used to analyze stakeholders, other than normal conversation (e.g., Bryson and Bromiley, 1993; Forester, 1999; Nutt, 2002). My own experience as a consultant to governments and nonprofit organizations has demonstrated how difficult it can be to get planning groups to undertake stakeholder analyses. At first I assumed that stakeholder analyses were infrequent because people simply did not know how to do them. Now, however, I have come to see the reluctance of people to engage in careful stakeholder analyses as an important research issue in its own right.

In this section I review a variety of reasons why people might choose not to do stakeholder analyses. What unites these reasons seems to be an underlying fear or worry of some sort, a fear not counter-balanced by any guarantee of a positive outcome overall from engaging in the analyses. The fear might be of wasted time or resources; exposure of incompetence; political, organizational, job-related or other changes; identity or boundary-related work; emotions and conflict, and so on. Whatever the source of fear, the perceived benefits of doing the analyses are outweighed by the perceived costs of doing them; and the calculation of costs and benefits is strongly colored by emotion, if not dominated by it.

The reasons why people might not do stakeholder analyses fall into a number of different categories:

The State of Prior Knowledge

The potential analysts' existing knowledge base accounts for two of the reasons. First, people simply may not know how to do stakeholder analyses, including not knowing how or when to start or stop. The analyses are mostly quite simple, but people still have to know how to do them. This ignorance can cause the fear of having one's incompetence exposed. The second, and very different, knowledge-related reason is that people may think they already know all they need to know about stakeholders, and therefore can see no benefit from doing stakeholder analyses. In my experience, people who think this way are often demonstrating a different kind of ignorance, one that can border on hubris, which is underlain with a fear of being exposed in some way.

Resource-Related Issues

A number of reasons relate to resources. People may think they do not have the time or resources for the analyses. Alternatively, they may believe there are not enough resources for the stakeholder involvements that the analyses might prompt. In other words, the belief appears to be that stakeholder analyses entail a bias toward inclusion. In extreme versions, this presumed bias leads people to argue that stakeholder analyses imply a call for "consensus decision-making," which they see as the opposite of, or as getting in the way of, leadership and action. The belief seems to have less to do with what stakeholder analyses really are than with a fear of losing power or control.

Concern About What the Analyses Would Reveal

Fear of what the stakeholder analyses might reveal accounts for a number of reasons why the analyses might not be undertaken. For example, people might not want the analyses made public, since they may be embarrassing or otherwise upsetting for different stakeholders, including the analyzers. Or the analyses might raise or reveal issues of power, conflict, or accountability that people would rather leave hidden. Alternatively, the analyses might raise or reveal ethical or moral issues that, again, people would rather not address. Or people might not want to do the identity-related work that stakeholder analyses almost always prompt, as identity is created in part through taking account of the expectations of others (Dutton and Dukerich, 1991; Weick, 1995). Or they

might not want to do the boundary-spanning work that stakeholder analyses are likely to prompt (Feldman and Khadamian, 2002). Or finally, they may be worried about the emotions that stakeholder analyses are likely to evoke (Andersen and Guerro, 1998).

Concern That the Analyses Might Be Destabilizing

There may be a variety of reservations associated with the potential destabilizing effects of doing stakeholder analyses. In other words, people may prefer the *status quo* to potential changes the analyses might prompt – changes beyond simply revealing troublesome information. For example, people may not want to change prevailing problem or issue definitions, or existing strategies tied to those definitions, and think stakeholder analyses or involvements may lead to doing so (Baumgartner and Jones, 1993; Rochefort and Cobb, 1994). Alternatively, people may not want to face up to problems or issues, and so do not do stakeholder analyses, because they fear that if they do, they will not be able to avoid the problems or issues.

Another kind of destabilization can occur if stakeholder analysis skill becomes broadly shared. Stakeholder analysis ability is a very valuable skill. Individuals who have that skill may not wish to share it, because doing so may diminish their hold on a scarce resource and therefore their power. For example, some chief executives may see stakeholder analysis as what they do, and not anyone else. In a related way, extensive and effective use of stakeholder analyses might diminish the need for “fire fighting,” which is something the skilled fire fighters might not want, as it would diminish their control of a scarce resource (Pfeffer, 1996).

Ethical concerns

Finally, some people may not want to do stakeholder analyses because they see them as actually or potentially manipulative in their effects. Alternatively, people may see the analyses as involving illegitimately speaking for others, and therefore as raising issues of representation and credibility, if the stakeholders themselves are not present.

In sum, there are numerous reasons why people might choose not to do stakeholder analyses. Some seem much more legitimate than others. But whatever the reasons, they must be balanced against the arguments for doing stakeholder analyses; namely, that they can provide information that is potentially extremely valuable in creating and sustaining winning coalitions, and to ensuring the long-term viability of policies, plans, and programs; organizations; communities; and even countries. In short, the key to success in public and nonprofit organizations, and in the public domain generally, is that satisfaction of key stakeholders according to their criteria for satisfaction. If they are not satisfied, at least minimally, according to their criteria for satisfaction, you can bet something will change – for example, budgets will be cut, elected officials will lose their jobs, new initiatives will be undermined, and so on.

Who Should Be Involved in Doing the Analyses?

Stakeholder analyses are undertaken for a purpose and that purpose should be articulated before the analyses begin. The purpose should guide the choices concerning who should be involved in the analyses, and how. Typically, stakeholder analyses are undertaken as part of policy, plan, or strategy change exercises; or organizational development efforts. Different analyses will be needed at different stages in these processes.

Deciding who should be involved, how, and when in doing stakeholder analyses is a key strategic choice, one in which both the devil and the angels are in the details. In general, people should be involved if they have information that cannot be gained otherwise, or if their participation is necessary to assure successful implementation of initiatives built on the analyses (Thomas, 1993, 1995). Fortunately, "the choice" actually can be approached as a sequence of choices, in which first an individual or small planning group begins the effort and then others are added later as the advisability of doing so becomes apparent (Finn, 1995).

One way to approach the task is as a five-step process in which a decision can be made to stop any time after the first step. You might stop at any point it appears advisable to do so, for

example, because you have enough information and support to proceed, timelines are short, the analyses are too sensitive, or some other good reason. The steps are as follows:

- Someone or some small planning group needs to initiate the process by doing a preliminary stakeholder analysis, for example, using the Basic Analysis Technique or Power versus Interest Grid discussed below. This step is useful in helping sponsors and champions of the change or development effort think strategically about how to create the ideas and coalitions needed for the effort to reach a successful conclusion. This step is typically is "back room" work (Eden and Ackermann, 1998)
- After reviewing the results of this analysis, a larger group of stakeholders can be assembled. This meeting can be viewed as the more public beginning of the change effort. The assembled group should be asked to brainstorm the list of stakeholders who might need to be involved in the change effort. Again, the Basic Analysis Technique or Power versus Interest Grid might be used as a starting point.
- After this analysis have been completed, the group should be encouraged to think carefully about who is not at the meeting who should be at subsequent meetings. The group should consider actual or potential stakeholder power, legitimacy, and attention-getting capacity (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997). The group should carefully think through the positive and negative consequences of involving – or not – other stakeholders or their representatives, and in what ways to do so.
- After these conversations have been completed, the "full" group should be assembled – the group that includes everyone who should be involved in the stakeholder analyses. The previous analyses may need to be repeated, at least in part, with the full group present, in order to get everyone "on board," "on the same page," and "bought in," and to make any needed corrections of modifications to prior analyses.

- Lastly, after the full group has met, it should be possible to finalize the various groups who will have some role to play in the change effort: sponsors and champions, coordinating group, planning team, and various advisory or support groups (Bryson and Roering, 1988; Friend and Hickling, 1997, 257-65).⁴

Note that this staged process embodies a kind of technical, political, and ethical rationality. The process is designed to gain needed information, build political acceptance, and address at least some of the questions about legitimacy, representation and credibility noted in the previous section. Stakeholders are included when there are good and prudent reasons to do so, but not when their involvement is impractical, unnecessary, or imprudent. A certain amount of collective wisdom is used to inform these choices. Clearly, the choices of whom to include, how, and when are freighted with questions of value, and are perhaps fraught as well, but there is no way of escaping the need for wise and ethical judgments if the common good is to be advanced (Vickers, 1995; Frederickson, 1997).

An Array of Techniques

The previous section presented a technique for getting started with stakeholder identification and analysis. This section presents thirteen additional stakeholder identification and analysis techniques. The techniques are grouped into four categories. The first three categories cover general stages in a policy or strategy change process – namely, problem or issue formulation; proposal development, review and adoption; and policy or plan implementation. The fourth category looks at participation planning, and a single technique is presented there. All of the techniques are fairly simple in concept and rely on standard facilitation materials, such as flip charts, marking pens, tape, colored stick-on dots, and so on. All it takes to do them is some time and effort – an expenditure of resources that typically is miniscule when compared with the opportunity costs of less than adequate

⁴ The full group also might be the group invited to participate in a major planning exercise structured through use of a large-group interaction method of some sort (Holman and Devane, 1999; Bryson and Anderson, 2000).

performance, or even disaster, that typically follow in the wake of failing to attend to key stakeholders, their interests, and their information.

Techniques for Problem or Issue Formulation

Successful problem or issue formulation depends on clearly understanding stakeholders and their interests, both separately and in relation to each other. Eight stakeholder analysis techniques help develop this understanding and therefore are particularly relevant to problem or issue formulation. They are:

- The basic stakeholder analysis technique
- Power versus interest grids
- Stakeholder influence diagrams
- Bases of power and directions of interest diagrams
- Finding the common good and the structure of a winning argument
- Tapping individual stakeholder interests to pursue the common good
- Problem-frame stakeholder maps
- Ethical analysis grids

The Basic Stakeholder Analysis Technique. The basic analysis technique is described in Bryson (1995, pp. 71-75). It offers a quick and useful way of: identifying stakeholders and their interests, clarifying stakeholders' views of a focal organization (or other entity), identifying some key strategic issues, and beginning the process of identifying coalitions of support and opposition. Bryson describes how this technique was used to bring about major change in a state Department of Natural Resources in the United States because it showed participants how existing strategies ignored important stakeholders – who refused to be ignored – as well as what might be done to satisfy the stakeholders.

The technique involves several steps which typically are undertaken in a sequence beginning with small-group exercises followed by large-group plenary discussions:

- Brainstorm the list of potential stakeholders
- Prepare a separate flipchart sheet for each stakeholder
- Place a stakeholder's name at the top of each sheet
- Create a narrow column down the right side of each sheet and leave the column blank

- For each stakeholder, in the area to the left of the narrow column, list the criteria the stakeholder would use to judge the organization's performance (or list what the stakeholder's expectations are of the organization)
- Decide how well you think the stakeholder thinks the organization is doing from the stakeholder's point of view. Use colored dots to indicate a stakeholder judgment of *good* (green), *fair* (yellow), or *poor* (red)
- Identify and record what can be done quickly to satisfy each stakeholder
- Identify and record longer term issues with individual stakeholders and with stakeholders as a group

Additional steps might be included, such as:

- Specify how each stakeholder influences the organization
- Decide what the organization needs from each stakeholder
- Rank the stakeholders according to their importance to the organization, When doing so, consider the stakeholder's power, legitimacy, and attention-getting capacity (Mitchell, Agle, and Wood, 1997).

Power Versus Interest Grids. Illustrations from practice of power versus interest grids plus the next four techniques will be found in Bryson, Cunningham, and Lokkesmoe (2002). Power versus interest grids are described in detail by Eden and Ackermann (1998, 121-125, 344-346) (see Figure 1). These grids array stakeholders on a two-by-two matrix where the dimensions are the stakeholder's interest (in a political sense, as opposed to simple inquisitiveness) in the organization or issue at hand and the stakeholder's power to affect the organization's or issue's future. Four categories of stakeholders result: *Players*, who have both an interest and significant power; *subjects*, who have an interest, but little power; *context setters* who have power, but little direct interest; and the *crowd*, which consists of stakeholders with little interest or power.

Insert Figure 1 About Here – Power versus Interest Grid

Power versus interest grids typically help determine which players' interests and power bases *must* be taken into account in order to address the problem or issue at hand. They also help highlight coalitions to be encouraged or discouraged, what behavior should be fostered, and whose "buy in" should be sought, or who should be "co-opted." Finally, they provide some information on how to convince stakeholders to change their views. Interestingly, the knowledge gained from the use of

such a grid can be used to help advance the interests of the relatively powerless (Bryson, Cunningham and Lokkesmoe, 2002).

A power versus interest grid is constructed as follows:

- Tape four flip chart sheets to a wall to form a single surface two sheets high and two sheets wide.
- Draw the two axes on the surface using a marking pen. The vertical axis is labeled *interest*, from low to high; while the horizontal axis is labeled *power*, from low to high.
- Planning group members brainstorm the names of stakeholders by writing the names of different stakeholders as they come to mind on a 1" x 1-1/2" self-adhesive label, one stakeholder per label. Alternatively, if the Basic Analysis Technique has been performed, the names should be taken from that list.
- Guided by the deliberations and judgments of the planning group members, a facilitator should place each label in the appropriate spot on the grid. Labels should be collected in round-robin fashion, one label per group member, until all labels (other than duplicates) are placed on the grid or eliminated for some reason.
- Labels should be moved around until all group members are satisfied with the *relative* location of each stakeholder on the grid
- The group should discuss the implications of the resulting stakeholder placements.

Stakeholder Influence Diagrams. Stakeholder influence diagrams indicate how the stakeholders on a power versus interest grid influence one another. The technique is taken from Eden and Ackermann (1998, 349-350; see also Finn 1995) and begins with a power versus interest grid. The steps in developing such a diagram are as follows:

- The planning group should start with a power versus interest grid and then for each stakeholder on the grid suggest lines of influence
- A facilitator should draw in the lines with a soft-lead pencil
- Two-way influences are possible, but an attempt should be made to identify the primary direction in which influence flows between stakeholders
- Engage in a dialogue about which influence relationships exist, which are most important, and what the primary direction of influence is
- Once final agreement is reached, the pencil lines should be made permanent with a marking pen
- The results and implications of the resulting diagram should be discussed, including identifying who the most influential or central stakeholders are

Bases of Power – Directions of Interest Diagrams. The technique builds on the power versus interest grid and a stakeholder influence diagram and involves looking more closely at each of the stakeholder groups, including the most influential or central stakeholders. For each

stakeholder a bases of power–directions of interest diagram can be created. The technique is an adaptation of Eden and Ackermann's "star diagrams" (1998,126-128, 346-349).

A diagram of this kind indicates the sources of power available to the stakeholder and the goals or interests the stakeholder seeks to achieve or serve (see Figure 2). Power can come from access to or control over various support mechanisms, such as money and votes, or from access to or control over various sanctions, such as regulatory authority or votes of no confidence (Eden and Ackermann 1998, 126-7). Directions of interest indicate the aspirations or concerns of the stakeholder. Typically, the diagrams focus on the stakeholder's bases of power and directions of interest *in relation to* a focal organization's purposes or goals; that is, they seek to identify powers the stakeholder has that might affect achievement of the focal organization's purposes, and what the stakeholder's interests are in relation to the organization's purposes.

Insert Figure 3 About Here – Bases of Power – Directions of Interest Diagram

There are two reasons for constructing the diagrams. The first is to help the planning group find the common ground – especially in terms of interest – across all of the stakeholder groups. After exploring the power bases and interests of each stakeholder, the group will be in a position to identify commonalities across the stakeholders as a whole, or across particular subgroups. This search will allow the group to find the *common good and the structure of a winning argument* (see next technique). Second, the diagrams are intended to provide background information on each stakeholder in order to know how to tap into their interests, or make use of their power, to advance the common good. For example, this background information can be used in stakeholder role plays (see below) to further understand stakeholder reactions to specific proposals for change.

A bases of power – directions of interest diagram may be constructed as follows:

- Attach a flipchart to a wall. Write the stakeholder's name in the middle of the sheet
- The planning group then brainstorms possible bases of power for the stakeholder and the facilitator writes these on the bottom half of the sheet
- Based on discussion within the group, arrows are drawn on the diagram from the power base to the stakeholder and between power bases to indicate how one power base is linked to another

- The planning group then brainstorms goals or interests they believe the stakeholder has. The facilitator writes these on the top half of the sheet. Arrows are drawn from the stakeholder to the goals or interests. Arrows are also used to link goals and interests when appropriate
- A thorough discussion of each diagram and its implications should occur

Finding the Common Good and the Structure of a Winning Argument. Bryson, Cunningham, and Lokkesmoe (2002) created this technique and used it successfully to help develop a viable political strategy for producing better outcomes for a particularly disadvantaged group in a large county in the United States. The technique builds on the bases of power–directions of interest technique. Once all of the bases of power–directions of interest diagrams are constructed, they can be explored in depth to determine which interests, or themes, appear to garner support from a significant number of stakeholders. Members of the planning team will need to search for these common themes, which are called *supra-interests*. For each theme, the team should construct a label that appears to capture or integrate the specific interests that comprise it. The identification of common themes is a subjective exercise calling for creativity, discernment, and judgment (Vickers 1995). The team should then construct a map that indicates what appear to be the strongest relationships among the supra-interests. The final map thus will represent the supra-interests that tie together the individual stakeholders' interests, as well as what the relationships appear to be among the supra-interests.

The map is called *the common good and the structure of a winning argument* because it indicates – at least in part – what the common good is for this group of stakeholders, as well as how arguments probably will need to be structured to tap into the interests of enough stakeholders to create a winning coalition. In other words, if persuasive arguments can be created that show how support for specific policies and programs will further the interests of a significant number of important stakeholders, then it should be possible to forge the coalition needed to adopt and implement the policies and programs. Being relatively clear about goals or interests – while not always necessary (Bryson and Crosby, 1992; Bardach, 1998) – does help when it comes to

producing successful programs and projects. Difficulties thus become not so much conflicts over ends as the need to search for means to achieve those ends. Conflicts over means can be resolved through interest-based bargaining, and through the creation of pilot projects or small experiments to identify the most effective approaches (Nutt; 1992). Interest-based bargaining is far more likely to result in successful outcomes than position-based bargaining (Fisher and Ury 1981; Innes 1996; Thompson 1998), or trying to impose solutions (Bryson and Bromiley 1993). In addition, the structure of a winning argument outlines a *viable political rhetoric* around which a *community of interests* can mobilize, coalesce, and co-align to further the common good (Majone, 1989; Stone 1997).

Tapping Individual Stakeholder Interests to Pursue the Common Good. Developing a viable political rhetoric is a key visionary leadership task (Bryson and Crosby 1992, 45-50) and should help public leaders, managers, staff, and their collaborators understand how they might “pursue significance” for themselves and their organizations (Denhardt 1993). What still remains is the task of understanding how *specific stakeholders* – either separately, in coalitions, or in co-aligned groups – might be inspired and mobilized to act in such a way that the common good is advanced. A further analysis is needed in order to understand how *each stakeholder’s interests* connect with the *supra-interests*.

Specifically, a set of diagrams is needed that shows how each individual stakeholders’ bases of power–directions of interest diagram links to the supra-interests (Bryson, Cunningham, and Lokkesmoe, 2002). Once the diagrams are constructed it is possible to see how policies, programs, and projects would need to be found, tailored, or sold in such a way that the stakeholder thought their own interests were advanced. Developing these diagrams is a kind of research intended to help create and market social programs successfully (Andreasen , 1995; Kotler, Roberto, and Lee, 2002). The research is designed to understand the audiences well enough to satisfy both their interests and to advance the common good. Program design will be enhanced as a result of more clearly

understanding stakeholder interests, and effective one- and two-way communication strategies may be created through developing and testing out these diagrams with key informants in the target audiences.

Problem-Frame Stakeholder Maps. The techniques discussed so far have at least implicitly, if not explicitly, approached problem or issue framing in terms of the “common good” by searching for themes, concerns, or goals shared by key stakeholders. The analyses have tended to downplay the significance of opposition – including, not least, opposition to the common good so defined. The technique discussed next explicitly takes opposition into account.

The problem-frame stakeholder mapping technique was developed by Anderson, Bryson, and Crosby (1999), and adapted from a technique developed by Nutt and Backoff (1992). The technique is especially useful in helping develop problem definitions likely to lead to a winning coalition. Careful analysis is usually necessary to find desirable problem definitions that can motivate action by a coalition of stakeholders large enough to secure adoption of preferred solutions and to protect them during implementation (Rocheffort and Cobb, 1994; Schon and Rein, 1994; Jacobs and Shapiro, 2000). A crucial first step in this analysis is to link stakeholders to alternative problem definitions through a problem-definition stakeholder map. Stakeholder support for or opposition to specific policy proposals based on what appears to be a “winning” frame can be analyzed using a similar technique that will be discussed later.

The following steps may be followed to construct a problem-frame stakeholder map (see Figure 3):

- Tape four flip chart sheets to a wall to form a single surface two sheets high and two sheets wide.
- Draw a two by two matrix on the surface using a marking pen. The vertical axis on the left, above the horizontal line in the middle, is labeled *support*, from *low* at the horizontal line to *high* at the top of the axis. The vertical axis on the left, below the horizontal line in the middle, is labeled *opposition*, from *low* at the horizontal line to *high* at the bottom of the axis. The horizontal axis across the bottom is labeled *power*, from *low* on the left-hand side, to *high* on the right-hand side.
- Next, on a different set of flipchart sheets, the planning group should brainstorm and write down the various problem frames or definitions that might apply to the case at hand. The whole range

of frames or definitions should be recorded, including those favored by known critics or opponents. The snow card technique, nominal group technique, or other brainstorming method can be used.

- Next, on yet a different set of flipchart sheets, the planning group should brainstorm the list of potential stakeholders likely to be implicated by the range of problem definitions.
- Stakeholders' names then should be placed on 1" x 1-1/2" self-adhesive labels, one stakeholder per label. Alternatively, if the Basic Analysis Technique has been performed, the names should be taken from that list.
- For each problem definition, consider the likely policy changes based on this definition and then array stakeholders on the matrix that was created in the first two steps.
- Guided by the deliberations and judgments of the planning group members, a facilitator should place each label in the appropriate spot on the grid.
- Labels should be moved around until all group members are satisfied with the *relative* location of each stakeholder on the grid
- The group should discuss the implications of the resulting stakeholder placements. Particular attention should be given to the stakeholders who show up in the right-hand quadrants for all definitions of the problem. In other words, attention should be devoted to the more powerful stakeholders. Emphasizing a problem frame that increases the number of strong supporters and reduces the number of strong opponents facilitates formation of a winning coalition.

Insert Figure 3 About Here – Problem-Frame Stakeholder Map

Ethical Analysis Grids. Attending to stakeholders and to the common good certainly can be thought of as ethical behavior, and as a foundation for behaving accountably (Lewis, 1991; Romzek, 1996). But more is required than that in order to provide assurance that whatever actions are finally taken are ethically defensible. Lewis (1991) proposes use of a grid to determine more clearly *who* and *what* counts ethically. Use of the grid helps fulfill both deontological (duty-based) and teleological (results-oriented) obligations. Results of the analysis should indicate which proposals or options should be eliminated or altered on ethical grounds. A somewhat modified version of the grid she proposes will be found in Figure 6. The basic process for using the grid is simply to fill it out as a planning team and to discuss the results. In general, Lewis' admonition would be to pursue the common good *and* avoid doing harm.

Insert Figure 4 About Here – Ethical Analysis Grid

Techniques for Proposal Development, Review and Adoption

Once stakeholders and their interests have been identified and understood, it typically is still advisable to do additional analyses in order to develop proposals that can garner the support they need in the proposal review and adoption process. Three techniques will be considered here:

- Stakeholder Support versus Opposition Grid
- Stakeholder Role Plays
- Policy Attractiveness versus Stakeholder Capability Grid

Stakeholder Support versus Opposition Grid. These grids build on Problem-Frame Stakeholder Maps by using the same grid and basic process. But this time specific proposals – rather than problem frames or definitions – are assessed in terms of stakeholder support, opposition, and importance. Nutt and Backoff (1992) developed the technique. The steps are simple. For each proposal:

- A separate grid is constructed
- Stakeholders' names are brainstormed and placed on Post-Its, one name per Post-It
- The Post-Its are placed on the grid in the appropriate places
- The results are discussed in terms of the viability of specific proposals and of stakeholders requiring special attention⁵

⁵ Nutt and Backoff (1992; see also Bryson and Crosby, 1992, pp. 378-80) propose a set of tactics to deal with the different categories of stakeholders. Tactics that may be used with *potential supporters* to reinforce their support include:

- Providing information to reinforce beliefs about potential benefits and costs
- Co-opting them by involving them in some or all of the deliberations
- Asking them to sell the proposal to those who are neutral
- Inviting potential supporters who are at present neutral to react to proposed strategies, so that changes can be incorporated that will turn these supporters' potential support to actual support

Tactics to reduce the impact of *potentially antagonistic stakeholders* include the following:

- Finding and working with potentially supportive coalition members in the problematic and low-priority categories who are closely aligned or related to the antagonistic stakeholders
- Taking steps to block formation of coalitions among antagonistic and neutral stakeholders
- Preventing antagonistic stakeholders from undermining the support of potential supporters
- Determining which antagonistic supporters must be surprised (kept in the dark) to delay or prevent the mobilization of their opposition
- Anticipating the nature of the antagonists' opposition and developing counterarguments in advance
- Engaging selected antagonists in negotiations to identify and perhaps adopt changes in the proposal, or to find or invent other options to be traded with antagonists in order to change them into neutrals or even supporters

Possible tactics for dealing with *problematic stakeholders* include:

- Preparing defensive tactics to be used if a coalition that unites problematic stakeholders with antagonists becomes possible, or if a problematic stakeholder appears likely to take a public position in opposition to the proposal
- Targeting moderately problematic stakeholders for education and lobbying efforts
- Modifying the proposal to assuage the concerns of strongly negative stakeholders

Finally, tactics for maintaining the support of low-priority stakeholders include:

Stakeholder Role Plays. Eden and Ackermann (1998, , 133-4) show how role plays, in which different members of the planning team play the role of different stakeholders, can be used to develop proposals that are likely to address stakeholder interests effectively, build a supportive coalition, and ensure effective implementation. Role plays have the additional benefit of really enhancing the planning group's capacity to understand how other stakeholders think. Role plays build on the information revealed in bases of power-directions of interest diagrams.

A stakeholder role play involves the following steps:

- Each member of the planning team assumes the role of a different stakeholder
- With the stakeholder's bases of power-directions of interest diagram as a guide, each team member should answer two questions from their stakeholder's point of view about any proposal:
 - How would I react to this option?
 - What would be done that would increase my support or decrease my opposition?
- Use flipchart sheets to record the responses
- Do the exercise more than once and keep modifying proposals to increase their robustness and political viability

Policy Attractiveness versus Stakeholder Capability Grid. This type of grid is discussed in Bryson, Freeman and Roering (1986, 73-6; see also Bryson, 1995, 197-8, 283-4), and involves assessing the attractiveness of policies, plans, proposals or options in general against stakeholder capacities to implement them (see Figure 5). The grid therefore indicates proposals that are likely to be implemented successfully, because they match stakeholder capacities, and those that are likely to fail because of lack of capacity. The technique is therefore especially useful in shared-power, no-one-in-charge situations, where planners are necessarily led to focus on the proposals that are likely to be implemented successfully. Proposals that are high in attractiveness and capacity certainly should be pursued. Proposals that are otherwise attractive, but do not match up well with stakeholder capacities, will require a substantial build-up of stakeholder capabilities in order to be implemented.

-
- Using low-cost education with those stakeholders who almost fall into the high-importance category
 - Finding ways to involve low-priority stakeholders with other supporters in order to expand the size of the supportive coalition

Where to find the resources for the build-up should be explored and discussed during the proposal development, review and adoption process. Low-attractiveness proposals are best discarded..

Insert Figure 5 About Here – Policy Attractiveness versus Stakeholder Capability Grid

The process for constructing one of these grids is:

- Construct an attractiveness versus capability grid on flipchart(s)
- Develop criteria to assess the attractiveness of proposals from low to high (in terms of mission, goals, results, outcomes, or stakeholder-related criteria) and capabilities necessary for successful implementation from low to high
- Have a list of proposals and a list of stakeholders ready
- Write proposals on Post-Its of one color, one proposal per Post-It, and place on the grid in the appropriate position after considering both the proposal's attractiveness and the various stakeholders' capacities to implement it
- Discuss results and any implications for necessary capacity building among stakeholders or for getting unattractive proposals off the agenda
- Record results of the discussion on flipchart sheets

Techniques for Policy Implementation

In a sense, all of the techniques considered so far are relevant to policy implementation, since they are concerned with helping develop proposals likely to garner significant stakeholder support. But it is still important to focus directly on stakeholders during implementation. The literature on policy implementation certainly counsels the importance of doing so (Goggin, Lester, Bowman, and O'Toole, 1990; Nutt, 2002). Developing a policy implementation strategy development grid can help planners and decision makers gain a clearer picture of what will be required for implementation, and help them develop action plans that will tap stakeholder interests and resources. The technique is adapted from Meltsner (1972), Coplin and O'Leary (1976), Kaufman (1986), and Christensen (1993), and builds on information revealed by previously created bases of power-directions of interest diagrams (see Figure 6).

Insert Figure 6 About Here – Policy Implementation Strategy Development Grid

The process for filling out one of the grids is fairly simple:

- Create a grid, either on a single flipchart sheet or flipchart sheet-covered wall
- Assemble previously done bases of power-directions of interest diagrams

- Fill out the policy implementation strategy grid
- Discuss next steps and prepare action plans

Participation Planning Techniques

In a sense, all of the techniques considered so far are relevant to planning for stakeholder participation. The participation planning matrix, however, is specifically designed for this purpose.

The matrix adapts contributions from the International Association for Public Participation, specifically their notion of a spectrum of levels of public participation

(<http://www.iap2.org/practitionertools/spectrum.html>), and Bryson and Crosby's (1992, pp. 57-80)

"policy change cycle" phases. The levels of participation range from a minimum of simply informing stakeholders through to empowerment, in which the stakeholders, or some subset of them, are given final decision making authority. Each level has a different goal and makes a different kind of promise – implicitly, if not explicitly. For example, informing as an approach carries with it the promise that "we will keep you informed." At the other extreme, empowerment as a strategy carries with it the promise that "we will implement what you decide." The phases in the policy change cycle are the fairly standard ones of: initial agreement, problem formulation or issue creation (including problem formulation and search for solutions), policy or plan development, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation (see Figure 7).

Insert Figure 7 About Here – Participation Planning Matrix

The matrix prompts planners to think about responding to or engaging different stakeholders in different ways over the course of a policy or strategy change effort. As a result, the benefits of taking stakeholders seriously can be gained, while the perils may be avoided of inappropriately responding to or engaging stakeholders. The process for filling out the matrix is as follows:

- Start with the basic analysis technique, power versus interest grid, stakeholder influence diagram, and ethical analysis grid; include other analyses as needed
- Begin using this matrix very early in any change effort; in other words, while the matrix comes at the end of this article for instructional reasons, any change effort should begin using it early on

- Fill out the matrix with stakeholders' names in the appropriate boxes and then develop action plans for how to follow through with each stakeholder
- Revise the matrix as the change effort unfolds

Conclusions

In his classic work on policy analysis, the late Aaron Wildavsky (1979, 5-19) argued that one of the keys to effective policy change was "creating problems that could be solved." In other words, policy analysis is a kind of art in which problems must be solvable, at least tentatively or in principle, in order to be understood and addressed effectively. "Solvable" means both that good ideas worth implementing have been found or created *and* there is likely political support for implementing them. To be really useful, policy analysis thus requires linking *technical rationality* with *political rationality* in order "to mobilize support for substance" (p. 1). A number of authors have argued that stakeholder analyses are a key to identifying problems that can and should be solved (e.g., Freeman 1984; Bryson 1995; Eden and Ackermann, 1998) – particularly in situations where no one is wholly in charge, but many are involved, affected, or have some partial responsibility to act (e.g., Bryson and Crosby 1992). This paper has reviewed a set of stakeholder analysis techniques. Each technique has a different purpose, but all are designed to help public and nonprofit organizations or groups think and act strategically over the course of a policy or strategy change cycle in such a way that good ideas worth implementing can be found *and* implemented.⁶ The techniques provide a means both of helping find ideas worth implementing and of assessing and enhancing political feasibility (Meltsner, 1972; Van Horn, Baumer, and Gormley, 2001), especially when the overall purpose is to identify and advance the common good (Bryson, Lokkesmoe, and Cunningham, 2002).

Some might argue that stakeholder analyses involve a lot of rigmarole that produces not too surprising results. For example, Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel (1998, 250-1) put little faith in

⁶ Note that not all good ideas can be implemented, and not all ideas that can be implemented are good. The trick is to find or develop good ideas that do or can have adequate support, and that is where stakeholder analyses can help.

them, although their criticism seems to be based on a very limited understanding of the full range of available stakeholder analysis techniques. On the other hand, we have Nutt's (2002) masterful study of 400 strategic decisions that indicates a failure to attend carefully to stakeholder interests and information can easily lead to disaster. Given Nutt's evidence, and given how relatively simple and cheap the technology is, doing stakeholder analyses certainly would appear to be a clear candidate for what Bardach (1998) calls a "smart practice." I would go further and say that, more often than not, *not* doing stakeholder analyses would appear to be a "dumb practice."

But whether the practice really is *smart* depends on which techniques are used for what purposes, when, where, how, by whom, and with what results. Each of the techniques has a different purpose and reveals some things while hiding, or at least not highlighting, others. Like any other technique designed to aid strategic thinking and acting, stakeholder analyses must be undertaken skillfully and thoughtfully with a willingness to learn and revise along the way (Lynn, 1996; Bardach, 1998). For some small change efforts, a one-time use of one or two techniques may be all that is necessary; for other larger change efforts, a whole range of techniques will be needed at various points throughout the process. Hybrid techniques or new techniques may need to be invented along the way (Nutt, 1982). The key point is the importance of thinking strategically about why, when, where, how, and with whom the analyses are to be undertaken, and how to change direction when needed.

It is also worth noting that stakeholder analyses can be used to advance causes that many people would believe do not serve the common good or create public value. Tuchman (1984) might argue that ultimately there is a self-correcting aspect to human systems that helps correct "folly," but most of us would like to avoid the pain and suffering and loss of talent and treasure such self-corrections typically entail. A starting point is to begin with an inclusive definition of stakeholders, so that the net of considerations about who and what counts is cast widely to begin with. Another

step appears to be undertaking enough stakeholder analyses to prompt the kind of "strategic conversation" (Van der Heijden, 1996) needed to discover a broadly based and morally and ethically sound version of the common good to pursue.

Finally, there is quite an agenda for research, education, and practice around stakeholder identification and analysis. Very little research has been published work on which techniques work best under which circumstances and why.⁷ In addition, there is little work linking stakeholder identification and analysis techniques – the subject of this article – with stakeholder influence techniques. The linkages between the former and the latter provide a particularly important focus for future research. Finally, there also is a very limited literature in public and nonprofit management linking stakeholder analyses to developments in political theory, management theory, and ethics. In terms of education, stakeholder analyses are either not taught, or else are taught in a very limited way, in schools of public administration, management, policy, and planning. Students should be introduced to the range and uses of the various techniques. And practitioners would appear to have a far more limited knowledge of stakeholder identification and analysis techniques than they should. They, too, should be introduced to the range and uses of the various techniques. In sum, a variety of stakeholder analyses appear to be very useful tools for improving public and nonprofit management and advancing the common good, but there is a great deal of work to be done in terms of research and education before that promise is fully understood and realized in practice.

⁷ The same might be said of all of the various activities that might comprise the "micro" aspects of policy or strategy change efforts; see Johnson, Melin, and Whittington (2003) and the Special Issue of the *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1, 2003.

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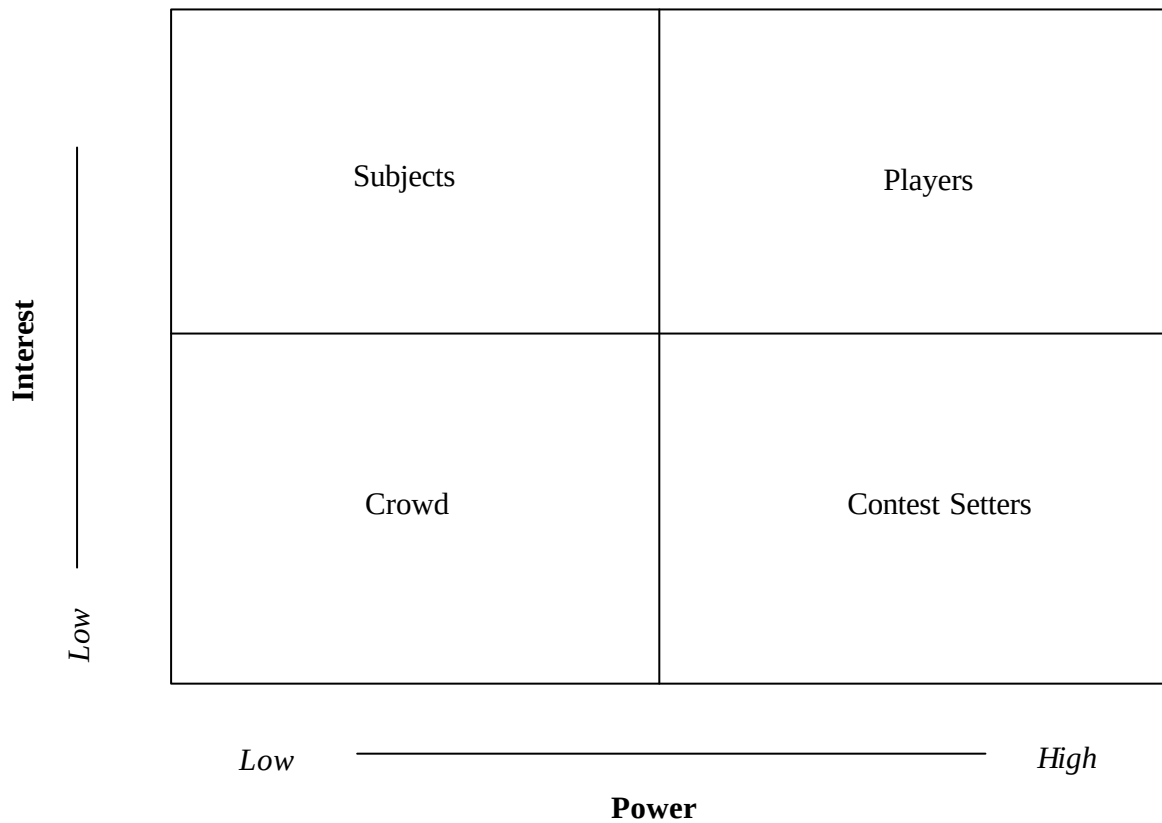
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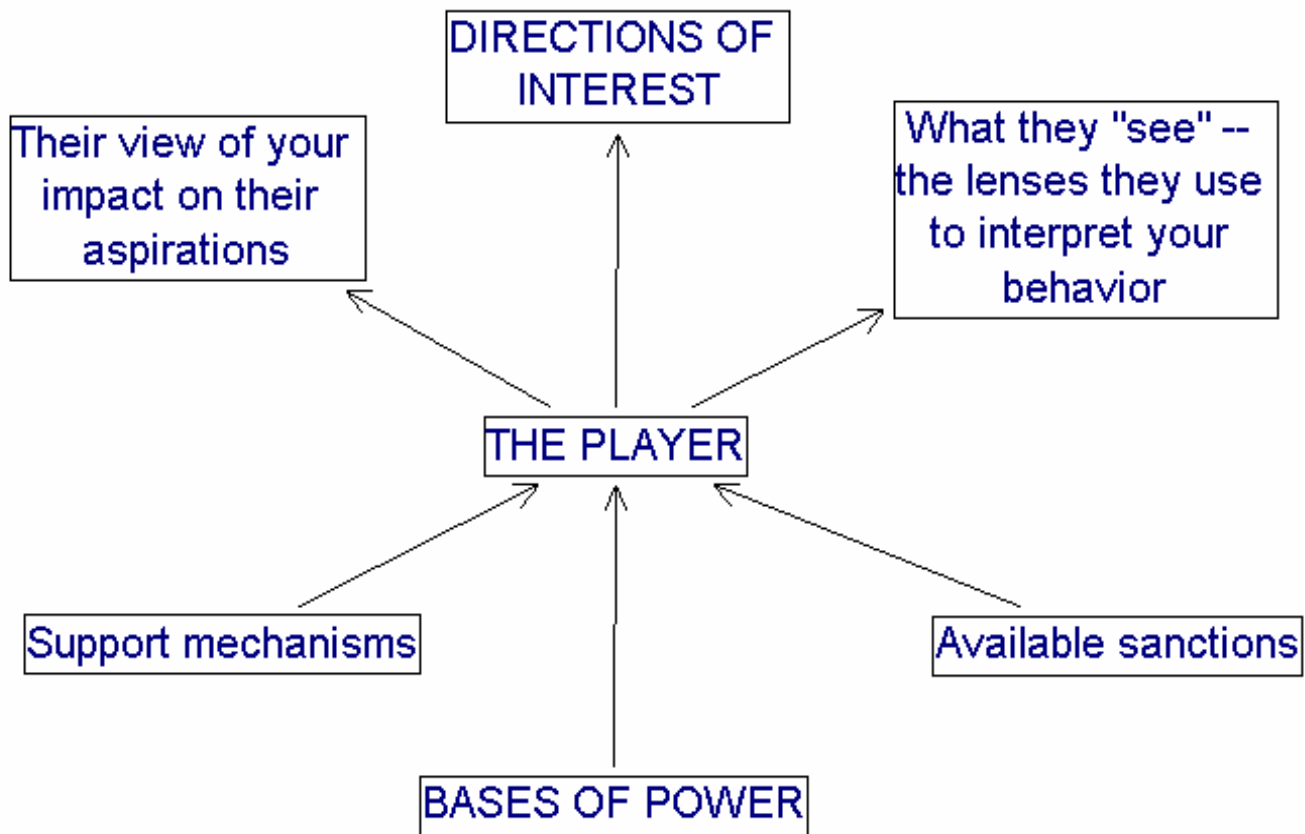
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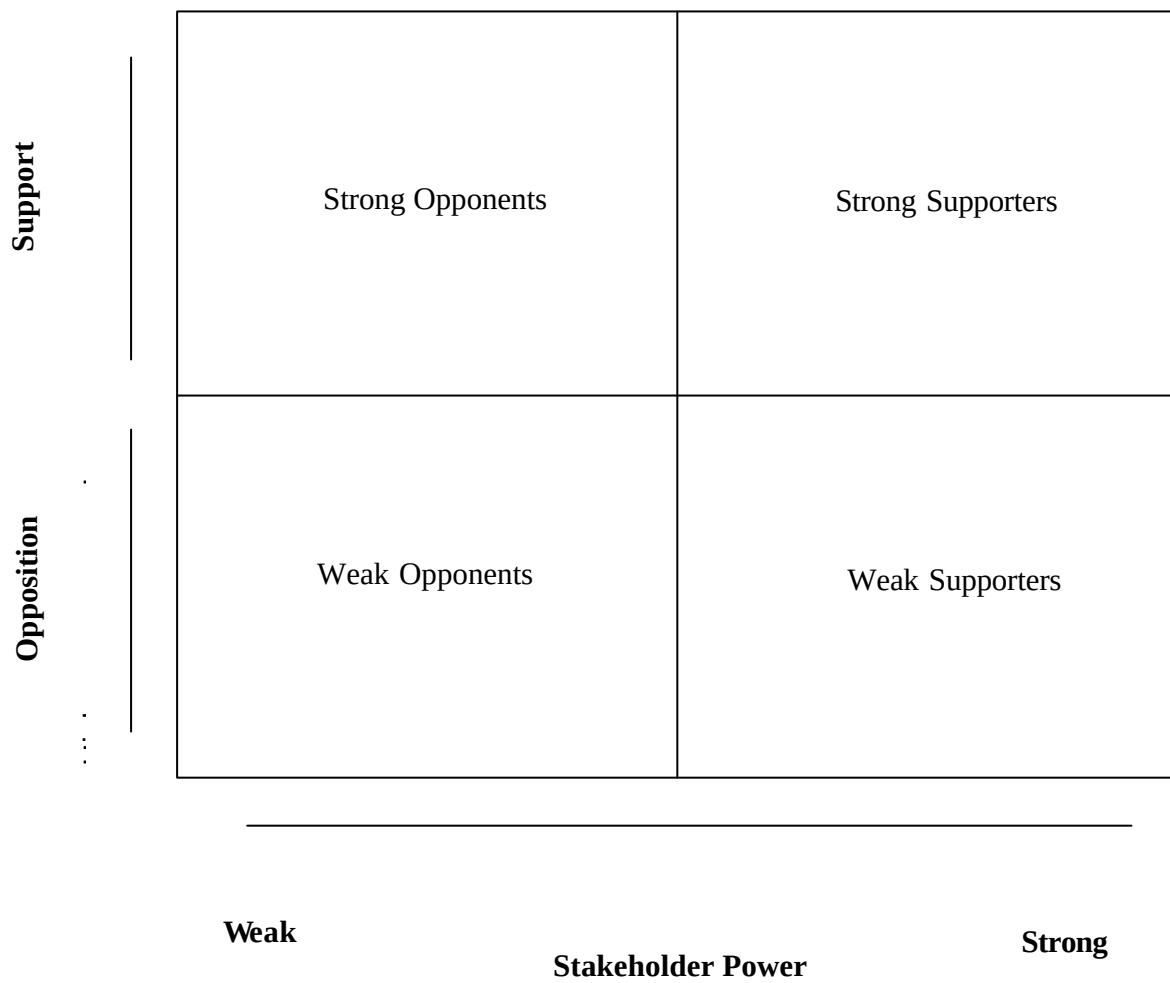
Figure 1. Power Versus Interest Grid

Source: Eden and Ackermann, 1998, 122.

Figure 2. Bases of Power – Directions of Interest Diagram

Source: Bryson, Lokkesmoe, and Cunningham, 2002; adapted from Eden and Ackermann, 1998, 127.

Figure 3. Problem-Frame Stakeholder Map

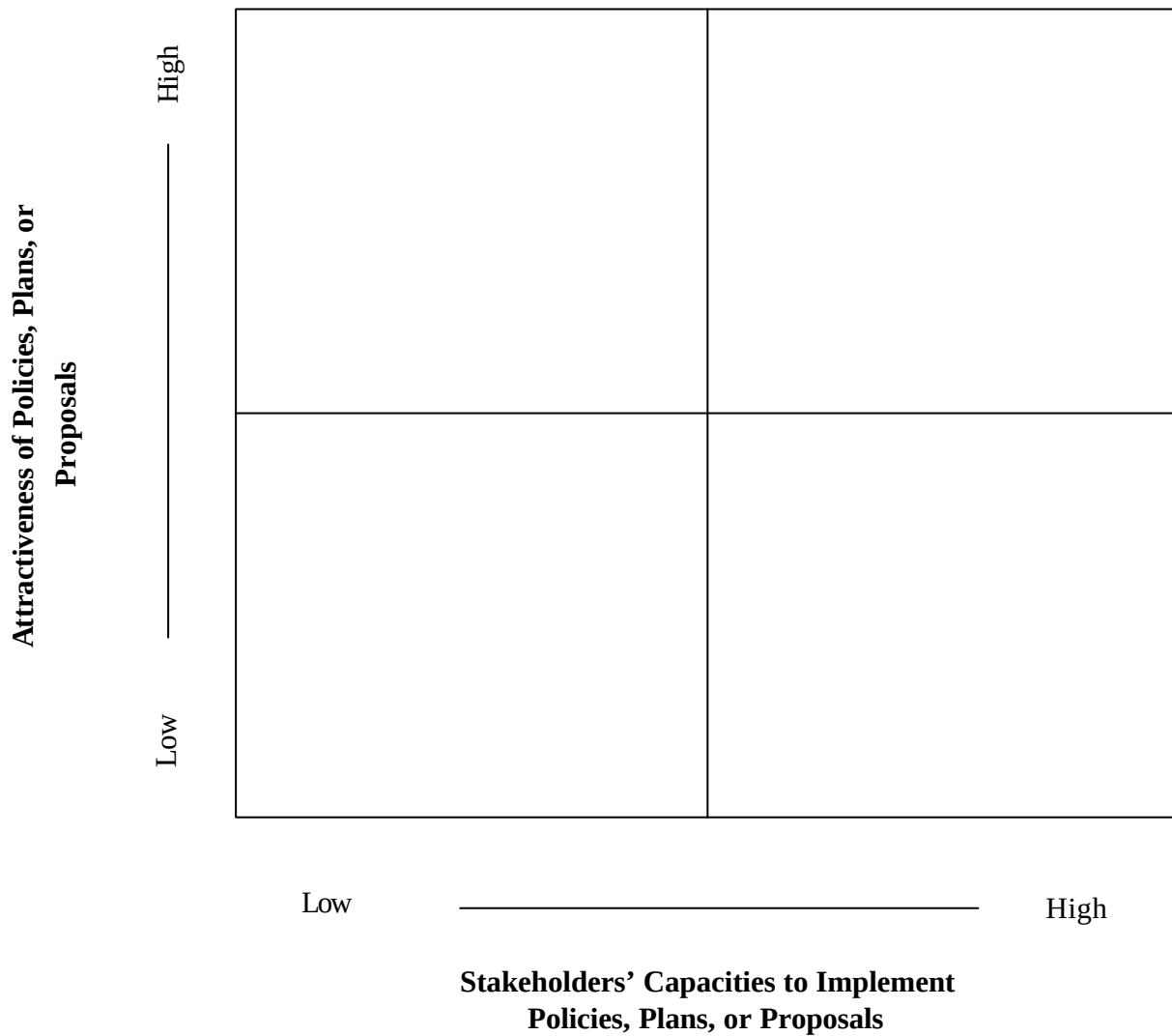


Source: Anderson, Bryson, and Crosby, 1999; adapted from Nutt and Backoff, 1992, 198.

Figure 4. Ethical Analysis Grid

Stakeholder Name and Category		Description of Stake			
Internal s/h					
External s/h and direct					
External s/h and indirect					
Factors and Score:		High (3)	Medium (2)	Low (1)	None (0)
Dependency of s/h on government (e.g., inaccessible alternative services)					
Vulnerability of s/h (e.g., potential injury)					
Gravity (versus triviality) of s/h's stake					
Likelihood remedy or relief will be unavailable					
Risk to fundamental value					
Policy impact on s/h					
Total scores – Do they indicate obligatory action or relief?					

Source: Adapted from Lewis, 1991, 122.

Figure 5. Policy Attractiveness versus Stakeholder Capability Grid

Source: Bryson, Freeman, and Roering, 1986, 73-6; see also Bryson, 1995, 197-8, 283-4.

Figure 6. Policy Implementation Strategy Development Grid

Stakeholder s	Stake or Interes t	Resource s	Action Channels Open to Stakeholde r	Probability of Participatio n and Manner of Doing So	Influence – as a product of resources and participatio n	Implications for Implementatio n Stration	Action Plan Element s
Supportive Stakeholders							
Opposing Stakeholders							

Source: Adapted from Meltsner, 1972; Coplin and O'Leary, 1976; Kaufman, 1986; and Christensen, 1993.

Figure 7. Participation Planning Matrix

	Inform	Consult	Involve	Collaborate	Empower
Initial Agreement					
Problem Formulation or Issue Creation (including Problem Formulation and Search for Solutions)					
Policy or Plan Development, Review and Adoption					
Implementation					
Monitoring and Evaluation					

Source: Adapted from the International Association for Public Participation's spectrum of levels of public participation ([http://www.iaps.org/practioner tools/spectrum.html](http://www.iaps.org/practioner_tools/spectrum.html)), and Bryson and Crosby's (1992) policy change cycle phases.