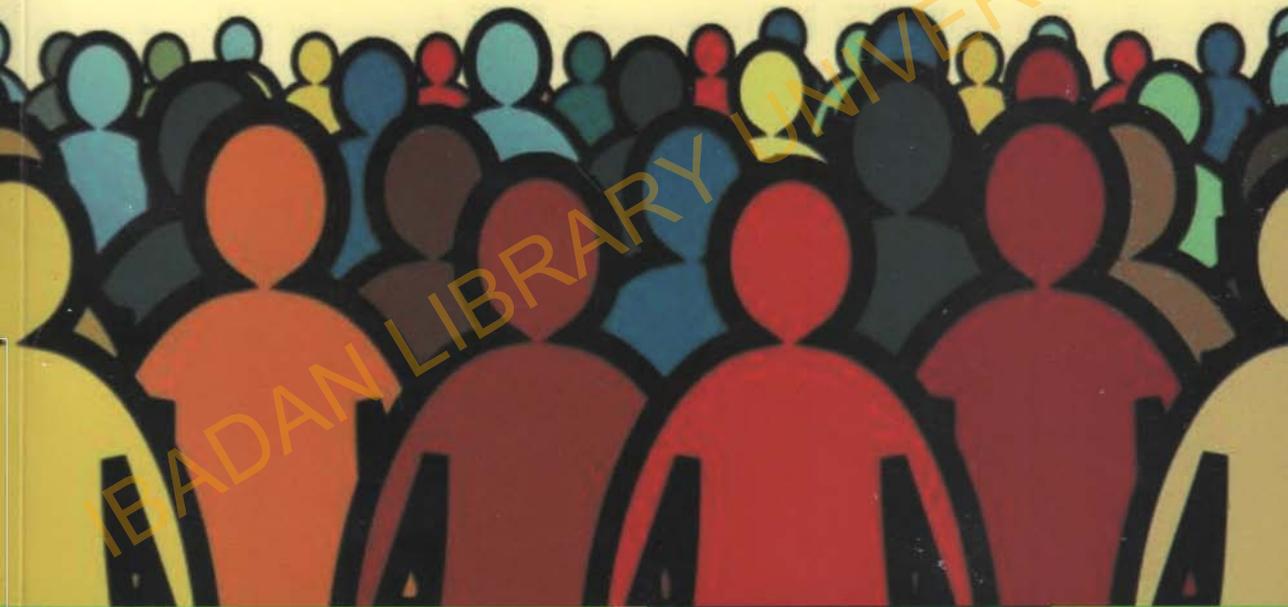


# CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN **SOCIAL RESEARCH**



Edited by  
**Jegede Ayodele Samuel**  
and  
**Isiugo-Abanihe Uche Charlie**

# CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN SOCIAL RESEARCH

Preface

Notes on Contributors

## SECTION ONE: INTRODUCTORY

1. Introduction to Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

2. Theoretical Perspectives of Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

Emerging Realities of Sociological Realities in Africa  
© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

## SECTION TWO: CHOOSING RESEARCH TOPIC

3. Critical Issues in Choosing Research Topic

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

**JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.**

*Edited by*

4. Study Areas in Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

5. Strengths and Limitations of Study in Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

## SECTION THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN

6. Research Design in Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

7. Study Population in Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

8. Sampling in Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

9. Ethics in Social Research

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

**IBADAN UNIVERSITY PRESS**

2020

CONTEMPORARY ISSUES IN SOCIAL RESEARCH

Ibadan University Press,  
Publishing House,  
University of Ibadan,  
Ibadan, Nigeria

© 2020 JEGEDE, Ayodele Samuel and ISIUGO-ABANIHE, Uche C.

*First Published 2020*

*All Rights Reserved*

No part of this publication may be reproduced, transmitted, transcribed, stored in a retrieval system, or translated into any language or computer language, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, magnetic, chemical, photocopy, recording, manual or otherwise, without the prior permission of the publisher.

IBADAN LIBRARY UNIVERSITY

ISBN: 978 – 978 – 8529 – 33 – 0

IBADAN UNIVERSITY PRESS  
2020

# CONTENTS

	<b>Pages</b>
Preface	xi
Notes on Contributors	xiii
<b>SECTION ONE: INTRODUCTORY</b>	<b>1</b>
1. Introduction to Social Research <i>Jegede, A.S. and Isiugo-Abanihe, U.C.</i>	1
2. Theoretical Basis of Social Research <i>Olutayo, A.O. and Akanle, O.</i>	15
3. Emerging Realities of Sociological Realities in Africa <i>Oluwadare, C.T.</i>	31
<b>SECTION TWO: CHOOSING RESEARCH TOPIC</b>	<b>43</b>
4. Critical Review of Literature in Social Research <i>Nwokocha, E.E.</i>	45
5. Generating Statement of the Problem in Social Research <i>Onwuzuruigbo, I.</i>	57
6. Generating Research Objectives in Social Research <i>Jegede, A.E., Idowu, A.E. and George, T.O.</i>	73
7. Study Justification in Social Research <i>Akanle, Olayinka and Shittu, O.S.</i>	93
8. Scope and Limitation of Study in Social Research <i>Akanle Olayinka, Ademunson, A.O. and Shittu, O.O.</i>	105
<b>SECTION THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN</b>	<b>115</b>
9. Research Design in Social Research <i>Orimadegun, Adebola E., Muoghalu, C.O. and Jegede, Ayodele S.</i>	117
10. Study Population in Social Research <i>Busari Dauda</i>	141
11. Sampling in Social Science Research <i>Kilonzo Susan, M. and Maseno Maga: Kitcha</i>	155
12. Issues in Study Location for Social Research <i>Steve Tonah</i>	175

<b>SECTION FOUR: FIELD PREPARATION</b>	<b>193</b>
13. Community Entry and Exit Behaviour in Social Research <i>Oluwabamide, A.J., Olorunlana, A. and Adegoke, O.O.</i>	195
14. Community Engagement in Research Participation <i>George Tayo Ola, Chiazor Idowu, A., Fynnba C. Nana Derby, Iruonagbe Charles Tunde and Dallo Jacqueline</i>	223
15. Participatory Approach in Community Engagement <i>Oshiname O. Frederick, Fasasi Lukman T., Matthew Ayegboyin and Abolaji Azeez</i>	243
<b>SECTION FIVE: QUANTITATIVE COLLECTION TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>261</b>
16. Quantitative Data Collection in Survey Research <i>Isiugo-Abanihe, U.C. and Wusu Onipede</i>	263
17. Variable Measurement in Social Sciences Research <i>Ibrahim El-Hakim, Jacob Mobolaji and Akanni Akinyemi</i>	285
18. Reliability and Validity <i>Ajani Oludele Albert and Akinyemi Joshua Odunayo</i>	299
19. Data Collection Techniques in Social Research <i>Nwabueze Ndukaeze and Oyefara Lekan John</i>	311
20. Conducting Interviews in Social Research <i>Aminu Kafayat, Fatoye Helen and Jegede Ayodele Samuel</i>	323
<b>SECTION SIX: QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES</b>	<b>351</b>
21. Focus Group Discussion <i>Aderinto, A.A., Ojedokun, U.A., Tade, O. and Onayemi, O.</i>	353
22. In-depth Interview <i>Ojedokun, U.A., Tade, O., Aderinto, A.A. and Onayemi, O.</i>	365
23. Key Informant Interview <i>Tade, O., Onayemi, O., Ojedokun, U.A. and Aderinto, A.A.</i>	375
24. Ethnography – The Craft of Fieldwork in Anthropology <i>Ajala Aderemi Suleiman and Crooks Mikhel</i>	389
25. Archival Technique in Social Research <i>Bello Kabiru</i>	405

26.	Case Study Technique in Social Research <i>Omolawal Samuel Ayodeji</i>	419
27.	Observation Technique in Social Research <i>Owumi, B.E., Aluko-Arowolo Sunday, O., Lawal, S.A. and Ajani, O.A.</i>	425
28.	Role Play in Social Research <i>Salami K. Kabiru</i>	441
29.	Gap Analysis in Social Research <i>Adeleye, Omokhoa A.</i>	459
<b>SECTION SEVEN: GENERIC TOPICS IN SOCIAL RESEARCH</b>		<b>473</b>
30.	The Delphi Technique <i>Ushie Boniface and Jegede Ayodele</i>	475
31.	Transect Walk in Social Research <i>Olutayo Akinpelu O. and Odok Godwin Etta</i>	487
32.	Indigenous Research Methodologies <i>Adejuwon Grace, A. and Olapegba P.O.</i>	497
33.	Unobstrusive Methods in Social Research <i>Okunola Rashidi Akanji and Ikuomola Adediran Daniel</i>	507
34.	Stakeholders and Institutional Analysis in Social Research <i>Salami, K.K. and Taiwo Patricia, A.</i>	521
<b>SECTION EIGHT: GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SYSTEM</b>		<b>539</b>
35.	Geospatial Analysis for Research in Humanities and Social Sciences <i>Fabiyi Oluseyi Olubunmi</i>	541
36.	Geographical Information System in Social Research <i>Areola Abiodun Ayooluwa</i>	563
<b>SECTION NINE: QUANTITATIVE DATA MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS</b>		<b>591</b>
37.	Issues in Data Management in Social Sciences <i>Jimoh Amzat and Ganiyat Amzat</i>	593
38.	Quantitative Data Analysis in Social Research <i>Fayehun Olufunke and Olubusoye, O.E.</i>	605

**SECTION TEN: QUALITATIVE DATA MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS 621**

39. Qualitative Data Management and Analysis 623  
*Jegede, Ayodele S., Fasasi, Lukman T. and Ogundairo, Janet A.*
40. The Use of Qualitative Data Analysis Software 657  
*Ntoimo Lorretta Favour Chizomam*
41. Narrative Methods: How to Work with Narratives 669  
*Popoola Margareta*
42. Emic and Etic Perspectives in Social Research 685  
*Modo Innocent V.O.*

**SECTION ELEVEN: ETHICAL ISSUES IN SOCIAL RESEARCH 695**

43. Ethical Issues in Social Research 697  
*Aluko-Arowolo, S.O., Adedeji, I.A. and Lawal, S.A.*
44. Design and Implementation of Informed Consent in Research Management 717  
*Jegede Ayodele S., Aminu Kafayat, Adebayo O. Adejumo and Oduwole Ebunoluwa O.*
45. Intellectual Property and Research Integrity in Research: An Examination of the Intersection between Copyright Infringement and Plagiarism in Nigeria 745  
*Akintola Simisola O.*
46. Data Sharing and Its Ethics in Social Science Research 763  
*Oduwole Ebunoluwa Olufemi, Akintola Simisola O., Adedeji Isaac Akinkunmi and Yakubu Aminu*

**SECTION TWELVE: EMERGING ISSUES IN SOCIAL RESEARCH 777**

47. Gender Issues and Social Research 779  
*Odebiyi Adetanwa I. and Akingbade Retta E.*
48. Monitoring and Evaluation Research 795  
*Isiugo-Abanihe, U.C. and Nwokocha, E.E.*

49.	The Research and Policy Interface: Diagnoses and Prognoses	813
	<i>Akanle Olayinka, Adesina, J.O. and Adejare Gbenga S.</i>	
50.	Writing Social Research Report	829
	<i>Okafor Emeka E., Imhonopi David, Urim Ugochukwu M. and Obor Deborah O.</i>	
51.	Scientific Communication	851
	<i>Akanle Olayinka and Adedeji Oluwaseun Adewusi</i>	
	Index	885

IBADAN LIBRARY UNIVERSITY

*Salami K. Kabiru and Taiwo Patricia A.*

### **Introduction**

Stakeholder analysis and Institutional analysis are two main tools for examining the strengths and weaknesses of stakeholders and prospective institutions that have relative importance to a particular project, and for determining which interests are geared towards achieving expected mandate, missions and public value for a project. Both stakeholders and institutions in the analyses of organizational development and policy-related issues have attracted scholarly attention in the discourse of innovativeness and evaluation of organizations in society. It is noteworthy that Stakeholder and Institutional analyses currently rank very high in scale of the research agenda for the Social sciences; however, awareness is still required on the challenges that confront the attempt to advance knowledge and practice of these imminent approaches in methodological innovation. This chapter discusses the concepts, and highlights the process of analyses of stakeholders and institutions. These are examined in two distinct subsections in this chapter.

### **Stakeholder Analysis**

Project development and implementation at any level involve active engagement of social capital resources. These resources could be sourced from the relative important stakeholders in order to achieve expected mandate, fulfil their missions and create public value in the project. This requires a clear thinking and a practical demonstration of overall coordination of the project. In essence, adoption of systems or strategy in sourcing the material resources, human resources and social capital resources necessary to achieve the goals of the project is an important practice in ensuring successful implementation of any project. Likewise, for achieving a successful implementation, the input of stakeholders of a project is important from the beginning of the project.

The word 'Stakeholder', according to Bryson (2004), has assumed a prominent place in public and non-profit management theory and practice in the last 20 years, and more importantly in the decade that ended the last millennium. Who are the stakeholders in a project? Stakeholders are individuals, groups and/or organizations that have an interest (a stake) and the potential to influence the activities and the goals of an organization, project or policy direction (Brugha and Varvasovszky 2000). It refers to persons, groups or organizations that must somehow be taken into consideration by leaders, and managers and other frontline staff of an organisation (Bryson 2004). In recent times, research uptake and focus on

the subject pertaining to stakeholder analysis have impacted on the rise in the use of the concept and its application in the real life practice (Bryson 2004). The need to discuss the analysis of relevant stakeholders in project lifespan is underscored by Bryson (2004); that while the term has gained the interest of academic community, there is still much to understand on how to be systematic in identifying and analysing stakeholders. By gathering data and analysing the data on stakeholders, one can have a clear insight of likely opportunities for influencing decision making process in a particular situation. Stakeholders are all those who have vested interest in the natural resources of a project area and/or who potentially will be affected by project activities. They have something to gain or lose if conditions change or stay the same (Golder, WWF-US and Gawler 2005). Stakeholders are all those people needed to be considered in actualising project targets and whose involvement and influence are central to the success of the project. In a review, Bryson (2004) highlighted the following definitions of stakeholders:

- “All parties who will be affected by or will affect [the organization’s] strategy” (Nutt and Backoff 1992: 439).
- “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).
- “Those individuals or groups who depend on the organization to fulfil their own goals and on whom, in turn, the organization depends” (Johnson and Scholes 2002: 206).
- “Any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization’s objectives” (Freeman 1984).

What is *Stakeholder Analysis*? Stakeholder analysis is an approach, a tool or set of tools for generating knowledge about actors – individuals, groups and organizations – so as to understand their behaviour, intentions, interrelations, agenda and interest; it is also for assessing the influence and resources that they bring to bear on decision-making or implementation processes (Brugha and Varvasovszky 2000; Varvasovszky and Brugha 2000). It is a policy analysis tool. It has its roots in the political and policy sciences, and in management theory where it has evolved into a systematic tool with a clearly defined steps and applications for scanning the current and future organizational environment (Brugha and Varvasovszky 2000). Stakeholder analysis is often adopted as a tool for policy analysis by a researcher whose interest is to conduct a comprehensive analysis in order to produce new knowledge about policy-making processes (Varvasovszky and Brugha 2000). This requires a strong retrospective dimension.

Stakeholder analysis ensures understanding the importance and influence of the project's stakeholders; hence, the analysis helps the project team to focus on project direction and success. In a project's lifespan, the interaction, including conversations and their dynamic processes, among team members during the stakeholder analysis, is just as important and insightful as the outcomes of the process. As it is a useful tool for managing stakeholders and identifying opportunities to mobilize their support for a particular goal, the information from the analysis can provide insight on how policies have developed. It can also be used to assess the feasibility of future policy directions; to facilitate the implementation of projects, specific decisions or organizational objectives; and to develop strategies for managing important stakeholders (Varvasovszky and Brugha 2000). Its goal is to develop a strategic view of the human and institutional landscape, and the relationships between the different stakeholders and the issues they care about most (Golder, WWF-US and Gawler 2005).

With the growing popularity, acceptability and use of stakeholder analysis, appropriate tools for identifying the contributions of stakeholders in any project are now available. This is a reflection of the growing appreciation of how the features of stakeholders – individuals, groups, and organizations influence decision-making processes (Brugha and Varvasovszky 2000). Most tools adopted in analyzing the strength of stakeholders are project-specific, while many other Stakeholder Analysis Tools (SATs) are focused on 'the target population' of the project, not on the people resources required to implement the project. In spite of the variations in the available tools, a one-size-fit-all tool (Varvasovszky and Brugha 2000) may emerge.

Analysis of the strength of stakeholders involves identification of the status of each stakeholder in the project from the beginning of the project life. It is important to know that some stakeholders are influential, while others are important. By explanation, 'Influential stakeholders' are those stakeholders who have power over the organization or management of the project, while 'Important stakeholders' are those who have power over project implementation or outcome adoption.

### **The Relevance of Stakeholder Analysis**

The analysis of stakeholders can help to illuminate and provide insight into the interactions between a project and its participating stakeholders. Kennon, Howden and Hartley (2009) noted that successful implementation of a project can ultimately rely on the capacity of the manager to cultivate the support of, and process the expectations of key people. The successful management of stakeholders can have a substantial and immediate impact in a project; hence, satisfied stakeholders can make great contribution to the progress and significance of a project, hence leading to project success. These scholars also describe stakeholder analysis as a dominant tool to help in profiling the team in order to detect

and prioritize the stakeholders who can have an impact on the success of the project. In addition, it was also observed that stakeholder analysis can examine the nature and typology of influence that individual members have and how they could be engaged (or disengaged) in order to achieve successful outcomes. One very important opportunity a team would derive from a stakeholder analysis at the time of planning and developing a project is the opportunity to have an insightful interaction about their project and stakeholders. This may enhance the whole team members to develop a clearer understanding of the range of project stakeholders, thus helping to develop a more focused project strategy.

Varvasovszky and Brugha (2000) explained that organisations focusing on health management, make use of stakeholder analysis as a tool for achieving specific operational targets, or advantages in their dealings with other organisations, by identifying potential allies and building alliances or removing threats. Likewise, in project management, stakeholder analysis is engaged to increase the probabilities of project success through formation of the project's design, its preparation along the line and eventual implementation of project; or as part of the project evaluation, during or after project completion. Varvasovszky and Brugha (2000) noted that depending on the aim of the analysis and the resources that are available, it is possible to conduct the analysis within a short space of time especially where a rapid appraisal is possible. This is possible and relevant in the planning stage of a small local project with involvement of a small size stakeholders, where not too large, perhaps a brief assessment is enough to identify interests, and in a situation where only one or two well-framed questions exist. The project work plan which include time-frame of the project lifecycle, and which may be influenced by the deadlines of the project, available resources and frequency, determines the scope of the analysis.

### **The Importance of Stakeholder Analysis**

Stakeholders' analysis has shown series of benefits to its users as a method of identifying human resources and social capital in the development and implementation of a project. The success of all projects would depend on ability to identify stakeholders who can collaboratively geared their contribution and work towards achieving the target of the project to reduce or reverse threats to key conservation targets. According to Golder, WWF-US and Gawler (2005), it has potential to help make a project or programme identify the following:

- Where the interest of all stakeholders who may affect or be affected by the programme/project lies;
- Likely threat, crisis or danger that could hamper the project/programme initiative;

- Opportunities and associations that can be built on during project implementation;
- Groups that should be stimulated to involve in different stages of the project lifespan;
- Appropriate plans and methods for engagement of stakeholders; and
- Techniques to reduce negative impacts on vulnerable and disadvantaged groups.

An important gateway to success in project conception, design and execution is full participation of stakeholders at all these stages. However, full participation may not assure same success rate at all times. Golder, WWF-US and Gawler (2005), also explained that Stakeholder's participation:

- provides people some insight over how projects or policies may affect or influence their lives;
- is quite crucial for sustainability purposes in project execution;
- ensures a sense of ownership if initiated early in the project development process;
- provides opportunities for learning for both the project team and stakeholders themselves; and
- builds capacity and enhances responsibility of stakeholders.

### **Appropriate Time for Undertaking Stakeholder Analysis**

Stakeholder analysis is best undertaken right from the commencement of a project. However, it is possible to carry it out from the beginning to the end of the project. Carrying out stakeholder analysis throughout the course of (all stages of) the project lifecycle is equally possible. In fact, this is advisable. In particular, during project conception phase when it is being planned, stakeholder analysis is an important aspect of situation analysis. Gender issue is also important to note in any stakeholder analysis. For instance, it should be noted that discrimination based on gender is likely to affect the impact and success of projects and policies. Gender analysis involves the assessment of:

- The sharing of tasks, responsibilities, activities, and rewards associated with the division of labour at a particular locality or across a region;
- The relative positions of women and men in terms of representation and influence; and
- The relative importance and hindrances related to assigning tasks and responsibilities to women and men.

### Techniques for Carrying out Stakeholder Analysis

A number of techniques exist for carrying out stakeholder analysis. The adoption and use of these techniques depend on the nature of a project and the researcher's interest. Few among them are: (1) Workshops, (2) Focus groups, (3) Interviews and (4) Questionnaires. Through workshops potential stakeholders are identified and brought together. Workshop facilitators would be someone who is experienced in the project target, skilled in identifying the needs of the project, the stakeholders and their potential strength. They are exposed to the interest of projects and can address the potential needs and expected contribution of the members of different stakeholders. They are introduced to other members present. Participants are encouraged to declare what they feel they could make as their own contribution in order to make the project successful. In focus groups, members of the same status are brought together to share their views on how to support the project, who they think should be invited and for what strength different from those strengths possessed by already selected members. There would be a moderator who drives the discussion and a note-taker who documents the whole process of identifying the strength of the members. Potential stakeholders could be interviewed to tease out their potential contributions to the success of the project. Also questionnaires could be administered to achieve the same purpose.

### Stakeholder Analysis Tool (SAT)

In their own study, Kennon, Howden and Hartley (2009) proposed a one-size-fit-for-all tool. The tool featured a 16 square matrix with two axes that focused on stakeholders who are: 'Influential' and 'Important'. The essence of the tool is to ascertain the team's understanding of project, its outcomes and stakeholder's management skill. These are channelled in five steps as follow:

**Step One:** Identification of stakeholders. This stage of the analysis involves identifying the project's stakeholders. It also involves making the team discuss the reasons for their consideration as being critical for meeting project targets. At this level, it is critical that the main interest should be primarily the persons and their roles, rather than just an organizational group or a position title. It is essential to note that persons involved in a project have different levels of power or importance within an organization, within their networks (or none at all) with various team members. It is also important to identify power relations at this level.

**Step Two:** Prioritization of stakeholders. There is possibility of having different categories of stakeholders. At this stage, the team is required to develop a matrix and use the matrix to prioritize their list of stakeholders in terms of how critical they are to the outcomes of the project. This will

help to prioritize communication and engagement activities with the people most likely to affect project success. The matrix has two axes which are labelled as “influential” and “important”. ‘Influential’ refers to people who have either direct or indirect power to influence the success of the project. These may include monetary power, positional authority or persuasive capacity over core decision makers. On the other hand, ‘Important’ refers to those who have either direct or indirect power to influence the delivery of project outcomes. These people may include opinion leaders (in the project’s target population), critical knowledge resources (e.g. scientific experts), and providers of enabling resources (e.g. mapping technology) or those critical in delivery of innovations produced by the project.

In this second step, important questions in stakeholder analysis according to Golder, WWF-US and Gawler (2005) may include:

- Whose decision is final on issues that are important to the project?
- Who holds positions of responsibility in concerned organizations?
- Who is influential in the project thematic and geographic areas?
- What categories of people will be affected by the project?
- Whose involvement will promote or support the project (through human and social capital resources), only if they are involved?
- Whose neglect will obstruct/hinder the project if they are not involved?

**Step Three:** Understanding and managing the stakeholders. This step involves inward examination of the likely attitudes of the various stakeholders to the project, their attitude to the project team and any risks associated with their participation in the project. This step proposes the consideration of possible changes that may be required in engaging with the stakeholders to minimize any risks and/or to increase their appreciation of, and commitment to, the project. The questions that follow may be relevant when identifying where stakeholders are located on the Influence/Impact analysis quadrant, according to Golder, WWF-US and Gawler (2005):

- Are the stakeholders likely to influence the success or failure of the project?
- What is nature of their relationship with other stakeholders in the project?
- How do the stakeholders relate with the project?
- Where are the stakeholders now versus where you expected them to be on the Influence/Impact quadrant?

Active participation of the stakeholders and the potential to work together towards the goal achievement of the project is dependent on the level of involvement of persons in the team, and when and how that involvement can be achieved. These aspects need to be understood and made clear to the team. Once stakeholder's opinions are understood, a decision can be made on whether to collaborate or not. The significance of the process in planning and conducting successful collaborations cannot be overstressed. Good-faith efforts are often disrupted because the parties involved are not skilled in the collaboration process, and because insufficient attention is paid on designing and managing collaboration. Using an inclusive, transparent approach during project design and execution will help researchers and/or programmers build the spirit of ownership and commitment in the stakeholders. However, if it is not realistic to have all key stakeholders involved from the onset, then mild and gradual involvement may be necessary.

**Step Four:** Setting goals and identifying costs. At this stage, the group/team needs to assign tasks and set appropriate timelines for different tasks in the project. At this level the key questions to ask may include:

- What are the key contributions targeted at each stakeholder?
- What are the key goals of the project that stakeholders have to support to be achievable?
- What resources do the stakeholders have to support with the project?
- How could the support of the stakeholders be harmonized to reduce overlap?

**Step Five:** Evaluation and revision. This aspect is to be carried out regularly from the time of the commencement of the project and continue throughout the lifespan of the project. It is of utmost benefit to the organisation if stakeholder analysis is consistently being updated in order to identify whether there are potential new stakeholders, changes in current stakeholder's importance or influence, or just in case there is sudden change in the perceptions held about the project. Participants are stimulated to fill in a stakeholder analysis table throughout these steps.

## An abridged stakeholder analysis table (with examples)

Name	Role	Why are they important	Rank (where in the matrix)	Current attitude	What we would like them to do	Key messages	How (Tactics)	When	Who
Bob	Farmer	Influential at a political level. Farmer opinion leader	1	Does not understand our project	Advocate our project to other farmers	There are benefits to him in working with us	Invite to project field day	12th Nov	Ian

Source: Nicole Kennon, Peter Howden and Meredith Hartley (undated)

### Limitations of the Stakeholder Analysis

While Stakeholder analysis has its advantages, it also has its limitations. For instance, despite its capacity for its possible cross-sectional view of an evolving picture, the utility of stakeholder analysis for predicting behaviour and managing the future project is time-limited and the approach should be supported by other policy analysis approaches. Hence, consideration for institutional analysis is given credence here. However, they could be done together at almost the same time.

### Institutional Analysis

The study of institutions is flocked with several approaches and perspectives; vis-à-vis those that focused on the history of institutions (historical institutionalism) (Zysman 1994; Katznelson 1998), the new and the old institutionalism (Hodgson 1998; Langlois 1986, 1989), and several other approaches in the social sciences, such as the functionalist, conflict and symbolic interactionist perspectives (Haralambos, Holborn and Heald 2008; Otite and Ogionwo 2006). The confusion that exists in the utilization of the concept of institutions and in turn its analysis is reflected in the works of North (1990) *Institution, Institutional Change and Economic Performance* when he defined institutions as the “rules of the game in a society”. To him, institutions serve as forms of control to influence how people behave and shape how they interact and how society revolves around them and evolve over time. This was, however, contested by Schotter (1981), who argued that institutions are “not rules of the game” but behaviours that occur in line with set rules. Institutions, to him, refers to behaviours that follow from rules because they have to do with what actors do with the rules and not what the rules are. Thus, while many scholars may agree with the views of North (1990) that rules and norms are institutions, many will, however, disagree with his view about what a rule actually entails. Sociologists see very strong connection between norms and institutions, in the sense that norms influence and determine the behaviours of people within institutions, while norms can be changed or modified by institutions (Haralambos et al. 2008; Otite and Ogionwo 2006). While institutions are seen as a place or build, enduring customs

and practices (Hornby 2000), contemporary sociologists generally believe that institutions are relatively enduring and exist to meet certain basic needs.

More important is the relationship that exists between institutions and organizations which North (1990) believes are two distinct entities. He further added that the type of organization that exists and evolves through time is determined by societal norms and rules as well as its institutions. Sociologists focusing on Organizational studies, however, did not see much or found no differences between institutions and organization. According to Hollingsworth (2000), norms and rules are seen as institutions which unfold in cycle with organizational structures and processes. Hollingsworth (2000) further added that changes in organizational systems affect and reveal changes in societal norms and rules. A few other scholars considered as the institutionalists have also argued that cultural norms and rules determine the type of organization created by actors in the society (Zucker 1988, 1991). These also contribute to institutional change which to a large extent influences the type of institutional analysis that should be carried out in them. Institutional change has been observed to occur resulting from and in the development of any institution and society. In fact, the way an institution works is such that the unwritten "rules of the game" that govern it often become so embedded in it that the idea of change may be completely unimaginable for those who work inside the institution.

Although the concept of institutional change is extensively discussed, the capacity to measure this change in any society is relatively lacking among scholars. This limitation is also compounded by the relative lack of ability to understand and build new institutions which is part of the important problems of societal development (Hollingsworth 2000). This may be because there are very little or no theories of institutions especially in the social sciences. Advancement of theories of institution requires a clear definition of the parameters that can be used to ensure institutional analysis. The definition of such parameters however depends on a clear understanding of the institutional make up and how it is connected to its style of innovativeness.

Relating institutional analysis to its innovativeness is not easy especially that there are poorly developed theories to explain them. While both concepts may be viewed separately by scholars, relating the connection between both will enable analyst to understand institution better and be able to do more appropriate analysis. A country's innovativeness has been found to be linked to its ability to compete with others (Nelson 1993). Furthermore, the differences in the innovative style of most societies have also been said to depend to a large extent on the institutional configuration. Innovativeness can either hinder or make the growth of any institution and society smooth (Hage and Hollingsworth 2000). In discussing technological innovation for instance, many scholars

have focused their discourse on the firms (Langlois and Robertson 1995; Whitley 2000). In the same vein, Chandler (1990) emphasized how the success of technological innovation in a firm across borders and time had been affected primarily by either the firm's possession of appropriate structure or utilization of the right strategy. He emphasized that organisations have been able to develop capacities that enable them prioritise their means, strategy and structure of production and hence increased scope to enjoy cost of production advantages over other organisations they compete with because they adopted relatively right strategy and structure (Teece 1993).

Institutional environment has also been emphasized as an important aspect that needs to be understood in the quest to know why some firms are more successful than others generally, why some firms excel at some point in time and later lose it at other times and why some firms perform better than others (Landes 1998; North 1990). How endowed an institution is can provide economic actors and firms with an insight into the initial challenges and prospects that are suitable or not for specific technological activities (Murnamm 1988). Although, institutional environment varies widely across society, successful firms and institutions are those that have adapted and survived in the midst of these variations using the best activities that are compatible with and suitable to their institutional environment. With such successes, they are able to participate in collective and collaborative activities to adjust their institutional environment so as to facilitate their level of innovation and technological competence.

### Levels of Institutional Analysis

Sometimes, scholars do engage in activities that are not coordinated such that their activities are fragmented across disciplines and sub-disciplines. In carrying out institutional analysis, therefore, it is pertinent to take into cognizance the multiple levels of reality in the analysis process (Hollingsworth 2000). Understanding the organizational or institutional map with these multiple levels of reality is also pertinent. Usually each of the areas on the maps are inter-related and interdependent such that changes in any of these components can equally affect the others. Hollingsworth (2000) provides a prototype of levels of institutional analysis as follows:

- (i) **Institutions:** This is the level of norms, rules, conventions, habits and values (North 1990). These usually exist at the micro-level (i.e at the level of the individual) and are usually more enduring and persistent than other components of institutional analysis. Furthermore, institutions play a very pivotal role in influencing the history of any society as result of their durability.

- (ii) ***Institutional arrangements:*** This level results from the first level. Norms, values and habits of the society lead to institutional arrangement which involves the coordination of various economic actors such as producers and suppliers of raw materials and those who process the raw materials. At this level, there are institutions, agencies and groups such as markets, states/government, corporate bodies, networks of trade guilds and associations and communities (Hollingsworth and Streeck 1994). This is usually viewed in two distinct ways: the nature of action motive and the distribution of power.
- (iii) ***Institutional sectors:*** This level includes systems such as business system, educational system, economic system, and system of research (Hollingsworth 1997) among others.
- (iv) ***Organizations:*** These and institutional sectors are usually operative at the macro-level.
- (v) ***Outputs and performance:*** Such levels include statuses, administrative decisions, the nature, quantity and quality of industrial products, sectoral and societal performance.

Conducting an institutional analysis based on the above levels of reality is dependent on the type of institution, organization or society in which it is being conducted. In a university system and a banking system, for instance, certain modifications may be necessary in the tool and in the process to suit the kind of institution being analyzed. Institutional analysis can also be viewed as stakeholder analysis of government agencies, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and firms that support and implement the actions that underlie policy reforms. In such instances, the analysis is informed by three central premises; (a) governments not a unitary sector, (b) different actors within government compete for power and resources (c) decisions made in central hierarchies are modified at the local level. Institutional analysis can make use of either two approaches or a combination of both:

### **The Institutional Assessment Tool (IAT)**

It is an analytic computer package whose report is usually presented in Microsoft word. The tool guides institutions such as banks through their researches into various components of their operation. The instrument which also guides in questionnaire development produces questions that help analyst to structure thoughts about institutional operations (i.e bank operations). Such thoughts could include complex institutional structure and dynamics which are found in many reforms. The units of analysis using the IAT tool include country counterparts except when it involves the use of institutional impact module. The respondents are usually bank operational staff who are expected to have knowledge on how the questionnaire can be filled, especially on necessary information such as

identifying the areas of bank operations. The bank operational staff where necessary may need to acquire knowledge on a wide range of issues because each module in the questionnaire may include questions that border on highly specific operational issues.

### ***Some of the Advantages of Utilizing IAT***

- (i) It is relevant for operational issues: Focusing on banks counterparts and dividing it into operational stages enable the IAT to achieve its goals of making the operations in question its main target from the beginning of the process to the end.
- (ii) It requires fewer resources: Cost is saved in the sense that only one questionnaire may be expected to be filled either by an individual or the bank operational team using the institutional assessment tool. The tool is convenient, fast and less expensive. The electronic version used also ensures “user friendly” and facilitates the production of presentation of reports. It gives room for findings to be shared and validated with counterparts.
- (iii) The tool ensures that a thorough process is undertaken because of the systematic way the questions are designed. The process is helpful in that it ensures that salient organizational issues are not missed out because a large amount of information is elicited and a vast analytical territory is covered from political incentive to administrative capacity.

### ***Some of the Limitations of Using IAT***

- (i) The problem of isolation can occur due to lack of an interactive dimension in using the tool. Such interactiveness can include debates for or against opinions. The information received may thus be a reflection of an individual’s point of view. Although this can be addressed using the process of re-validation or cross-checking of data which can be put forward for scrutiny and defense, it will increase cost.
- (ii) The information garnered in using IAT can be over-loaded especially because of the advantage of being thorough. There can be too much data which may be difficult to manage and analyze, arising from inability to prioritize specific information in the questionnaire. Trimming or summarizing the questionnaire to address only very salient issues becomes necessary.
- (iii) The information may be one-sided since it focuses on members of the bank operational team and not on the members of the organization being reformed. This shortcoming can be addressed when responses are made to be based on interaction with the necessary stakeholders from both ends. This again can increase cost and make the process longer.

### **Organizational Mapping**

The other tool is organizational mapping. This helps individuals or researcher to understand the areas in which their researches fit in to research of other practitioners on the map. Organization maps thus help to identify specific public actions which may be associated with policy reform as well as the organizations that are saddled with the task of implementing the policies. Organizational maps can provide the proof or snapshot of actors who perform certain tasks in form of reforms (static mapping).

In addition, it can provide the process mapping which shows how the organization actually works after the reform has been implemented. Thus, while the static mapping provides the diagrams and proof of those who carried out the task and how it was carried out, process mapping gives an insight into organizational norms and culture that may not be ascertained from diagrams and documents (static mapping). Process mapping is a highly visual tool that is used to trace how process and procedures flow through institutions and through all levels of a system. Such process and procedures could include those of funds, information, decisions, resources etc. The tool relates objects or myriad of information that are clearly identifiable by humans with broader activities and less easily defined tasks performed by people or machines. A process map provides details information about relationship between different organizational systems mapped.

Process maps are simple, but highly valuable visual aids that help researchers, decision makers, analysts, workers and auditors to understand complex operations and dynamic processes in organizations. The maps are highly utilized in private organizations and many of them are available for commercial purposes as software tools that are helpful in the process of analysis but just with slightly different visual language. Process mapping is usually based on the use of qualitative methods which involve direct interaction through in-depth interviews or focus group discussions with key actors and relevant stakeholders across different levels and functions in government. It can reflect information on the availability of information and direction of flow of information across the hierarchy of decisions in an organization. Information is broken down into short, discrete questions by the analyst in order to initiate a dialogue (for example, who has decision-making power? What financial year is it? etc). The analyst then compiles responses to such questions and arranges them into appropriate themes. Those at the bottom levels of the organizations all particularly are taken into cognizance because they can give first-hand information since they are in more direct and regular contact with individuals who are affected by organizational reform.

The static maps or road maps are always used as the starting point, while doing process mapping. Static mapping is ideally informed by previous stakeholders identifying government and other implementing actors. Process maps are produced in company of a team of members from all levels of the

organization when resources and time are accessible. This involves a participatory process which promotes acceptance by groups that are central to the organization, but also promotes accuracy of the maps used. However, in order to reduce cost, focus group discussions are usually conducted at first, after which interviews are then carried out to validate the findings.

### ***Some Advantages of Using Process Mapping***

- (i) It encourages focus. Since data is collected through an interactive medium such as interviews, some challenges are likely to surface which could on the other hand propel the interviewees or participants on the focus group to strive to maintain some element of focus on the areas of concerns.
- (ii) It can produce detailed and robust information since the procedures of data collection in organizational mapping, gives room for more discoveries. Information can be generated at all levels of the organization and semi-structured interviews which utilize mainly open-ended questions enable one to probe further into problem areas that may not be readily observable.
- (iii) Information collected gives opportunity for looking outwards considering they are elicited from the narrated experiences and perceptions of organizational stakeholders themselves.

### ***Some Limitations of Process Mapping***

- (i) It may require high amount of resources because organizational mapping consumes time and may require funds and some degree of expert skill. It can also require the presence of personnel or researcher in the field possibly in several organizations to conduct the qualitative aspect of data collection.
- (ii) Information can be distorted especially when only small sample of stakeholders is consulted and also because static maps and process maps are subjective outputs. Hence, findings are more likely to be based on incomplete information where few the organizational levels are addressed or small numbers of stakeholders are consulted.

### ***Usefulness of Institutional Analysis***

Institutional analysis answers questions that border on the organizations that carry out certain policy reforms and describes the characteristics of these organizations. It involves the analysis of a broad range of characteristics of people's daily lives and work. Such characteristics are usually identified by the people who are directly concerned and participated in the institution being analyzed, and give an insight into the worthiness of analyzing the institution. Debates on issues can be

encouraged, especially in places where institutional problems are recognized. It is, however, noteworthy that some issues in institutions may be viewed as “usual phenomena” to the extent that they may not be considered worthy of analysis in most institutions. However, the features of institutional analysis depict that it involves some form of diagnostic activity which involves someone outside the organization who is not a participant in the institutions and most times not among the subject of analysis, but is however considered very necessary because of the role he/she stands to play. For instance, only someone who is outside an organization may be capable of giving opinions and information on salient issues within or outside the institutions of which “insiders” may be oblivious or negligent.

Institutional analysis can be useful at any stage of developing an intervention and can have particular relevance depending on the stage at which it is utilized. Hence, doing institutional analysis has considerable benefits in terms of its ability to generate more appropriate and sustainable intervention and support for whatever issues it is targeted. However, the process of carrying it out can be complex and time-consuming. It may also require enormous resources. In addition, the sensitivity of issues being addressed through this process needs to be considered in making decision on when, how, where and who should carry out the analysis. Furthermore, institutional analysis can be used for reforms that are complex and geared towards changing or developing responsibilities for government or one that requires that government of different levels and agencies to cooperate and collaborate in meeting certain needs. It is particularly useful in reforms that take care of issues such as regulation of markets, delivery of public services, management of public expenditure and decentralization.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter has attempted to re-introduce the concepts of Stakeholder and Institutional analyses as tools, with special attention focused on the process of using the tools to engage stakeholders on their potential capacities and capabilities geared towards enhancing substantial and immediate impact in a project. The appropriate conditions and levels under which Stakeholder and Institutional analyses should be employed were also addressed along with explanation of the relevance of these analyses in terms of their advantages, disadvantages and limitations. Stakeholder and Institutional analyses have been strong tools in the social sciences, an improved step-by-step processes of implementation described here attempt to demonstrate the fact that these analytic tools can be applied at any level in any organization to achieve set goals.

## References

- Brugha, R. and Varvasovszky, Z. 2000. Stakeholder analysis: A review. *Health Policy and Planning* 15(3): 239-246.
- Bryson, J.M. 2004. "What to do When Stakeholders Matter? A Guide to Stakeholder Identification and Analysis Techniques." A paper presented at the London School of Economics and Political Sciences Public management review. Vol. 6 Issue1: 21-53. ISSN1471-9037 print/ISSN 1471-9045 online. DOI:10.1080/14719030410001675722
- Chandler, A. 1990 *Scale and scope: The dynamics of industrial capitalism* Cambridge, Mass. Harvard University Press.
- Freeman, R. 1984. *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston. Pitman.
- Golder, B., WWF-US and Gawler, M. 2005. "Cross-Cutting Tool: Stakeholder Analysis." Resources for Implementing the WWF Standards.
- Haralambos, M., Holborn, M. and Heald, R. 2008. *Sociology: Themes and perspectives*. 7<sup>th</sup> edition London: Collins Education.
- Hage, J. and Hollingsworth, J. 2000. A strategy for analysis of idea innovation networks and institutions. *Organization Studies* 21.
- Hodgson, G. 1998. *Economics and institutions: A manifesto for a modern institutional economics*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Hollingsworth, J. 2000. Doing institutional analysis: Implications for the study of innovation. *Review of International Political Economy* 7(4): 595-644 United Kingdom.
- Hollingsworth, J. and Streeck, W. 1994. *Governing capitalist economies performance and control of economics sectors*, (eds.) New York: Oxford University.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1994. "Countries and Sectors Performance, Convergence and Competitiveness" In *Governing Capitalist Economies Performance and Control of Economics Sectors*, Hollingsworth, J. Schmitter, P. and Streeck, W. (eds.), New York: Oxford University. Pp 221-254
- Hollingsworth, J.R. 1997. "Some Reflections on How Institution Influence Styles of Innovation" Paper for Swedish Collegium for Advanced Study of the Social Sciences.
- Hollingsworth, J. and Boyer, R. 1997. *Contemporary capitalism: The embeddedness of institutions*. Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University.
- Hornby, A.S. 2000. *Oxford advanced learning dictionary*. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition, Oxford University Press, United Kingdom.
- Katznelson, I. 1998. The Doleful dance of politics and policy: Can historical institutionalism make a difference? *American Political Science Review* 191-7.
- Kennon, N., Howden, P. and Hartley, M. 2009. Who really matters? Stakeholder analysis tool. *Extension Farming Systems Journal* 5(2), Charles Sturt University.
- Landes, D. 1998. *The wealth and poverty of nations: Why some are so rich and some are so rich and some are so poor*. New York: W.W. Norton.

- Langlois, R. 1986. *Economics as a process: Essays in the new institutional economics* (ed.) Cambridge University Press.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1989. What is wrong with the old institutional economics. *Review of Political Economy* Pg. 270-298
- Langlois, R. and Robertson, P. 1995. *Firms, markets and economic change* (eds.) London: Routledge.
- Murnamm, J. 1998. "Knowledge and Competitive Advantage in the Synthetic Dye Industry" Ph.D. Dissertation. Columbia University.
- Nelson, R. 1993. *National innovation systems: A Comparative analysis.* (ed.) New York and Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- North, D. 1990. *Institutions, institutional change and economic performance.* Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Nutt, P. and Backoff, R. 1992. *Strategic management of public and third sector organizations: A handbook for leaders.* San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.
- Otite, O. and Ogionwo, W. 2006. *Introduction to sociological studies.* Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Books Nigeria Plc.
- Schotter, A. 1981. *The economics theory of social institution.* Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Teece, D. 1993. Perspectives on Alfred Chandler's scale and scope. *Journal of Economic Literature* March.
- Varvasovszky, Z. and Brugha, R. 2000. How to do (or not to do) "A stakeholder analysis". *Health Policy and Planning* 15(3): 338-345.
- Whitley, R. 2000. The institutional structuring of innovation strategies, business systems, firms types and patterns of technical change in different market economies. *Organization Studies.*
- Zucker, L. 1991. *Institutional patterns and organizations: Culture and environment.* Cambridge, Mass. Ballinger
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1988. "Microfoundations of Institutional Thought" In *The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis*, Walter W., Powell and Paul, J. DiMaggio (eds.). University of Chicago Press. 103-107.
- Zysman, J. 1994. "How Institutions Create Historically Rooted Trajectories of Growth" In *Industrial and Corporate Change.*