"COLLABORATION (AND CONTESTATION) AMID DEVELOPMENT ORGANISATIONS – A CASE STUDY IN HEIDEDAL, SOUTH AFRICA."

MINI-DISSERTATION

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to

Dot Vermeulen

(1985 – 2015)

Acknowledgements

I am indebted to my supervisors, Dr. Deidre van Rooyen and Mr. Willem Ellis, for their guidance and support throughout completing this study. I wish to thank them for their humour (when at times I have lost mine) as well as their kindness.

Secondly, I would like to show my gratitude to my family for embarking on this journey with me; without their continual encouragement – as with any venture I pursue – I would not have been able to see this through.

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1.1. Introduction

Inter-organisational collaboration is an important tool that can help organisations build their capacity by gaining access to a vast pool of resources, skills and knowledge that give rise to concerted efforts to address complex challenges (Tsasis, 2009: 5). It is evident then when it comes to this interplay of forces, two components are of significance: Inter-organisational collaboration and developmental organisations.

The former refers to the ability of developmental organisations to create mutually advantageous relationships and the capability of organisations to enter into, develop, and sustain inter-organisational systems in pursuit of achieving collective outcomes (Weber & Khademian, 2008: 334). These relationships encapsulate the sharing of resources, power and authority for greater efficiency and expanded service delivery among other local and national entities as well as developmental organisations (Claiborne et al., 2009: 335). Thus, organisations are brought together to achieve common objectives that could not be reached by a single individual or organisation independently (Department of Development Services, 2008: 5; Hoberecht et al., 2011: 24).

Considering the latter component, the term "organisation" will refer to any non-profit organisation that uses its surplus revenues to accomplish its goals (Hong, 2012: 243). For the purpose of this document, these goals focus on the betterment of a positive human or environmental condition based on the following definition:

> *"Non-profit Organisations is an associated term for civil society organisations that range from faith and community-based organisations, charities (welfare), traditional organisations like social and sports clubs, and a host of other development and social forms of organisations working tirelessly on the social fabric of society. These organisations are commonly referred to as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community based organisations (CBOs) and faith based organisations (FBOs)" (Department of Social Development, 2013: 5).*

Barrett et al. (2005) suggest that the success of these organisations lies in expanding that capacity which improves its ability to manage environmental and internal influences for resource allocation and deliver services. We have seen in over half a decade how developmental organisations have increased collaboration in order to promote better service delivery. This has been done by augmenting staff skills with training as well as expanding structures and systems. Service delivery has also been furthered by directing inter-organisational relations and refining logistical processes (Claiborne et al., 2009: 337).

Leung (2013: 447) posits that one of the motivating factors behind modern-day collaboration can be found in "the increasing complexity of social problems that call for closer cooperation from organisations that were originally established to solve specific social problems." Leung further believes that, through this collaboration, services can be delivered to those in need of them in a simpler, faster and hopefully more effective way.

Not only are the problems materialising in the community complex, but so are the developmental organisations themselves. They are compound organisational actors with internal battles over political primacies and strategies, but nevertheless are able to act in a coherent and decisive manner externally. These organisations have well-defined goals which they are actively pursuing and therefore ultimately result in alleviating social issues (Wallace et al., 2006: 94; Leung 2013: 447). In order for developmental organisations to achieve these goals, as Provan and Kenis (2008: 240) indicate, they must further their capacity building potential by entering in inter-organisational collaborative agreements with their community. One community that has a lot to gain from such engagements is Heidedal situated in South Africa; the country that is the birthplace of Ubuntu.[1]

1.2. Problem Statement and Significance of the Study

Through Ubuntu we can see that collaboration is rewarding and widely embraced. Yet, certain gaps in information and access to that information still prevail, especially considering that there is ample literature on the subject of inter-organisational collaboration globally,[2] but meagre attention has been given to the matter in South Africa. This is alarming seeing that developmental organisations are considered to not only increase efficient service delivery, but also improve market performance and economic growth in the country (South African Policy Coordination & Advisory Services, 2003: 27; Van Rooyen & Ellis, 2014). These organisations are also recognised as vital within the upcoming forms of governance and growing bureaucratisation in international politics (Ohanyan, 2012: 366).

This is aggravated by the fact that in South Africa, as in so many countries, governmental action is insufficient or inadequate to resolve pressing societal problems (Nzimakwe, 2008: 90). Steffek (2013: 999) indicates that as a result organisations interact with international forums from time to time in order to circumvent a government regime that might be repressive, or unresponsive to their demands. However, Steffek (2013: 996) also notes that even though most organisations "usually do not command sufficient resources to threaten states, or to set incentives for them, their influence on international relations is supposed to be of the 'soft'

[1] Ubuntu is a Southern African term used to refer to a philosophical thought system that encapsulates Africa's humanistic way of defining life through others (Sulamoyo, 2010: 41). "Ubuntu can be defined as humaneness – a pervasive spirit of caring and community, harmony and hospitality, respect and responsiveness – that individuals and groups display for one another. Ubuntu is the foundation for the basic values that manifest themselves in the ways African people think and behave toward each other and everyone else they encounter" (Mangaliso, 2001: 24).

[2] See for example Weiss et al., 2002; Marchington & Vincent, 2004; Babiak, 2009; Perrault et al., 2011.

sort. They raise awareness, they (re-)frame issues, they act as norm-entrepreneurs, and they engage in public shaming campaigns to persuade states to change their policies."

In fact, the South African president, Jacob Zuma, himself declared that the non-profit sector should remain an indispensable partner for the government as it pursues the development agenda by doing sterling work in improving the lives of ordinary citizens (Khumalo, 2012). Hence, developmental organisations have been compelled to tackle social challenges together as they are emerging developmental dynamos (Nzimakwe, 2008: 90).

One would think then that organisations would be supported by the government and to some extent this is true: In 2013 the government adopted the National Development Plan, which offers a long-term strategic view on how "to ensure that all South Africans attain a decent standard of living through the elimination of poverty and the reduction of inequality" (South African Government News Agency, 2013). In order to address this matter the state has adopted a partnership model of service provisioning and relies largely on developmental organisations to provide professional social services (National Planning Commission, 2014a: 377). It has promised to do this by broadening social welfare services through more education and training for social work practitioners as well as a review of funding for non-profit organisations (National Planning Commission, 2014b: 60). Thus, in part this plan should be reinforcing the Non-Profit Organisations Act 71 of 1997.

The Non-Profit Organisations Act is geared towards providing a supportive regulatory system for predominantly smaller emerging organisations (Wyngaard, 2013). Section 2 of this Act provides that its objectives are "to encourage and support non-profit organisations in their contribution to meeting the diverse needs of the population of the Republic by, amongst other, creating an environment in which non-profit organisations can flourish."

Unfortunately, the government has failed to successfully implement what they have set out to do: Many organisations have difficulty accessing government support, forming partnerships, obtaining funding and building capacity that will allow them to fulfil their mandates (Spencer Stuart, 2013). Even as far back as 2005 the Department of Social Development (2005: 8) has been well aware that the financial resources allocated for the implementation of the Act are insufficient. Wyngaard (2013) believes that the changes that were implemented since then have not been adequate as the Department still has to strengthen its internal capacity to address the needs of the third sector.

It could be considered that organisations would reach out to each other under such circumstances, but it has been noted though that despite the advantages of collaboration (Claiborne et al., 2009: 337), it is often found to be typically weak at local or national level. Pfeiffer et al. (2008: 2134) heed against such folly in that the lack of collaboration "may be causing permanent harm to public systems of care by fragmenting services" and

creating redundant work for government officials, in addition to having other negative impacts. This implies that a mixture of small efforts, often competing for resources, may have an impact on select individuals in the target population, "but as a strategy for creating a healthy society in the aggregate, it is inefficient at best and counterproductive at worst" (Ferrari, 2011: 89). It is therefore vital to harness inter-organisational networking and collaboration. This is true especially in disadvantaged areas that could benefit most from it.

One such community is Heidedal. This community is seated in the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality with an overall unemployment rate of 27.7% (37.2% for people aged 15 – 34), a third of the population living in poverty[3] with more than 50% of the population earning less than R1 000 per month (Centre for Development Support, 2012: 63; Free State Local Government, 2014; Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality, 2012: 19). Further social concerns include the fact that 16% of the youth aged 5 to 24 do not attend school, 55.7% of adults above the age of 20 have not received schooling up until secondary school and over 1000 households are headed by children (Statistics South Africa, 2012).

Focusing on the community in question specifically, Heidedal is traditionally the coloured (or brown) community in Mangaung consisting of over 29 000 members (Statistics South Africa, 2014). As we can see with the 2011 Census (Statistics South Africa, 2014), a total of 34% of the adult population is not economically active,[4] and 53% earn less than R1 600 per month. This translates to 29% households (2 477 in total) earning less than R19 600 annually. A total of 499 of these households are informal settlements and a further 30 households are run by children aged 10 to 19. Moreover, 53% of this population had not completed secondary school – nearly half of this figure (24%) constitutes adults that have not completed primary school.

Other concerns are felonious in nature which is reflected by the fact that the community has had a 21.4% surge in reported crimes over nearly a decade (Crime Statistics South Africa, 2014).[5] Assault, burglary, shoplifting, drug related and sexual crimes are especially of concern as well, seeing that their prevalence is particularly high and there has been a sharp increase in incidents of these crimes over the past five years (Crime Statistics South Africa, 2014).[6] It is estimated that this community is the second largest distribution point in the Free State for drugs such as mandrax, cocaine and marijuana and children as young as 9 years of age are addicted to alcohol and drugs (Smith, 2012: 1).

[3] A total of 234 864 individuals were listed as living in poverty in 2012 (Centre for Development Support, 2012: 63)
[4] This represents the percentage of the population identified as "unemployed", "discouraged work seeker" and "other not economically active".
[5] A total of 2 220 crimes were reported in 2004 which steadily rose to 2 696 in 2013.
[6] The total occurrences reported over the past five years were 3 082, 225 1 642, 1 036 and 401 respective to each year. In that very same order the increase in incidents were 27%, 32%, 57%, 404%, and 364% over the same period.

The local print media[7] reflect numerous occasions where the people and local institutions of Heidedal took action against crime and raise their voices against misconduct.[8] Equally so, organisations in this community have also taken hands in the past to address social calamities and promote community upliftment. Emanating from community-based collaborations, it seems appropriate at this junction to delve further into group efforts between developmental organisations and what they might entail.

1.3. Synopsis of Inter-Organisational Collaboration

Let us first consider collaboration in a broader context where literature (Uvin et al., 2000: 1417; Huyse et al., 2012) indicates that collaboration, amongst other things, is a key element for developmental organisations to expand their capabilities. This concept of "boundary spanning", coined by Tushman (1977), is deemed an essential ability in leadership that bonds different components in organisations, as well as keeps organisations and partnerships working together (Ernst & Chrobot-Mason, 2011: 28).

Collaboration as a boundary spanning tool is seated in exchange theories of cooperation, which in turn is rooted in organisational sociology – in particular regarding inter-organisational relations (Steffek, 2013: 1001). Zhao et al. (2012: 617) indicate that "inter-organisational collaboration occurs when different organisations work together to address problems through joint effort, resources, decision-making and share ownership of the final product or service." The emphasis is placed here on the fact that organisations exchange certain resources to benefit all parties involved. The dynamics of this trade are explained by the resource dependence model:

> *"The resource dependence model proceeds from the indisputable proposition that organisations are not able to internally generate either all the resources or functions required to maintain themselves, and therefore organisations must enter into transactions and relations with elements in the environment that can supply the required resources and services" (Aldrich & Pfeffer, 1976: 83).*

For the purpose of this study, the mechanisms of the resource dependence model can be divided into four factors of inter-organisational collaboration by answering specific questions:

- What are the motives that draw organisations together or repel them?
- What are the forms/stages of collaboration? (I.e. the processes, structures and rules of collaboration.)
- In which manner does collaboration take place? (I.e. formally or informally.)
- What makes collaboration successful?

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[7] Gericke, 2012a: 4; Gericke, 2012b: 8; Oosthuizen, 2011: 6; Steyn, 2010: 1; Tau, 2011: 4; Venter, 2013a: 4; Venter, 2013b: 4.

[8] Burger, 2010: 1; Bloemnuus, 2012: 5; Davids, 2013: 3. Gericke, 2013a: 8; Gericke, 2013b: 8; Motshabi, 2013: 4; Mvubu, 2012: 10.

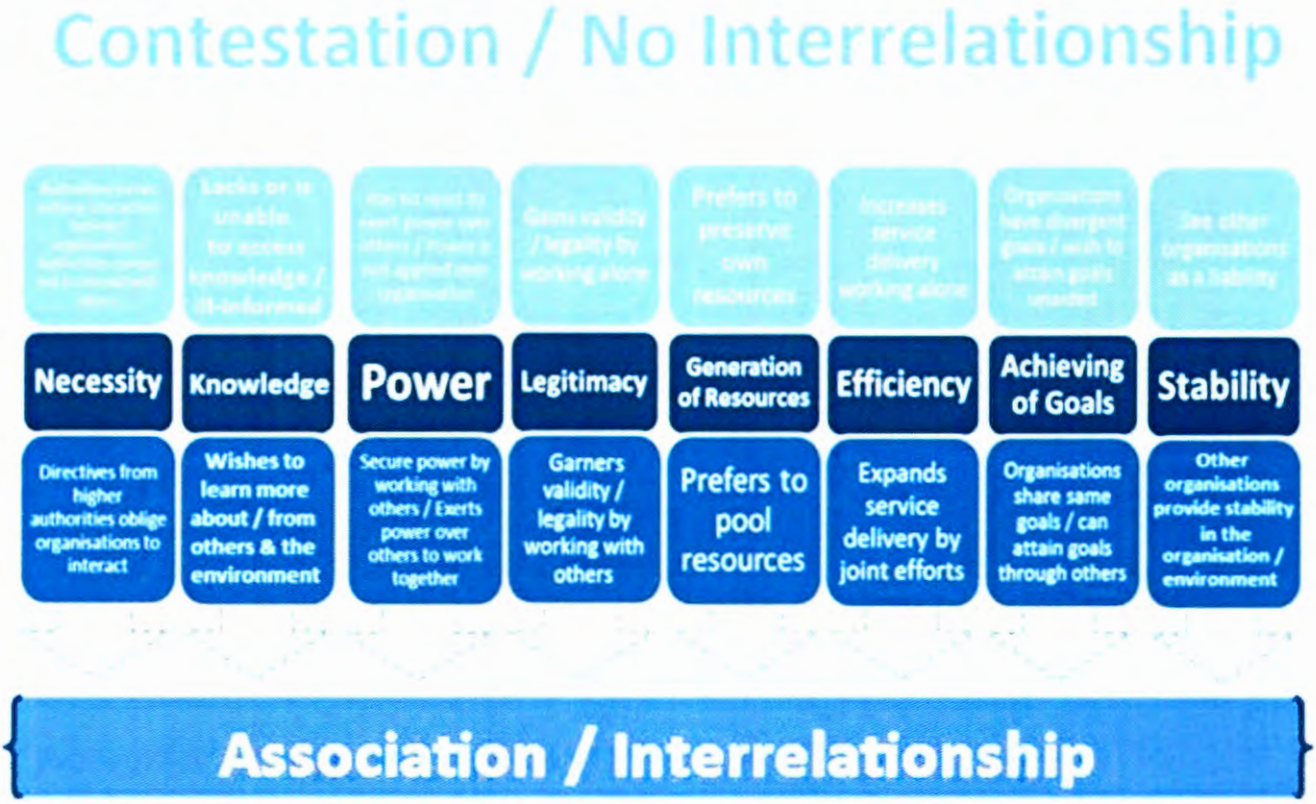
Each one of these four factors is of value and should therefore be considered individually. This will be done in twofold: first by looking at the different push-pull factors between organisations and then the latter three points grouped together where we will discuss the manners and types of successful collaboration.

1.3.1. Reasons for Promoting or Inhibiting Collaboration

In this subsection we will consider the different motivating factors spurring inter-organisational collaboration or rivalry. As a starting point, in the same way that we can look at individual behaviour in group settings on a scale from completely self-focused to completely other-focused, we can look at the behaviour of organisations that work together in terms of the relative importance they place on protecting their distinct interests or realising shared concerns (Kloth 2004: 2).

Why this collaborative behaviour takes form between organisations or not has been speculated on by many theorists: Three of the significant theories – that of Bailey and Koney (2000), Oliver (1990) and Katsaura (2012) – have been merged into one model for this study since there is a great deal of overlapping between them. This model consists of 8 bifurcated components (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Factors determining collaborative/non-collaborative behaviour



The first item, necessity, dictates that an organisation may establish links or exchanges with other parties in order to meet the necessary legal/regulatory requirements or socio-cultural pressures (Oliver, 1990: 242; Babiak, 2007: 341). It consequently relates to legitimacy that deals with the (documented) justification of actions levied by institutional settings (Claiborne et al., 2009: 336). By securing legitimacy organisations align

themselves with the prevailing norms, rules, beliefs, or expectations of the larger community (Oliver, 1990: 246; Margolin et al., 2015: 31 – 32). This enhances the organisation's efficiency, perceived fairness and trust amongst the ones it involves (Provan & Lemaire, 2012: 645).

The form legitimacy will take depends on **knowledge**. Yarwood (2007: 461) stresses the need for agencies in governance networks to develop and control knowledge: Producing localised knowledge about community concerns, skills and structures can be used as a bargaining tool to gain support from other stakeholders and funders. Knowledge is therefore a form of cultural capital that each organisation covets; those who do not amass knowledge could possibly not wield **power**. Power can be prompted by the potential to exert control over another organisation/entity or its resources. Gaventa (2006) puts power in the centre of agenda-shaping processes in participatory spaces, studying the undercurrents of barring the less powerful in the process.

On the other hand, unconstrained interaction between organisations can take place through reciprocity in order to **generate resources** (Oliver, 1990: 244; Bailey & Koney, 2000: 15). Pooling of capitals goes hand in hand with **efficiency, which** reflects an organisation's efforts to improve their input and output ratios regarding expanding its service delivery or enlarging its target population (Oliver, 1990: 244; Popp & Cassebeer, 2015: 230). This reflects organisations' drive towards **goal achievement** often related to creating social change, addressing social and political inequities, and/or providing services not otherwise available through the government or the private sector (Margolin et al., 2015: 31). Ultimately, the reason for such action can be because organisations wish to gain **stability**. That is, the ability of an organisation to manage uncertainty and obtain dependable patterns for resource exchange (Claiborne et al., 2009: 337).

Considering the different factors that have just been discussed, it is evident that organisations act with a specific purpose and goal in mind in order to obtain what they want and what they set out to do. This means that distinct organisational attributes that are the basis for working together could often become barriers (Kloth, 2004: 3). However, sometimes organisations have a compatible goal that is best achieved by opening their organisational boundaries (Bailey & Koney, 2000: 184; Kloth, 2004: 4). When organisations embark on such a pursuit the fashion, the sort and degree of success regarding this venture vary in depth and breadth.

1.3.2. Manners of Collaboration and Types of Successful Collaboration

As we have just seen in the previous subsection, there is a great sense of interplay, support and/or sometimes rivalry between factors that prelude inter-organisational collaboration or contestation depending on the context of this engagement. If it should happen though that collaboration is the end result of these dealings, cooperation can take place in either a formal or informal way.

According to Steffek (2013: 994), **formalised** interaction might be stipulated by contracts or when one organisation pays another for a stated service. Another example of a formal association is when procedural

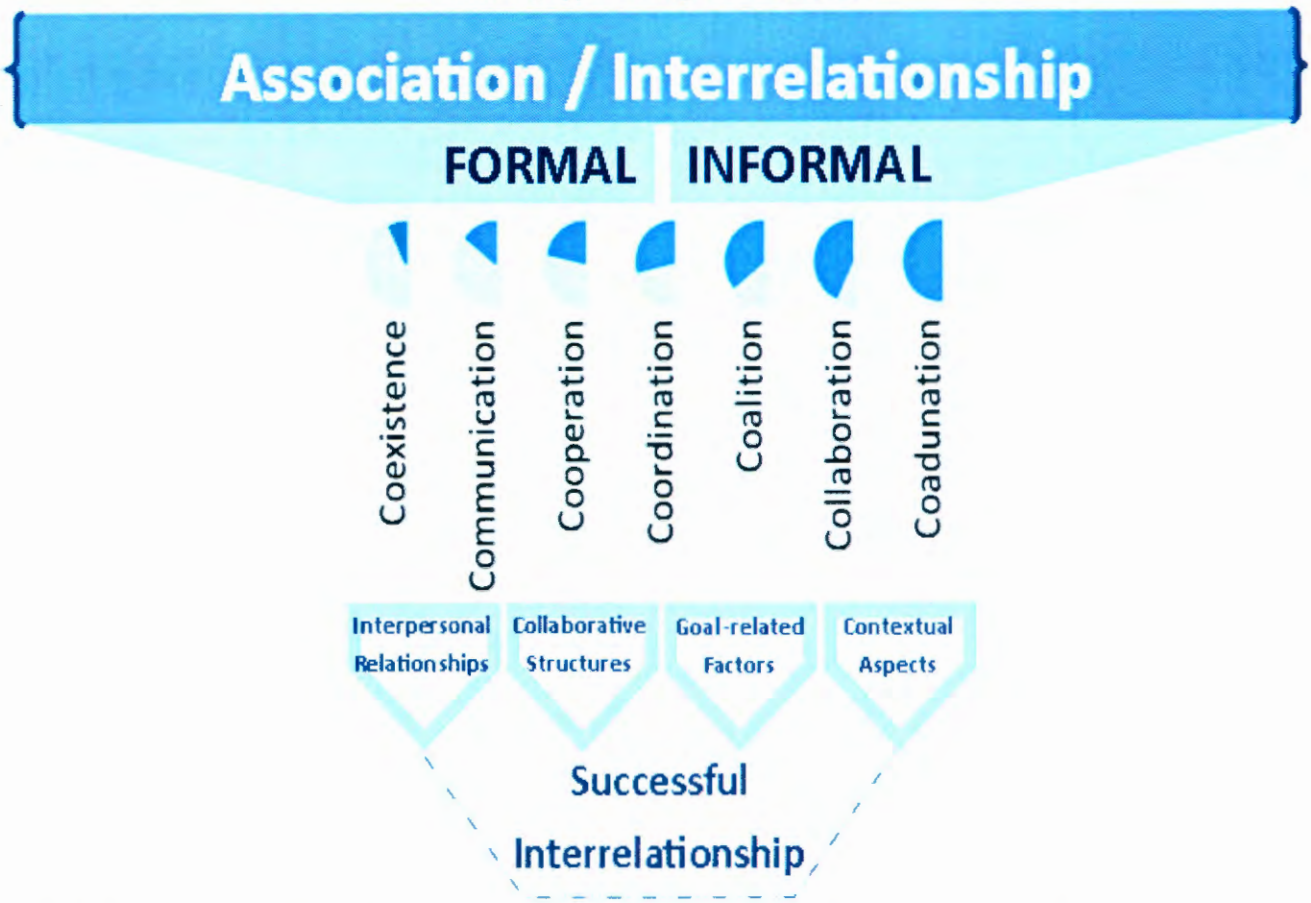
rules allow an organisation to attend official meetings of another in which participants share information. This can also be done **informally** when organisation delegates meet off the record to share information, when organisations refer associates to other organisations or when they unofficially promote another organisation's endeavour (Steffek, 2013: 994). Furthermore, the manner in which this association takes place depends on the nature of the relationship. Frey et al. (2006) created the "7C" stage model to show the profundity of joint pursuits by organisations. This model is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: The "7C" Stage Model of Concord

No.	Stage	Description
1	Coexistence	Organisations are aware of each other's existence; however, effectively no interaction exists between them.
2	Communication	Networking between organisations begins to exist as they share information (e.g. referral procedures, exchanging contact lists).
3	Cooperation	Once-off or short-term ventures are pursued together (e.g. actual case referral).
4	Coordination	Materialisation of inter-organisational structures (e.g. consortiums, coordinating committees and forums). May also entail planned medium- to long-term assiduous collective undertakings.
5	Coalition	Parties start to identify conjointly established objectives which lead to devising amalgamated strategies of service development. Daily cooperation remains and becomes the status quo.
6	Collaboration	Consolidated projects are executed while organisations offer services by forming a new service unit or restructuring existing units.
7	Coadunation	Organisations merge or unify in their entirety.

It is important to note that the proposed model does not imply an evolution of sorts where one stage must follow another; this progression simply shows the different levels of increased interaction between organisations that could exist in order to provide fruitful services. In addition, each of these 7 platforms could have different levels of success, depending on the manner it is being utilised and the context this is being done. This includes the preconception between parties of what is meant with (the extent of) collaboration which might have varying meanings to different people and systems. "The result is often frustration and disappointment rooted in misaligned assumptions about the nature of the working relationship each partner intended to build" (Kloth, 2004: 1). Thus, in order to avoid such disappointment, miscommunication or even downfall, organisations have to assert the four types of factors for successful collaboration as put forth by Leung (2013) as represented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Collaborative action – fashion, type & degree of success Figure 3: Collaborative action – fashion, type & degree of success



The first of these is contextual factors which have to do with the setting in which the collaboration takes place and by which it is affected. These factors are wide-ranging and can include the policy environment, the occurrence and rise of social necessities, and hitches and support from the community (Provan & Milward, 1995: 26; Bryson et al., 2006).

This relates to collaborative structures which encompass effectual network synergy where strong cohesion is evident by striking a balance between dependence and autonomy (Provan & Milward, 1995: 24; Tsasis, 2009: 5). However, these structures can only be realised by considering interpersonal relationships. Not surprisingly, it is generally agreed in literature (Shaw, 2003; Perrault et al., 2011) that respect, understanding, effective communication, and friendship/informal connections are some of the most important factors having positive effects on collaboration.

Gaining this rapport can be done through goal-related factors. These factors revolve around sharing a common mission between collaborators that has shown dedication to the anticipated end results and the meaning they attach to it (Shaw, 2003: 110; Provan & Lemaire, 2012: 639).

In a nutshell, setting goals, along with the other motivators, is one of the overarching factors for successful collaboration. In this section we have also touched on the different forms and manners inter-organisational cooperative action could take which flowed from the different push and pull components of collaboration. Yet again, compatible goals prevailed as an important component.

Similarly, with driven action – like collaboration – this research study also envisioned certain goals. For that very reason, this section has been introduced to familiarise the reader with the theoretical framework. This framework will not only be applied to already existing examples, but also to the Heidedal case study: Thus, a goal-driven thread is drawn throughout this discussion which is based on set outcomes.

1.4. Aim and Objectives

The aim of this study is to investigate the extent of collaboration between organisations that focus on social development in Heidedal, South Africa. The objectives of the proposed research are:

- To establish the prevalence of concerted initiatives amongst the organisations in question.
- To determine if the need for collaboration exists among the organisations at hand.
- To identify factors that influence collaboration/no collaboration between these organisations.
- To explore possible collaborative structures.

1.5. Research Design

Based on the aim and objectives it is evident that the research design had to be largely qualitative. "Research design" refers to the logical structure of the inquiry the overall strategy in order to integrate the different mechanisms of the study (University of Southern California, 2013: 2). Jalil (2013: 6) indicates that a research design therefore "articulates what data is required, from whom, and how it is going to answer the research question. Fundamentally research design affects the extent to which causal claims can be made about the impact of the intervention".

Considering then the type of deductions to be made, a qualitative approach was implemented as it sought to gain an in-depth grasp of the respondents' experiences in order to develop a complex, holistic picture of inter-organisational collaboration in Heidedal (Ivankova et al., 2007: 257, 259): Hence, the study aspires "to understand a larger phenomenon through close examination of one specific case". In this study the phenomenon under scrutiny is collaboration amongst social development organisations; the specific case here refers to such organisations active in Heidedal.

This concept of greater understanding is the end set forth by Rossman and Rallis (2012: 103) for case-based research which seamlessly fits in as research design for the study. The research took form as a case study seeing that it posed to determine, according to Bless et al. (2013: 57), the breadth and scope of inter-organisational collaboration in its natural context (that being Heidedal) within the boundaries of a few social systems (i.e. the developmental organisations at hand).

The case-based research design also employed process-tracing. This construct is defined as "the description and explanation of social processes that unfold between persons participating in the process, people with their values, expectations, opinions, perceptions, resources, controversies, decisions, mutual relations and behaviour, or the description and explanation of processes within and between social institutions" (Swanborn, 2010: 13). From this definition we can see that process-tracing will be a central matter in the exploration of the dynamics between developmental organisations.

Other key matters for utilising a case-based design have been put forward by Perri 6[10] and Christine Bellamy (2011: 104). The most relevant of these motivators for this particular study include:

- more emphasis on the dynamics of cases are considered as wholes than on the relationships across cases among discrete variables;
- the emergent outcomes and properties are sought after;
- the interactions between factors in producing outcomes can be studied in fine detail – it explores *conjunctions* and *interactions* between, and *configurations* of these factors and does not simply treat these aspects as shaving an additive or cumulative effect; and
- an extensive range of available data, of both qualitative and quantitative types, is gathered.[11]

Nieuwenhuis (2007: 75) points out that these motivators add to the conundrum that case studies wish to answer "how"[12] and "why"[13] questions which originates from the fact that very little is known about the topic. By definition this makes the research exploratory which is why no hypothesis has been tested. Nonetheless, the research was guided by "general ideas" or "expectations" in response to a critical question[14] (Bless et al., 2013: 57; Mouton, 2009: 150). The research, therefore, had to be inductive considering that this question was answered from a standpoint where the researcher had no real idea of what might have turned out "to be plausible, relevant or helpful about the subject of interest" (6 & Bellamy, 2011: 76).

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[10] To clarify, Professor Perri 6 is a British social scientist that changed his name from David Ashworth to Perri 6 in 1983 (Queen Mary University of London, 2015).
[11] This matter will be delved into in the following subsection.
[12] "How does collaboration unfold between these organisations?"
[13] "Why does collaboration as a phenomenon arise the way it does in Heidedal-based developmental organisations?"
[14] The question being: "To what extent do social development organisations collaborate in Heidedal?"

Furthermore, considering these uncharted qualities of the case study, it is essential that an empirical approach was applied in that data gathered had to be observable and measurable – which, in principal, is the general stance of case studies (Bouma & Ling, 2006: 15; Mouton, 2009: 149).

Finally, the case study was conducted by means of a cross-sectional design seeing that, according to Bless et al. (2013: 390), all the data was gathered at a single point in time. The use of a cross-sectional design had also been selected based on common factors dictating its use as highlighted by Kumar (2010: 332): limited scope of the study, resources, and time to execute the study.

1.6. Data Collection Strategy

This cross-sectional plan employed a mixed method design consisting of a face-to-face survey along with an unstructured interview. Both of these preceded a focus group interview and a secondary data analysis phase to support the primary data gathered. These facets are accentuated by the fact that a case study, as described by Swanborn (2010: 13), is characterised by studying a social phenomenon using several data sources be it through available documents, interviews with informants and/or through observation.

It is therefore apparent, as noted by Cresswell (2010: 51), that a mixed method[15] approach is more than merely the pooling of two separate strands of quantitative and qualitative data; it involves the incorporation or joining of these two strands. Johnson et al. (2007: 123) provide a composite definition:

> *"Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher... combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration."*

With reference to the study, these two elements were combined into one study in order to explain and elaborate on the small portion of quantitative results congregated from the survey with subsequent qualitative data from the interviews and focus group session (Ivankova et al., 2007: 261). Let us now consider each of these three data collection phases in turn in order to grasp the interplay between these two components.

1.6.1. Face-to-Face Survey

The first leg of the study entailed the respondents completing a questionnaire in the presence of the researcher – known as a face-to-face survey (Andres, 2012: 56). This survey comprised of 15 items which was a combination of fill in the blanks, close-ended, multiple choice items and rating scales. The last portion of the

[15] Note that even though some quantitative instruments were used in the survey, the study still had a strong qualitative slant to both the remainder of the data collection process as well as during interpretation of the results.

questionnaire consisted of a segment where the contact details of other organisations could be listed.[16] The survey was designed to be completed within the preferred time allocation of 20 minutes (Maree & Pietersen, 2007a: 159) while the majority of the responses were elicited by the interviewer. What the latter refers to is that the interviewer asked a question and waited for the interviewee to respond without indicating the possible categories that were available. Only when respondents seemed indifferent or uncertain were they read the possible responses.

Moreover, the objective of the quantitative survey was to gather basic information about (1) the respondent's organisation, (2) awareness of other organisations in the area, and (3) to establish an introductory inquiry regarding collaboration. The literature study was used to align the question item categories which we will now consider in turn.

1.6.1.1. The organisation

Questions related to the organisation included basic contact details of the organisation, organisation type, main developmental areas of interest, size, how long the organisation has been active in the community, financial strength, access to resources and whether or not Heidedal is their sole area of activity.

1.6.1.2. Awareness of other organisations

In this part respondents were asked to list the number of organisations the respondent was aware of in Heidedal as well as how frequently they engage with other organisations.

1.6.1.3. Introductory inquiry on collaboration

This segment amassed information such as whether or not respondents felt that inter-organisational collaboration exists along with their motivations for their given perception. Other survey items also included whether organisations collaborate or compete against each other as well as the type of collaboration that is needed.

Here we can see that the objective of the survey was to serve not only as a contact point with the organisations, but also to get a preliminary sense of what affairs are like on root-level. In this instance, it stands true that survey research asses the current situation, opinions, beliefs and attitudes to describe and explain the status of a phenomena (McMillan & Scumacher's, 2001, cited in Maree & Pietersen, 2007a: 155). This assessment also resounds with the purpose of the interviews that followed.

[16] The template of the survey questionnaire can be found under Appendix B.

1.6.2. Semi-Structured Interview

Consequently, considering that the same respondents were used for all three data collection phases, the survey questionnaire was used as the basis for a semi-structured interview. The interview delved further into what has been stated in the survey and elaborate on past, present and future collaborations. It also dealt with factors perceived by the respondent to promote or hinder group efforts. These factors included matters within the organisation, qualities of potential collaborators and the dynamics between these organisations. One can therefore see that a semi-structured interview had been chosen due to its particular features:

> *"Characteristic of its unique flexibility, the semi-structured interview is sufficiently structured to address specific dimensions of your research question while also leaving space for study participants to offer new meanings to the topic of the study" (Golletta, 2013: 1 – 2).*

Applying this quality of flexibility enabled the researcher to address the following matters as identified by Morse and Niehaus (2009: 92):

- Delineate the domain of the research, identify its boundaries and know where the limits of the phenomenon are (i.e. what is and what is not an example of collaboration);
- identify all of the research areas or domains in all of its various types or kinds; and
- develop all of the questions pertaining to collaboration, but not necessarily know all of the possible responses.

Considering what has been stated above, the interview's structure initially followed suit from the survey with direct, structured question items that flowed from the survey's questions/findings. However, ample opportunity was also given to widen the interview discussion so that it can take "the form of a conversation with the intention that the researcher explores with the participant her or his views, ideas, beliefs and attitudes about certain events or phenomena" (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 87).

Each of these conversations were organised by using an interview schedule[17] which contained topics, themes, or areas to be covered during the course of the interview, rather than a sequenced script of standardised questions (Mason, 2004). One of the central subjects of this schedule focused on the organisation's perception of the current standing of inter-organisational collaboration and the perceived reason for this status as well as examples of collaboration in the past of its success. Another core theme revolved around the needs of organisations in terms of collaboration which also explored potential collaborative ventures and/or structures.

Thus, a set list of question items was tailored prior to each interview along with their alternatives and sub-questions which will be contingent with the replies to the main questions (Bless et al., 2013: 194). At the same

[17] Please find the template used for the interview schedule under Appendix C.

time respondents were not met with previously specified definitions or conceivable answers, but instead were free to choose their own portrayals, insights and/or interpretations (Bless et al., 2013: 194). Considering the fluidity of interviewees' responses, the length of each interview also varied, ranging from thirty minutes up to two hours. The results from these interviews were then taken along with the survey results to draw and structure a focus group.

1.6.3. Focus Group

Rossman and Rallis (2012: 189) state that the focus group interview encourages discussion and expression of varying viewpoints regarding the phenomenon (i.e. collaboration). Through the interaction among the participants, the researcher strived to generate new understandings and explanations of the topic as the respondents react to and engage in what others say (Rossman & Rallis, 2012: 189; Remenyi, 2012: 93). Thus, the focus group pooled the strengths of in-depth interviewing and observation in a group context (Bouma & Ling, 2006: 180).

This was done by a predetermined debate subject for the group discussion related to inter-organisational collaboration along with a subset of topics that followed from the data analysis of the survey and interview phases. From this stance, the main goal of the focus group was to develop robust, detailed data which would have been hard to achieve with other research techniques (Nieuwenhuis, 2007: 90). Subsequently, the focus group had ultimately been selected because of its interactive qualities:

"It is through the dialogues in focus group interactions between and among the researcher and researched that new knowledge, including new descriptions, interpretations, and explanations are co-constructed about the issues at hand" (Root, 2007: 578).

Regarding the subject matter of the focus group for this study specifically, the objective was to invite the interviewees and stakeholders to debate their own viewpoints and expose them to preliminary research conclusions in order not only to attain a more solid grounding for the final research report, but also to deepen internal social relations and guide everybody onto a similar path (Swanborn, 2010: 13). Thus, as we will see in Chapter 3, the organisations were given feedback on the survey and interview phases which was followed by an in-depth discussion regarding the alternative collaboration structures that had been identified during the first two phases of the study.[18]

In order to have been able to create a well-developed focus group, it is important to note that all data prior to this focus group had been processed as it was collected. The reason for this continuous analysis follows from the fact that the unearthed results established the structure and content of both the semi-structured

[18] Appendix D contains the agenda of the focus group meeting.

interviews as well as the focus group. The focus group discussion itself incorporated a SWOT analysis, which is an assessment tool of Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats. It was considered an appropriate tool to use as it is employed in problem-solving, decision-making, or for making participants aware of the need for change (Business & Management Dictionary, 2007).[19]

The findings drawn from the fieldwork were augmented by textual data found in the print media. This has been done based on the fact that, as we have seen in the second section of this chapter, many instances of collaboration in the community have solely been documented in the press and not elsewhere. This textual data, as with the data collection overall, was funnelled by the samples drawn for each leg of the study.

1.7. Sampling Design

Before each sample can be discussed we must first clarify what is meant with sampling. For the purpose of the given study sampling can be defined as a process of selecting cases to observe from a finite population that is of interest (Durrheim & Painter, 2006: 132). Trochim (2006) goes further by stating that the objective of drawing a sample is so that the researcher may fairly generalise the "results back to the population from which they were chosen". However, this statement has been contested by Battaglia (2008: 523) asserting that in certain situations, the researcher, as in this study, may not be interested in drawing inferences from the sample to the population. In these instances a non-probability sample might be the most applicable.

Non-probability sampling does not make use of random selection of population elements (whereas probability sampling does) which means that the study cannot depend upon the rationale of probability theory or draw important conclusions with certainty about the population (Maree & Pieters, 2007b: 176; Trochim, 2006).[20]

Thus, in order to follow suit in the study, subjective methods were used to decide which elements were included in the sample. For this reason, a sample of a small, purposefully selected set of respondents had been drawn that are representative of the phenomenon (i.e. collaboration) in order to obtain an entrenched understanding of this occurrence (Greene, 2007: 149; Morse & Niehaus, 2009: 64).

The initial sample of 53 organisations for the survey had been selected from a preliminary population list.[21] This sampling frame had been generated by obtaining details of organisations from the Department of Social Development (2014) as the primary source supplementing it by NGO directories.[22] This sampling list was used to ask senior staff members of each organisation to complete the survey. Senior staff members were selected

[19] Renault (2014) offers a succinct overview of the SWOT analysis.
[20] The implications of this matter will be discussed in greater depth in the concluding chapter under Section 4.2.
[21] Please refer to Appendix E for a complete list of the different samples that were drawn.
[22] I.e. Medpages (2014), Oliver's House (2014) and Prodder (2014).

specifically, based on the following key characteristics for a "good informant" as set out by Spradley (in Morse & Niehaus, 2009: 64). The respondents had to:

- have the necessary experience or information;
- be willing to participate and have available time; and
- be articulate, expressive, and reflective.

As previously mentioned, these staff members' awareness of other organisations was explored in the initial survey. The information that these respondents provided in this survey was used to contact those organisations they have identified which added up to an additional 13 organisations. Thus, a nominated (snowball) sampling technique was used in order to expand the survey sample to 66 organisations. This was founded on Katz's (2006: 4) stance that the respondents are connected through links that can be incorporated to locate other potential respondents.

This design is particularly of value for a research study like this one where the population is difficult to find, where the interest of the research focuses on an interconnected group of people, but the researcher has trouble identifying them (Maree & Pietersen, 2007b: 177; Morse & Niehaus, 2009: 65).

Based on the sample of 66 organisations, 28 organisations were surveyed based on whether they were able and disposed.[23] What followed next was that 17 respondents were drawn for the semi-structured interview depending on their availability as well as whether or not they were still active in the community.

After the interviewees' data had been gathered and analysed, a focus group of 7 individuals was selected emanating from Morse & Niehaus's (2009: 90) recommendation that the ideal number of participants has to be between six and eight.

Furthermore, the respondents (spanning over all three data collection phases) were selected centring on their organisation's prominence, influence and involvement in the community. Their key position could contribute to deciding on the worth or the predominance of certain explanations (Bless et al., 2013: 177). This is also known as a critical case sampling design as the respondents have been selected for a specific reason: That reason being to serve as an efficient way to elicit views and to rapidly develop an understanding of collaboration amongst Heidedal organisations (Morse & Niehaus, 2009: 90). The manner in which this was

[23] This implies that 38 organisations were either not available at the time the survey was being conducted, not willing to participate in the study and/or they were considered unreachable after the researcher tried to get in contact with them after three attempts.

conducted – as with all the different components of this study – raised questions regarding ethics, especially related to matters of fair treatment and partiality.

1.8. Research Ethics

For this study, an even-handed approach was essential when working with the interviewees. That is because research ethics is particularly interested in the analysis of ethical matters that come to the fore when people are involved as respondents in research (Walton, 2014). Johnson and Christensen (2007) state that the treatment of research participants is, perhaps, the most fundamental ethical concern in research and it guarantees that the respondents are not harmed physically or psychologically in any way.

In order to ensure the above, the research done was clear-cut in the sense that no infringing on privacy took place and that the aim and objectives of the research had been clearly stated to the respondents (Bouma & Ling, 2006: 199). This implies that agreements had been sought with the stakeholders and clear ground rules set with participants about what they could have expected from the study and their part in the development of reports (Bazeley, 2013: 51).

Moreover, as suggested by Rubin and Rubin (2005: 104 – 107), informed consent was obtained orally from the respondents after briefly explaining the research that was being done which included outlining the benefits, possible risks involved as well as background information on the researcher.

Respondents were also informed that the research was completely voluntary and that they could stop at any moment without being required to offer an explanation; they also had the choice to stay anonymous if they chose to do so (Bless et al., 2013: 33). Matters of privacy regarding data analysis included ascribing a number to the respondent and the respondent's organisation in order not to compromise their identities (Kaiser, 2009: 1634 – 1365). It was made clear that the person's name or other derivative information will not be used directly in discussing the findings in order to protect her/his privacy, that the data analysis will be conducted with the greatest confidentiality and that it will show respect for the respondents' dignity at all steps of the research process (Bazeley, 2013: 384).

Wiles et al. (2010: 17) "make the case that (i) respondents' status and 'vulnerability' in combination with (ii) the nature of the research, and (iii) the ways that visual (and other) data are used and presented should be key issues in making informed decisions about anonymity". This was of specific consideration when interviewees deliberately gave permission for their identity to be revealed. In the same way, participant cooperation without the guarantee of confidentiality could be ensured if the social usefulness of the research project to respondents could be shown (Gray et al., 2007: 87).

The above mentioned matters had been considered, aligned and applied according to the professional codes of ethics of each organisation in the study (Maree & Van der Westhuizen, 2007: 42). Another matter that was considered, but fortunately need not been applied, was if the interviewee was blatantly biased in her/his responses, the researcher would have had to consider excluding this respondent's data from the study. This was considered after evaluating each respondent in-depth while considering why the respondent acted in this way; it might happen that the respondents might have had very good reason to respond in such a way and might be important for the research (Gray et al., 2007: 71).

Finally, at the end of the research process, reporting back to constituent organisations was done as it could be an empowering for them as well as the fact that it was constructive for the representation of results in the research report itself (Bouma & Ling, 2006: 180; Bazeley, 2013: 418). Once again the supervisors had been called upon not only to comment on the matter of feedback to the participants, but also regarding ethical issues that might arise during the data analysis period.

1.9. Data analysis[24]

For the following discussion, data analysis can be defined as the process of transforming raw data into usable information by applying methods that manipulates this data in order to obtain the research aims and objectives through identifying important and relevant patterns (Organisation for Co-operation and Economic Development, 2008: 119; 6 & Bellamy, 2012: 301).

Data analysis in mixed methods research occurs within both the quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative data (i.e. the results of the survey) had been analysed during the first phase of the data collection period to direct the planning and structure of the remaining two qualitative phases (i.e. the semi-structured interview and focus group). After all three phases had been executed, both the quantitative and qualitative data was analysed and integrated. This process is known as "triangulation" which is used to see the situation through a number of different perspectives.

This is of particular value considering that, according to Remenyi (2012: 95), these three phases "may be used to support each other and thereby enrich the understanding the researcher obtains of the organisation and the possible answers to the research question". A further reason for triangulating the data is to expedite the verification and validation of these results (Carter et al., 2014: 545 – 546).

Before triangulation was applied the survey questionnaire had been distributed during the first data collection phase. After this had been done the findings were coded and divided into different categories in order to assist

[24] Note that the layout of this section has been strongly influenced by the example put forth by Maree (2007: 295 – 296) for describing data analysis procedures.

with the final processing of both quantitative and qualitative data. At this point the researcher made use of the proficiency of an external coder whom assisted in examining the field results. The survey's results were coded, captured and analysed by means of the SurveyMonkey web survey development cloud-based programme which provided extensive linking and modelling tools (Bazeley, 2013: 188).

The coding process involves "systematically labelling concepts, themes, event and topical markers so that [the researcher] can readily retrieve and examine all of the data units that refer to the same subject across all your interviews" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005: 207). The coding process itself made use of the bottom up and top down coding approaches as identified by Symon and Cassell (2012: 9). The former approach refers to coding results by forming subjects based on the researcher's understanding of the data collected, whereas the latter flows from identifying theoretical concepts that has already been established in available literature (Remenyi, 2012: 74).

This was followed by drawing inferences from the data, as Maxwell and Miller (2008: 469) suggest that coding assists a researcher to see new connections and alternative ways of framing and interpreting the situation. Inferential statistics gave rise to relating the field work findings so that deductions about the phenomenon could be made. In the end these statistics were combined with the qualitative analysis of the data in order to address the research aims and objectives.

The first stage in the qualitative phase (i.e. interviews) involved engagement with the data in order to become acquainted with the material. At this point the researcher gathered all the field data and began to form a clearer conceptualisation of the given information. These interview results were then coded while executing a content analysis. This analysis consisted of searching for specific concepts using the conceptual framework established in Section 1.3 in order to develop clear themes for the study.

The term "theme" in this context is defined as "an integrating, relational statement derived from the data that identifies both content and meaning" (Bazeley, 2013: 190). "A theme is an outcome of coding, categorisation, and analytic reflection." This claim by Saldaña (2009: 13) is further developed by Gibson and Brown (2009: 138) in that they believe that a crucial part of identifying themes involves distinguishing associations between code categories as well as the importance of such associations for the advancement of theoretical conceptions and statements.

These themes and concepts were also used for the analysis of the focus group: The focus group results followed the same analytical formula as the semi-structured interviews given that it involved the researcher familiarising himself with the collected data and identifying certain constructs to establish relevant topics that

emerged from the focus group session.[25] There was one slight difference in the approach to analysing the focus group's data which is illustrated in the following statement:

> *"In interpreting the data (both content and interaction), the analyst is less concerned with whether the information presented by participants is 'objectively true', and more interested in the way that such information is presented and received within the group and how group interaction may challenge or confirm people's stated views" (Willis et al., 2009: 134).*

Conclusively, once all the data had been captured – with the aid of the external coder – the researcher strived to qualify the quantitative results by engendering themes within the quantitative data. These themes were compared to the themes from the qualitative data collected from both the interview and focus group for the purpose of triangulating the findings by means of an all-encompassing interpretative analysis (Bazeley, 2013: 406). The overarching themes were then tabulated followed by the making of inductions in order to attend to the research aims and objectives with reference to the specific sample that has been drawn.

1.10. Conclusion

This chapter introduced the three gears that made this study work, namely, (1) the research phenomenon and the context it is seated it in, (2) the practical methodology required to collect the data, and (3) the theoretical tools to analyse the findings. Clearly, the latter refers to the data analysis phase and its inferences will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3. Simultaneously, each component of the data collection phase will also be explored. This will be followed by Chapter 4 which will consider the study in greater detail, outlining general observations, highlighting general conclusions and proposing recommendations. This will be done after illustrations of other inter-organisational collaboration have been explored in the chapter following. As these examples are presented, be conscious of the golden thread that runs through the study as a whole; that is, the motivators, manners and types of inter-organisational collaboration that has been introduced in this chapter.

[25] This was done, in part, by using the SWOT analyses used for the different discussion points.

Chapter Two: Literature Review – Four Case Studies from the Three Developing Continents

2.1. Introduction

In recent times, as presented in Chapter 1 (Section 1.2), much research has been done on collaboration between organisations and a multitude of other sectors, such as, partnerships with the government,[26] the private sector,[27] and institutions of higher education.[28] However, the literature available on inter-organisational collaboration in the social development arena generally refers to it only in broad/theoretical terms.[29] As a result, the academic articles regarding these notional terms generally discuss speculative or hypothetical situations. Furthermore, meagre documentation is available of recent, actual inter-organisational cases in the social development world.

For this reason, despite the limited literature obtainable on real inter-organisational cases, the function of this chapter is to explore four available examples. They all represent a myriad of backgrounds and settings – different types of organisations, different target audiences, and different countries: Cases from Hong Kong, Peru, Zambia and South Africa were selected to scale the progression of this chapter from the global to the local milieu. Simultaneously, these cases also represent a spectrum of more developed to less developed countries[30] from Africa, Asia and South America – the three developing continents (British Broadcasting Commission, 2015; Harper College, 2015).

The cases also embody a diverse milieu of collaboration by looking at the interaction between organisations spread over a whole country (Zambia), in a region (Peru), city (Hong Kong) and neighbourhood (South Africa). Additionally, the cases represent instances of successful collaboration (Hong Kong), non-collaboration (Peru), arduous collaborative attempts (Zambia), and the dichotomy of both collaboration amongst certain organisations and rivalry towards others (South Africa).

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[26] See for instance, Mayers et al. (2001); Lombard & Du Preez (2004); Marais (2011); Sivhaga et al. (2012); Uwimana et al. (2012); and Sanders et al. (2014).

[27] See for example, Choi et al. (2005); Kapucu (2006); Nair & Campbell (2008); Dahan et al. (2010); Stevens (2010); Hansen & Spitzeck (2011); Pedersen & Pedersen (2013); Velemma et al. (2013); and Kourula & Laasonen (2014).

[28] Examples include Kallioniemi et al. (2010); Ortega et al. (2012); Davies et al. (2013); De Figueiredo et al. (2013).

[29] As illustrated in Brehm (2004); Frank & Smith (2006); Braeken (2007); Caplan et al. (2007); Harrison (2007); Cropper et al. (2008); Horton et al. (2009); Corbin et al. (2012); Isabell (2012); and Marlin et al. (2012).

[30] The development status of each country is based on their Human Development Index rating. Their rankings, taken from United Nations Development Programme (2015) are: Hong Kong – 0.0891, Peru – 0.737, Zambia – 0.561, South Africa – 0.658.

For the purpose of this study, the cases to be discussed have been selected specifically in order to:

- demonstrate how the theoretical model identified in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3.) takes form in reality;
- expand on arguments related to both the push and pull factors considered in the given model;
- support these arguments with findings in the literature; and
- channel the discussion from general to the specific in order to cross over to the particular case of Heidedal.

This progression will not only provide a detailed discussion of the theoretical literature review through real case studies, but it will also elevate the Heidedal case either through enforcing its qualities or by contrasting them. The first case study – that is, partnerships related to the food assistance project in Hong Kong – exemplify these divergences between the different case studies and Heidedal. It is for this reason fitting to begin with this Asian case.

2.2. Hong Kong: Short-Term Food Assistance Projects[31], [32]

2.2.1. Background, Manner of Collaboration and Collaborative Structures

Between 2009 and 2012 five small NGOs in Hong Kong created a consortium in order to start a joint venture to operate a food assistance service project in the East Kowloon region of the city. This consortium was a response to the establishment of a network of thirty NGOs known as the Small NGOs Concern Group. The group was loosely coordinated and acted mainly as a platform where member organisations shared information relating to common interests. As a result of this continuous dialogue, five organisations of the Concern Group formed a consortium in 2009 and were successful in a bid for one of the 5 Short-Term Food Assistance Projects (referred to hereafter as the "Project") funded by the Hong Kong government.

This is a prime example of necessity, one of the factors (as presented in Chapter 1, Section 1.3), considering that organisations are compelled by the government to collaborate. Mandated collaboration could, as in this case, be a definite benefit in that "it can provide a powerful incentive for organisations to work together" (Popp et al., 2013: 26). Through the distribution of food to service users, partners in the Project aimed to

[31] The following discussion interprets the case study reported by Leung (2013) through applying the key aspects of inter-organisational collaboration as presented in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3). Note that the information presented in this section is obtained from the given source. Subsequently, all information exhibited, inferences made and opinions expressed in the following subsections should be considered by the reader to be that of Leung except where specific references has been made to other sources. As a result, only information provided to supplement the original source's findings has been referenced in this section. All the other cases in this chapter also follow this approach.

[32] In order to get a general idea of the Hong Kong case, please refer to Appendix F(I) which contains a summary of this case.

collectively alleviate financial hardship in the lower income groups brought about by the economic downturn. Service users such as the unemployed, low-income groups, new arrivals, street sleepers, individuals, or families encountering unforeseen situations and facing immediate financial hardship would be issued with food items for a period of six weeks – extendable to twelve if necessary.

In order to reach service users efficiently, the Consortium had allied itself with more than 150 organisations/service units in the districts to be served. These organisations and service units would perform different roles and functions in the Project such as service referral, assessment, and food distribution, whereas the core operations of matters such as case management, food purchase, and warehouse management were overseen by nine service units of the five NGOs.

The directors of the five organisations formed the strategic management committee that would meet once every two to three months, while the officers-in-charge of the nine service units that formed the coordination committee would meet monthly. In this case study, the strategic management committee, as part of the Consortium as a whole, is only one of the several collaborative structures in action and it represents the **collaboration stage** of the "7C" stage model identified in Chapter 1 (Subsection 1.3.2).

Furthermore, the relationship between these organisations before the new millennium can be described as **coexisting** seeing that, although these organisations were aware of each other's existence, they had no desire to engage with one another. However, they started interacting informally in 2000 – prompting the **communication stage** – as they believed that some joint efforts might be needed to cope with an increase in competitive bidding and stringent monitoring measures. This started some organisations located in neighbouring communities to partake in short-term cooperation projects. Finally, this led to **coordination** through the establishment of the Concern Group. Note that this group only came into existence owing to the contextual factors that contributed a lucrative environment prompting organisations to work together.

2.2.2. Factors Promoting or Inhibiting Collaboration

One of the **contextual factors** that warranted this enabling environment mentioned above, was the emergence of the need for food and the allocation of public money in the service area that created the collaborative opportunity for the organisations. This illustrates how the government's involvement in the provisioning of services continues to be a significant influence in shaping the actions of service providers by implementing a range of incentives (Provan et al., 2004: 490; Sowa, 2008: 300). The directors of the organisations believed that without this extra resource, they would have been much more cautious in participating, as that would have meant they would have to allocate their existing resources to the Project.

This is juxtaposed with the groundwork laid by the Concern Group. The formation of the consortium would not have been possible if these organisations did not have previous successful cooperative experience in the

group; the Concern Group gradually gave rise to steadfast social ties. This was of great importance considering that "inter-organisational trust defines the extent to which an organisation and its partners can rely on each other to fulfil obligations, behave predictably, and negotiate and act in good faith" (Gulati et al., 2011: 207). In fact, it is believed that when pre-existing relationships are good and trusting, being mandated to collaborate (as in this case by the government) helps considering that it provides additional resources and permission (Heffren et al., 2003, cited in Popp & Casebeer, 2015: 232).

In spite of the value of strong **interpersonal relationships** and the significant role the Concern Group played in establishing it, members of the different organisations needed time, as noted in the literature (Bryson et al., 2006: 48; McGuire, 2006: 38), to develop their working rapport with others. Simultaneously, practitioners were administratively expected to follow their original lines of authority as the organisations were not coadunate. Due to the fact that the people at the service and coordination level had nearly no previous relations with each other, trust and respect had to be filtered from the strategic level and progressively ascertained in the lower ones (Rodríguez et al., 2007: 153).

The staff had to see that their bosses have trust in and respect for each other as well as receive consistent instructions and full support from the lines of authority to show that they were making sound judgments and decisions. Leadership of this standing is in accordance with Van de Ven and Ring´s (2006: 145) perspective that "one relies on the security of rules, structures, and organisations to buttress interpersonal trust". By implementing this governance construct, overlapping of roles among partners has been limited which in turn, from Waters-Bayer et al. (2007: 148) perspective, can be a source of inefficiency, confusion or even conflict.

This construct was also reinforced through the **collaborative structures** by clearly defining the roles and functions of the different people within the hierarchy. Decision-making was appropriately set at both the coordination and strategic levels of the collaborative structures: All operations-related issues were to be handled at the coordination level and below, whereas the strategic level of the Consortium would only deal with financial matters, service development, and evaluation. People on both levels had dual accountability to the Consortium and their own agencies. It is this accountability that forms the bond between shared goals and trust (Kloth, 2004: 6). Organisational representatives developed this bond by promoting good practice. These practices, as suggested by Tsasis (2009:14) and Popp et al. (2013: 61), include reaching decisions through discussion while striving to maintain a balance between autonomy and dependence.

Apart from having trusting arrangements in the positions of authority, the standardised practices fixed in the Project not only promoted self-regulation, but also contributed to its success (Hammer et al., 2010: 3 – 4). Other practices such as standard operating procedures in case assessment and management as well as food warehouse management were well established in the Project due to the aid of information technology and

knowledge management strategies (Leung & Wong, 2012). Considering that practitioners were coming from five different organisations, the standardised procedures not only minimised inconsistent practices among them, but also increased the effectiveness of individual organisations and support their coordinating efforts (Margolin et al., 2015: 36). Accordingly, it reduced possible conflicts that might have arisen from such discrepancies given that the organisations united for the same common purpose – despite the fact that they all had different motives. This reflects the importance of relationships built on interdependence and rapport that underpin the operation of any collaborative initiative (Keast et al., 2004: 366; Romzek et al., 2012).

Furthermore, in the Consortium, the five organisations had **common goals** which promote the longevity of collaborative ventures such as the Project (Network Leadership Summit IV, 2009: 8; Murdie, 2014: 313). These goals included their sense of social responsibility in alleviating problems of poverty at the community level. They also envisioned the operational **efficiency** that could be brought about by conjoining their efforts, such as adopting centralised and standardised referral and assessment procedures, or having more bargaining power with food suppliers (Kenis & Provan, 2008: 440).

Another important common goal was that the organisations wanted to show their capacity and capabilities as a consortium. That is, they wanted to prove their **legitimacy** by assembling a showcase for the government and other stakeholders of the sector (Hammer et al., 2010: 3 – 4). These organisations, as core members of the Concern Group, wished to increase their influence and power in the policy domain. They also observed that a successful joint venture could demonstrate that small, united NGOs could be comparable to and compete with larger organisations.

There were moments when common goals helped to bring the organisations together, but there were also situations when divergent goals created a competitive atmosphere – especially related to matters of **efficiency** (Radermacher et al., 2011: 522). One organisation, for example, received little public subvention in the past and wished to bolster its track record in bidding for a publicly funded service project so that it might have more opportunities in the future.

Another organisation had been running a small-scale food bank for years and wanted to make use of the possibility to expand its domain influence. Likewise, although a third organisation had been devoted to helping the youth-in-need in the community and had never attempted providing food services, it saw the Project as an opportunity to reach more deprived young people and their families, and it planned to provide other follow-up services.

As for the other two organisations, allocation of service areas had once raised the concern of the Consortium seeing that these two organisations wanted to expand their provisions to other service areas in a specific community through participating in the Project. Both organisations intended to be the chief food service

provider in this community, so that some synergy effect might be created. However, that would have posed operational difficulties for the Project as a whole.

The group eventually reached a compromise by swapping the chief provider roles among different communities as they admitted that they preferred not to have overlapping of existing service among the partners, as it could be a possible source of conflicts during the venture and led to a duplication of services. The conclusion to be made here is that some forms of collaboration, as with the Project, can in fact help organisational self-interest, forming alliances even if the collaboration is with a competitor (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008: 678).

It is apparent that addressing these possible matters of contestation and conflict did require careful assessment as to which and to what extent these organisations should be involved so as to ensure a greater chance of success. This exemplifies the importance of generating an environment where participants are comfortable with openly discussing differing perspectives and creating an environment to work through disagreements (Reay et al., 2013: 15). Indeed, Provan and Kenis (2008: 229) offer some insights on this matter, indicating that agreement about goals generally encourages better performance than conflict, but as with the Project, the prevalence of some conflict can also promote innovation.

This participatory environment between former competitors was established through the Concern Group's groundwork which, in turn, ensured further and more in-depth collaboration. The question should be asked then: What would the collaborative landscape be like where organisations do not have that parental patronage? Also, is collaboration possible if a converged vision is absent? Devising answers to these questions will be done through exploring a case study on the other side of the globe: In a northern region of Peru where independent organisations have only a shared developmental vocation and a physical service area that binds them together.

2.3. Peru: Sustainable Development and Social Services in the North-West[33], [34]

2.3.1. Background, Goals, Umbrella Organisations and Communication

In 2006, six organisations were used in a case study in the northern coastal region of Peru which is primarily a rural region. Three were from Chiclayo (a metropolitan area) and three from Piura (a more rural location). The

[33] This section is dedicated to a case study presented by Claiborne et al. (2009).
[34] Appendix F(II) reiterates this case study.

organisations were selected based on their primary mission of sustainable development and commitment to providing social welfare services to local communities.

Regardless of this broad goal organisations shared, when the study was conducted, respondents did not identify collaborative initiatives as activities pursued by the organisations. These activities that were not prevalent included partnered service delivery, joint grant writing, coalition building for advocacy, and influencing policy decisions of the government.

It should be noted though, organisations with a specific **shared mission** did align themselves by joining national umbrella organisations. These umbrella organisations usually provide a great pool of **knowledge** related to a service delivery model information, general funding information and research. Umbrella organisations could also provide **legitimacy** and networking opportunities for their member organisations (Osa, 2003; Flanagin, 2007: 419).

Based on the overseeing, non-binding nature of umbrella organisations, these organisations could be placed under the **coordination stage** as it is a loose inter-organisational structure that prompts communication. In some areas, this stage is also prevalent among organisations which meet on a monthly basis to discuss local development along with their administrators frequently communicating with each other between meetings. Currently, **cooperation** among organisations takes the form of sharing information and occasionally partnering on a project.

The **communication stage** is also evident in that linkages among member organisations appear to be informal for the most part, having network purposes only (Claiborne & Lawson, 2005: 95). Moreover, liaison with other organisations does exist, especially at the level of frontline workers, but little has occurred in terms of joint projects or programmes between organisations. Respondents indicated that such underdeveloped collaboration initiatives may seriously limit the ability to realise greater **efficiency** and expand service delivery that occurs from sharing resources among others (Holmén, 2002; Babiak, 2007: 371).

The importance is highlighted by the fact that historically, competition for scarce **resources** is a barrier to collaboration (Cooley & Ron, 2002; Tchouakeau et al., 2011; Murdie, 2014: 316). In this case study, as many developmental organisations, the government is marginally engaged (Ulleberg, 2009: 30): Organisations are relied on to provide services that the government does not provide, or that can be better coordinated locally through organisations.

According to Nkrumah (2010: 1), the governments of developing countries summon organisations to provide a service the state cannot or wish not to fulfil in order to address their countries' development needs. This choice by government could be due to "the search for greater productivity; more public reliance on private markets; a stronger orientation toward service; more decentralisation from national to subnational

governments; increased capacity to devise and track public policy; and tactics to enhance accountability for results" (Kettl, 2005, as cited in Milward & Provan, 2006: 8). It is important to acknowledge that (1) organisations do not serve as a replacement for the government, and (2) they can only really thrive to the extent that the state actively supports them (Coalter, 2010: 306; McGuire & Agranoff, 2011: 280).

Despite this realisation, not many organisations are supported by subsidies from the local government; the majority of these organisations receives some grant awards from local state agencies and national organisations. Surprisingly, individual donor or gift programmes were not identified by any organisations as a source of revenue. In addition, organisations in Peru face another **legitimacy** predicament as they do not enjoy exemption from taxes for operations or sales. Peruvian organisations are licensed by the Agencia Peruana de Cooperación Internacional (APCI – Peru Agency of International Cooperation) and must follow rules prescribed for them. This involves being taxed and audited by this government agency annually; clearly, this increases their financial burden and decreases incentives for establishing a successful gifts programme (Hammer et al. 2010: 18; Sanders et al., 2014: 799). Likewise, donors are not given incentives because they do not receive tax deductions.

The non-collaborative environment is further aggravated by the difficulty of building **interpersonal relationships** with local communities. This is due to past experiences of exploitation from "outsiders" which, as respondents described, leads to irksome trust-building processes (similarly reported in other Latin American case studies by Platanova, 2012). Rapport-building and planning for programme expansion should therefore be integrated into the strategy for developing revenue diversification.

However, these organisations will need to be mindful that such boundary spanning undertakings places pressures on internal personal relationships. This is due to leadership systems and styles that might have to be altered: Four of the organisations' boards of directors may need to change their role from direct operational involvement to a focus on revenue stream enhancement. To address the country restrictions, the organisations' top leadership will need to engage in organisational advocacy with membership organisation and all levels of government (Paquin & Howard-Grenville, 2013; Popp et al., 2013: 43, 54). Executive directors may find their leadership style challenged by increased numbers of stakeholders expressing a greater demand for input in organisational policies and procedural decisions, conflicting perspectives and priorities, and contrasting tolerance for obtaining individual needs in favour of the shared goal (Bryson et al., 2006: 44; McGuire & Silvia, 2009: 38 – 41; Provan & Lemaire, 2012: 642).

Thus, new modes of organisational leadership is needed where superiors elucidate participation incentives, transcend the shared objectives to staff and demonstrate open, but explicit decision-making (Keast et al., 2004: 365; Metzger et al., 2005: 469; Mays & Scutchfield, 2010: 6). As a result, the organisational culture ought

to be reconsidered as a whole, along with other features influencing collaboration such as stability, efficiency, legitimacy and environmental considerations in view of this different approach to internal processes.

2.3.2. Other Factors Promoting or Inhibiting Collaboration

Considering the organisations in this region, collaborating with other organisations is perceived as an advantage in that it can increase the likelihood of realising individual goals of organisations (Baldassarri & Diani, 2007: 737; Ebrahim, 2009: 890; Margolin et al., 2015: 31), as well as provides economies of scale (Aldashev & Verdier, 2009: 200; Provan & Lemaire, 2012: 641). On the other hand, collaboration activity in this area at local or national level is typically weak with programming and training collaboration occurring on a small scale.

This is an indication that the **contextual issues** facing these organisations cannot be resolved by the individualised, informal networking at present. Furthermore, traditional avenues of coalition building among organisations and communities may not be acceptable in Peru due to significant ethnic, social and political barriers. In this context, then, Popp et al. (2013: 119) propose that it is vital to recognise these points of difference, to grasp this notion through different interpretations, and finally work towards a cooperative action. One feasible avenue might be collaboration building among similar organisations within and across regions. By doing so organisations will be able to increase their **efficiency** considering that in Peru, the need for services surpasses the volume of services organisations can provide (Living in Peru, 2006).

Moreover, the development environment does not **necessitate** quality in service delivery. In other words, the environment allows organisations to provide poor services; this can be attributed to the fact that there is little rivalry in garnering service consumers. Organisations are more focused on independently extending their services over large geographic areas or within densely populated areas (Pfeiffer et al., 2008: 2134; Tsasis, 2009: 12; Hammer et al., 2010: 24; Ferrari, 2011: 88). Typical examples are agricultural development across a province, economic development in a metropolitan area or providing health services in a city centre.

The great demand for these services thus provides organisations with little incentive to form **relationships** with other organisations for developing reciprocity as well as providing service efficiency (Hoberecht et al., 2011: 24; Murdie, 2014: 313). This in turn also curbs sharing resources along with the fact that competition among organisations for scarce capitals outweighs the reciprocity of collaboration. Most of the NGOs studied frequently seek to access the same funding sources which, as with Reith´s (2010: 449) findings, makes organisations less likely to see the need for reciprocity and collaboration. Faced with the constraints on funding munificence, organisations strategically maintain small full-time work forces because Peruvian labour laws make it difficult to lay off workers. Therefore, organisations rely on contracted labour to perform

programme implementation and servicing. This employment strategy ensures controlled decision-making and reduces instability.

The inability to guarantee **stability** in Peru is a factor that makes collaboration difficult. One area is the different sectors of Peruvian people who remain culturally segregated, complicating intergroup dynamics. Stable relationships between organisations are therefore difficult to achieve. Another area of instability is the heavy reliance on one revenue stream – mainly international organisations. As Murdie (2014: 318) indicated, organisations are less willing to extend resources for cooperation in such an uncertain environment as experienced here, especially if collaboration could be risky or potentially costly. Thus, organisations would find it difficult to survive if the international organisations were to change their priorities for funding seeing that generally interests are shaped "often unintentionally, by material incentives" (Cooley & Ron 2002: 13).

In this country, international organisations create **power** dynamics as they play a pivotal role in the success of interrelationships as well as the shaping of the collaboration-contestation factors (Schepers, 2007: 287 – 289; Hammer et al., 2010: 24; Reith, 2010: 447). However, Ulleberg (2009: 33) believes that while international organisations help local organisations to develop their proper capacities, they also contribute to supporting local civil society indirectly. This can be seen in how donors have allowed organisations to expand their services, obtain training, receive consultations that enhance technical expertise and management capability, and strengthen funding acquisition activities.

In addition, these larger organisations provide **knowledge** – in the form of expertise and training in micro – as well as economic and community development (Smit, 2007). Further impacts of international relationships, as highlighted by Radermacher et al. (2011: 551 – 552), include the help they prove in rationalising management, enhancing effective communication and facilitating creative solutions. They also provide consultation for measuring outcomes and, as stakeholders, demand demonstrable results in achieving promised outcomes (Steffek, 2012: 1007 – 1008).

These potential impetuses for collaboration produce **legitimacy**, **stability** and **efficiency** in Peruvian organisations. However, there is concern that financial support from international organisations may be decreasing or being directed to other programmes, having a negative impact on the organisations' financial stability, equal partnership in decision-making and, therefore, their readiness to engage in collaborative ventures (Jordan & Van Tuijl, 2000; Ashman, 2001; Wallace et al., 2006).

International organisations may also adversely affect organisations' clamber for **legitimacy**. Organisations are challenged to provide international organisations, funders and the government with documentation that is divergent, not easily obtained under time constraints and imposes operational burdens (Babiak, 2007: 342;

Reith, 2010: 451). In the Peruvian context, legitimacy is most often cited as the idea of multiple levels of control requiring individualised reports. These reports include:

- details of funds received and invested made to the APCI licensing government agency (annually);
- programme outcomes and financial accountability reports to the government, national and international funding entities (due per grant/contract award specifications); and
- the individual organisation programme and financial reports generated for their board of directors (weekly and/or monthly).

Some organisations are not able to produce evidence of success for their funders during the initial community relationship building period, which can last for an extended period of time. The accountability requirement posed by donor conflicts with the principles of collaboration, including equal partnership, bringing in local organisations' agendas and resources of local development and viewing them as leaders in developing their own country (Ashman, 2001; Wallace et al., 2006: 24). These administrators live in an environment of somewhat volatile daily operations and find it difficult to engage in strategic planning efforts that could result in formal coalitions and collaboration entities (Cooley & Ron, 2002: 36; Schepers, 2006: 289; Ferrari, 2011: 89).

This is a clear indication that survival is a major issue for Peruvian organisations and globalisation has brought Peruvian communities into the world's competition for obtaining international organisations' support and resources. Although approximately 22 percent of Peruvian non-profit income comes from international organisations and donors (Management Systems International, 2000), the organisations studied mainly rely on financial support from international sources, including international organisations. The influence of international funding does not necessarily have to be imposing in nature. As we will see with the next case study, international agencies can flame competition, but could also promote collaboration and have a greater effect on the target population.

2.4. Zambia: Partnerships in the Fight against HIV/AIDS through Sport[35], [36]

2.4.1. Background, Manner of Collaboration, Collaborative Structures and the Importance of Building Knowledge

In practice, sport has been used in a variety of locations as a popular and an appropriate platform through which information about HIV/AIDS can be disseminated as well as a tool to encourage personal and social development which, in turn, may reduce the incidence of behaviours that lead to infection (Zakus et al., 2007;

[35] This section is dedicated to a case study imparted by Lindsey and Banda (2010).
[36] Appendix F(III) offers a summary of this Zambian case study.

Keim, 2010: 2). Black (2010: 127) highlights the need for those involved in sport-for-development to "collaborate much more systematically" not only within the movement itself, but also with agencies involved in other aspects of development work.

Zambia has been at the forefront of efforts to utilise sport as a tool for development with Mwaanga's (2002) practical manual, for example, being one of the first of its kind. Moreover, the significance of partnerships in the fight against HIV/AIDS in Zambia has also been highlighted in national policies (National HIV/AIDS Council, 2006: 18 – 19). Based on these facts, this specific study (conducted in 2007) examined the nature of collaboration involving organisations that use sport as a tool for HIV/AIDS prevention in Zambia.

Regarding the participants within this country, interviewees included representatives of organisations from both the sport-for-development and HIV/AIDS sectors. Representatives of national bodies comprised of the National HIV/AIDS Council and the Zambian National HIV/AIDS Network as well as the Ministries of Education and Sport along with Youth and Child Development. Some of the organisations operated in communities across Zambia while others were focused on specific communities. Indigenous organisations operating nationally, such as the EduSport Foundation and Sport in Action and the Breakthrough Sports Academy, were more prominent in specifically using sport to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS. Programmes delivered by these organisations commonly combined diversionary elements with the delivery of "life skills" education that encouraged broader behaviour change amongst the young people participating.[37]

While such indigenous organisations were well established in Zambia, transnational organisations such as Right to Play and SCORE (that have a presence in a number of sub-Saharan countries) also delivered sport-for-development programmes especially in Lusaka, the Zambian capital. Interviews were also conducted with representatives of agencies from the Norwegian Olympic Committee and Confederation of Sports, UK Sport and Commonwealth Games Canada. Significant international funding was provided, particularly through the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria.

Beyond these organisations, a variety of other national and international agencies were identified as stakeholders in the Zambian sport-for-development sector. In terms of Zambian agencies of state, the National Sports Council and the Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development were those that had a distinctive responsibility for sport.

Regarding collaboration amongst local organisations specifically, two organisations joined at a time to share an **informal, communicative relationship**. Commonly such partnerships comprise a sport-for-development and a health-based organisation working together, which often lead to delivering a **cooperative** programme

[37] See Kay et al. (2007) for more information on these approaches.

or event in order to strengthen service delivery and ultimately, their impact (Holmén, 2002; Marwil, 2012). This supports Provan and Kenis's (2008: 240) view that organisations collaborate for a variety of reasons, "including the need to gain legitimacy, serve clients more effectively, attract more resources, and address complex problems. But regardless of the specific reason, in a general sense, all network organisations are seeking to achieve some end that they could not have achieved independently."

Conversely, collaboration solely between sport-for-development organisations were less common. They did, however, occasionally work with each other in capacity building efforts, for example, in the training of sport-for-development volunteers which reflects "**cooperation**" in the "7C" model. There were also different types of collaborative ventures that involved organisations along with Zambian state agencies.

As part of the National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework (National HIV/AIDS Council, 2006), six multi-sector, **coordinated** working groups were established in order to develop and structure policy which is considered one of the principal reasons for collaboration (Ansell & Gash, 2008, 544; Isett et al., 2011: i158).These partnership groups were **formalised** in terms of the mode of operation and their membership was fairly closed. Note that no sport-for-development organisations were members of these partnerships. The formalisation of these thematic working groups also contrasted with the informality of other collaborative affiliations, especially those solely comprising organisations.

At a more local level, state agencies were also instrumental in initiating other HIV/AIDS partnership structures. This included the Lusaka District AIDS Task Force (DATF) Stakeholders Forum which exhibits the **coordination stage**. These partnerships were more open to a variety of agencies, including a large proportion of organisations. Activities within this type of partnership were largely **informal** and were directed towards, as supported by Omona and Mukuye (2013: 318), sharing information on effective practice, discussing common challenges and networking.

It can be seen then how this exchange of practice based **knowledge** of a particular issue is framed and given meaning by the ones using it (Weber & Khademian, 2008: 338 – 339). The participants gained this knowledge through "close working and sharing, and active dialogue with their counterparts" (Hartley & Benington, 2006: 104). Regrettably, interviewees from sport-for-development organisations indicated that they had yet to build upon their awareness of these broad partnerships by becoming more significantly involved.

Further collaborative undertakings were identified involving local sport-for-development organisations and larger, sponsored sporting agencies. The Kicking AIDS Out Network (KAON) formed a **coalition** that included both local and transnational organisations as well as the three large, internationally funded sporting agencies identified earlier. This loose alliance of organisations was designed to promote **knowledge** building by raising "awareness about how sport and physical activity programmes can be adapted to promote dialogue and

education about HIV and AIDS and to facilitate life skills training" (Kicking AIDS Out Network, 2010). Besides the KAON, more specific collaboration took place between individual indigenous sport-for-development organisations and internationally funded sporting agencies with the same goals (as also found in the Peru case study). Related to resources, financial support was provided to the sport-for-development organisations through such collaboration. Moreover, more reciprocal activities such as placements for volunteers and staff, both in Zambia and internationally were also undertaken through these collaborative ventures.

Finally, partnerships also varied between those that had a relatively even balance of **power** between members and those in which certain members were significantly more powerful than others. While partnerships between organisations were exemplar of the former type, it was apparent that, reflecting the broader literature (Seckinelgin, 2004: 300; Wallace et al., 2006: 94; Hayhurst, 2009; Hammer, 2010; Reith, 2010), the larger institutions (i.e. state agencies and transnational sporting agencies) had the capacity to exercise greater power when in partnerships with indigenous organisations.

These power imbalances could deter smaller organisation from engaging with larger agencies. This is supported by Radermacher et al.'s (2011: 556) whom assert that these indigenous organisations might fear losing their own organisational identity and control while the inequalities are not recognised or addressed. The clout of power not only affects knowledge and access to resources (as will also be proven in the Yeoville case study), but also efficiency and relationships as well.

2.4.2. Efficiency, Interpersonal Relationships and Power

The development of effective collaboration within the Zambian sport-for-development sector was hindered by the high number of organisational stakeholders. There were no partnerships that encompassed the entire range of agencies involved in sport-for-development or that encouraged co-ordination of policy and practice in the sector. In this regard, the loose and transnational nature of the KAON meant it appeared to have greater influence within individual organisations rather than across the Zambian sport-for-development sector.

Previously, a Zambia-specific Kicking AIDS Out Alliance (KAOA) had existed as a forum for coordination, although this network had been discontinued due to "relationship disintegration", "mistrust" and "bickering" between organisation members (similarly identified by Kruse, 2006: 18 – 20). The fragmentation of **interpersonal relationships**, and lack of coordination across, affected **efficiency** as it led to the segmentation of actions and duplication (Barr & Fafchamp, 2006: 635; Popp et al., 2013: 67). As a representative of a multinational sporting agency observed: "I do see [organisations] working in the same communities, with very similar objectives and very similar programmes."

The reason for the duplication in services can be ascribed to the fact that, as Huxham and Vangen (2005: 153) suggest, "there is a gap between the common wisdom that trust is necessary for collaboration to be successful

and common practice, which suggests that trust is frequently weak (if not lacking all together) and suspicion is rife". This stands true for the entire sport-for-development sector, which is why the majority of partnerships that were identified by interviewees tended to operate between a few members. Although relationships between some of the larger organisations were described as being poor (but improving), conducive bonds existed between larger and smaller sport-for-development organisations. For one sport-for-development organisation, their status as a larger, longer-established organisation meant that engendering such benefits through collaboration was seen as their duty:

> *"We had the privilege to be [one of the first] NGOs in this sector. And we understood that with that privilege there comes a responsibility of bringing up other smaller organisations or even bigger organisations elsewhere, but they don't operate here and they don't have the skills and the know-how of how certain sectors operate. We had to make sure that we interact with them and bring them up."*

This skill building support was also recognised by a representative of a smaller sport-for-development organisation who valued **knowledge** regarding access volunteer training workshops that were organised by a larger sport-for-development organisation. Koch (2011: 693) explains that these training opportunities "stimulate the operational quality of the work of individual organisations and increase the quality of the overall product". Besides training, the provisioning of **resources** not held within a particular organisation (e.g. equipment and identification of potential funders) was also marked as important by interviewees (Srinivas, 2010; Gulati et al., 2011: 220; Mishan, 2012: 17).

Apart from relationships between Zambian sport-for-development organisations, efforts had been made to improve collaboration between these organisations and international sporting agencies through which financial support was provided. These efforts consisted of the three key sporting agencies working together collectively, rather than individually, to fund sport-for-development programmes in Zambia.

However, problematic issues in collaboration between these sporting organisations from the international supported agencies and indigenous organisations were identified, particularly by representatives of the latter organisations. This was attributed to member organisations having different approaches of doing things or institutional logics (such as, approaches to making decisions, means of providing services and transparency with stakeholders), which could pose challenges on agreeing on essential structures, processes and outcomes (Claiborne & Lawson, 2005: 96; Hoberecht et al., 2011: 26; Provan & Lemaire, 2012: 646).

In addition, reinforcing Hayhurst and Frisby's findings (2010: 89 – 90), an interviewee from an indigenous organisation argued that these larger agencies used funding to tie Zambian sport-for-development organisations to their own agendas and identified the breakdown of one particular relationship where this **power** had been questioned. The significant presence of international funding within the sector created

tensions between Zambian sport-for-development organisations which undermined attempts to harness collaboration. As identified by Kruse (2006: 21), the prevalence of international funding engendered competition between sport-for-development organisations.

For one representative, competition for **resources** between local organisations was a contributing factor to the breakdown of the local KAOA. Larger sporting agencies have attempted to address problems associated with competition by developing a collective approach to funding. Despite these efforts, the need for organisations to garner their own resources remained a strong imperative for sport-for-development organisations which can heighten competition (Cooley & Ron, 2002: 7). This emphasises Sugden's (2006: 238) view that maintaining a "stance of impartiality/neutrality" represents a significant challenge for larger agencies. This issue is further fuelled by the fact that pursuing collaborative advantage is an extremely resource-consuming activity (Huxham & Vangen, 2005: 13).

Although these issues prevailed, interviewees did recognise the need for improved collaboration within the sport-for-development sector and hinted at ways in which this improvement could be achieved. First, the importance of human skills and **knowledge-sharing** as a requisite of effective collaboration was recognised. For example, reflecting on the dissolution of the KAOA, one interviewee stated that "we don't know how to manage this partnership – it is not that we don't want it". This underscores the need to provide instruction on, amongst others, the practical application of appropriate networking protocols, evaluating partnerships, defining the boundaries of partnerships and managing collaborative ventures (Wildridge et al., 2004; Radermacher et al., 2011: 558).

Furthermore, improved management of collaborative projects required not only the devotion of time from organisation staff, but also the development of new **interpersonal skills** such as trust, reciprocity and accountability – three skills that have extensively been described as essential for fruitful collaboration (McGuire & Silvia, 2009; Milward et al., 2010; Isett et al., 2011; Muñoz & Lu, 2011; Romzek et al., 2012). By applying these skills, sport-for-development organisations can enhance their proficiency. Likewise, collaboration between sport-for-development organisations and health-based organisations can also profit from these skill sets.

Considering that only sport-for-development collaboration has been discussed thus far, partnerships with health-based organisations also helped the sport-for-development organisations to "transcend the myth of autonomy" that Black (2010: 127) believes affects the movement more generally. The emphasis between these two sectors are somewhat different in that collaboration between sport-for-development and health organisations were orientated towards skill development and joint delivery, which constitute one of the prime motivators behind collaboration (Kloth, 2004: 5; Zhao et al., 2012: 617).

Capacity building relationships with health-based organisations were particularly important when sport-for-development organisations were initially founded. For example, an interviewee from one of the more established sport-for-development organisations commented that:

> *"When we came in as sporting institutions, we lacked competencies in HIV and AIDS only. We were good with sport. So we needed to be good for both. And this is where people who have already developed tools and approaches for HIV and AIDS education, we had to partner with them and they trained us."*

As sport-for-development organisations became more established over time, collaboration with health-based organisations became more focused on joint delivery and thus became more reciprocal (Murdie, 2014: 314). By doing so Mitchell, O'Leary and Gerard (2015: 686) posit that this reciprocity allows organisations to pool their competencies with those of their partner and specialise in what they do best. For example, sport-for-development organisations were engaged in joint delivery of school-based programmes or events such as World AIDS Day with health-based organisations.

Similarly, the expertise of specialised health-based organisations was used to enhance the HIV/AIDS education component of sport-for-development organisations' activities. Health-based organisations recognised the attraction of sporting activities for young people as well as the use of sport as a tool for HIV/AIDS education. Collaboration therefore led to increased recognition of the role of sport as a tool for development amongst health-based organisations and, more generally, increased the "legitimacy of the sport for development movement" (Hayhurst & Frisby, 2010: 91).

2.4.3. Legitimacy, Necessity and Goals

Legitimacy – or rather the lack thereof – is reflected in that although health-based organisations increasingly recognised the development potential of sport, sport-for-development organisations were less integrated into broader partnership (Kruse, 2006: 37 – 39). Particularly of concern is the exclusion from partnerships designed to address HIV/AIDS structures at both national and local levels. This reveals the dark side of **necessity** in the sense that organisations lose their autonomy and are compelled to work with those in their field or support groups and not with others (Provan & Lemaire, 2012: 642).

For instance, sport-for-development organisations – and the sector as a whole – were not members of the strategic Thematic Working Groups[38] despite their alignment with the Prevention Theme in particular. By contrast, and reflecting Webb's (2004) more general finding, some health-based organisations were well established and influenced policy within these Thematic Working Groups. The absence of sport-for-development organisations from the Thematic Working Groups, as well as the DATF Stakeholders Forums,

[38] The Thematic Work Groups formed part of the National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework (National HIV/AIDS Council, 2006).

limited the extent to which they were involved in directly engaging in formal discussions. These discussions were deliberative regarding important aspects of HIV/AIDS policy and practice (Ansell & Gash, 2008: 554).

Interviewees from sport-for-development organisations believed, as also similarly observed by Hertel (2010: 174), that their absence in HIV/AIDS partnership structures was partly due to a lack of understanding of the sector as a whole by national HIV/AIDS policy actors. One of the interviewees from a sport-for-development organisation commented that this attitude towards the sector was due to the prevalence of a "traditionalist" view of sport as being merely "play activities" lacking any form of seriousness. Consequently, Keim (2009: 33) calls for a better understanding of the challenges facing organisations in these fields as it will add knowledge to the state as well as civil society and may enhance service delivery.

Segregation of the Zambian sport-for-development sector also occurred as a result of organisational fragmentation and competition for resources provided by overseas agencies. Consequently, organisations are accountable to a variety of goals and standards determined by these agencies (Anheier & Hawkes, 2009). This aim for organisations to prove their **legitimacy** inhibited collaboration directed at policy coordination across the whole sector. Also impeding this sector's participation in policy formation was the lack of alignment between the programme goals of sport-for-development organisations and those identified within the National HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework. An example is the Zambian national HIV/AIDS targets which are based upon measurable, quantitative results.

As Seckinelgin (2004: 301) identified in other countries, National HIV/AIDS agencies demand quantitative results, such as the number of condoms distributed or the number of individuals undergoing voluntary counselling and testing for HIV/AIDS, from organisations working in the HIV/AIDS sector as criteria for funding. However, sport-for-development organisations tended to focus on more nebulous outcomes in the form of personal and social development which were harder to measure quantitatively (Kay, 2009: 88). Such qualitative outcomes appeared to be those that satisfied the criteria of donors and there were no demands of these key funders for recipient organisations to align their programme objectives to those set by the National HIV/AIDS Council.

Accordingly, the expected outcomes of HIV/AIDS programmes delivered by the local sport-for-development organisations were also different to those demanded by the Zambian National AIDS Network in disbursing Global Funds to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria. The fact that only one sport-for-development organisation had received funding from this source was both a result and indicative of the mismatch in the types of outcomes desired. From Bryson et al.'s (2006: 50) perspective, this can be ascribed to role-players' diverging perspectives and priorities along with the equivocal terms of reference. Moreover, despite some health-based organisations recognising the role that sport could play in the fight against HIV/AIDS, there was

less collaboration between sport-for-development organisations and health-based organisations that were orientated towards accessing available funding.

It could be suggested that the capacity for the sport-for-development sector to advocate effectively on its own behalf within HIV/AIDS policy arenas was weakened by the sector that is in need of a single unified voice. This deficiency is because of the challenges that sport-for-development organisations have encountered in working in partnership. Instead, within the sport-for-development sector, there was evidence of duplication of effort and a degree of competition among sector members. As a result, organisations forgo collaboration that promotes coordinated service delivery and streamlining programme design (Page, 2003: 313).

It would appear then that a dichotomy exists where organisations can simultaneously bolster and contest one another, especially amongst organisations from different sectors. Consequently, tension of both unity and diversity exist where organisations are brought together to function in accord while drawing out unique contributions (Saz-Carranza & Ospina, 2011: 356). For Gray (2004), the more diversity between organisations and sectors exists, the more challenging it will be to find a mutually agreeable way forward. This very dilemma is represented in the final case study where forums in a Johannesburg neighbourhood share both unity amongst each other while simultaneously being pitted against each other.

2.5. South Africa: Community Governance Forums in Yeoville, Johannesburg[39], [40]

2.5.1. Background and Factors Related to Successful Collaboration

Yeoville is an inner-city suburb located peri-centrally to the eastern side of Johannesburg City Centre and is constitutive of a mainly migrant population coexisting with a South African population. Community politics in Yeoville is characterised by migrants having little space to manoeuvre as the most participatory spaces are controlled by South Africans and very few of these spaces are directed by non-South Africans. Not surprisingly, nationality is more often than not used in political wizardry by local South African community activist cum local politicians.

Furthermore, in socially and politically diverse communities, such as Yeoville, community members often are represented by various local organisations with competing and coalescing interests, agendas and activities (Benit, 2002: 61 – 63; Lemanski, 2008: 407 – 408). These organisations claim to represent the interests of neighbourhood residents and generate community participation in local governance through creating forums for deliberation of community issues (Cohen & Sabel, 1997: 320; Dryzek, 2002: 2). In turn, these forums are

[39] This section is dedicated to a case study presented by Katsaura (2012).
[40] Appendix F(IV) reiterates the collaboration aspects related to the Yeoville case study.

podiums on which these community organisations brand themselves as community representatives and conduits of local democracy.

Within the Yeoville setting, four key community-based organisations form part of the political landscape: The Yeoville Stakeholders Forum (YSF), the Community Policing Forum (CPF), the Ward Committee and the Yeoville Community Forum (YCF). Another important organisation within the political sphere of this community is the Yeoville Bellevue Community Development Trust (YBCDT) as it is a local non-governmental organisation whose representative is one of the power brokers in the neighbourhood of Yeoville.

Considering the YSF, which is in a partnership with the YBCDT, it exhibits qualities of the **collaboration stage** of the "7C" model as it is an umbrella organisation that constitutes out of roughly twenty-one affiliate organisations, including the CPF and Ward Committee. YSF convenes formally by hosting monthly meetings which are mainly open to its members. It is also in partnership with the YBCDT which it cooperates with to deal with socio-economic issues in Yeoville.

The CPF is an institution that was established through a constitutional mandate in 1995 to deal with issues of crime and community safety and to play an oversight role over the police. The CPF, whose leadership is elected by the community, also show formal collaboration through hosting a multiplicity of meetings, including occasional public CPF meetings, monthly meetings with the South African Police Services (SAPS) and monthly executive meetings. Finally, the Ward Committee is an establishment that provides an interface between the council and the community by hosting monthly meetings.

In contrast to the organisations described above, the YCF is an unregistered non-profit organisation, formed in June 2010 by some community members with the aim of tackling the housing question in Yeoville. The YCF provides a platform for public dialogue on the unlawful occupation of houses without the consent or approval of the owner. The YCF has seen these houses as possible accommodation for poor South Africans, especially since there is no space for RDP houses[41] in Yeoville.

Unlike the other organisations, the YCF meetings are not mandated or sponsored by the government. While the YCF is a community organisation in a pan-African community, its membership composition and the profiles of its participants do not reflect this: The YCF appeals mainly to a South African constituency of disgruntled citizens, where non-South Africans are realistically excluded from participating as they are tagged as the main culprits for the unlawful occupation of houses.

[41] RDP houses, as explained by Lemanski (2008: 394), are houses built under the National Housing Subsidies Scheme in South Africa established in 1994. This scheme provides eligible households with a one-off housing subsidy that effectively gives ownership of a newly built house commonly named after the South African government's Reconstruction and Development Plan (RDP).

The composition of these four organisations has resulted in the YSF, the CPF and Ward Committee to form an alliance while jointly being pitted against the YCF. A closer look shows that this could be interpreted in terms of the four factors related to successful collaboration (as identified in Chapter 1, Subsection 1.3.2) that could lead to fruitful partnerships while simultaneously (and purposefully) exclude others.

For example, **goal-related factors** (as observed in the Hong Kong project) come into play where organisations forge strategic alliances with one another against common competitors while at the same time competing within this pact. This reflects the drive for like-minded organisations, despite their own differences, to coalesce in competition with imagined common competitors or foes (Tidström & Åhman 2006).

In the case of Yeoville, the YSF, the CPF and Ward Committee, which have mandates from the government or agencies thereof tend to coalesce in the face of unsettling competition from the YCF which can be categorically classified as non-state mandated and insurgent in nature. On the other hand, the YCF establishes political partnerships with external organisations or agencies in a bid to boost its profile.

While generally the YSF-CPF-Ward Committee trio (henceforth the "Trio") share a strong sense of trust, contributing to good **interpersonal relationships** and enhancing the likelihood of positive collaborative outcomes (Chen, 2008: 348). This sense of trust along with a willingness to be flexible in working together, contributes in part to the Trio's compatibility; in part, it is also fuelled by their collective opposition against the YCF.

It should be noted, though, the Trio has its own internal disputes as well. For instance, some of the YSF members are in conflict with the councillor, to the extent that one leader of the YSF, who is also a leader in the YBCDT has stopped attending public ward meetings. Despite these quarrels within the Trio, they generally present a united 'anti-YCF front'. The solidity of this front is problematic seeing that there are some positive relationships between members of the Trio and YCF members: The executive and ordinary members of the YCF participate in public ward meetings and public CPF meetings.

It is also noteworthy that in the first phases of the formation of the YCF in early 2010, the CPF leadership was actively involved, although they later detached themselves from the YCF. **Necessity** was used by the leaders of the YSF and YBCDT to dissociate CPF leadership from the YCF, which the former dismissed as a dangerous entity.

It is quite evident, then, that political **power struggles** both within and between organisations are at play since members exert the ability to influence or control over one another (Huxham & Beech, 2008: 555). This is aggravated by the fact that individuals and organisations wish to corroborate their power underwriting Eade's (2007: 630) conviction that "many conventional NGO practices are ultimately about retaining power".

This battle for clout is the most significant contextual factor that has moulded an environment where the Trio is wrought by their joint rivalry against the YCF. In this subsection it was also shown that collaborative structures, such as meetings, do exist. As we will see in the following section, organisations make use of these structures not only to prove their authority to the other organisations, but also the express their worth to community members.

2.5.2. Legitimacy

The need for community organisations to gain **legitimacy** partly explains the coalitions and competitions that take place within the field of community governance. Murdie (2014: 319) indicates that as community organisations seek legitimacy, they not only contest each other, but also create legitimacy-generating coalitions in order to appear congruent with the prevailing norms, rules, beliefs, or expectations of external constituents (Babiak, 2007: 342). It also demonstrates the **efficiency** of an organisation as it reflects the organisation's accountability and fairness, as assessed by the organisation's constituency or state and other institutional agencies, and evaluated against the manifest goals of the organisation (Weatherford, 1992: 152; Kevin & Provan, 2009: 443).

For example, the YCF serves and is accountable to a specific constituency of disgruntled residents who want houses, yet it has to be accountable to the generality of the community of Yeoville. The YCF is also indirectly accountable to the state in that it has to be careful in overstepping the boundaries of legality in its operations. The YCF therefore, as organisations tend to do (Pratt, 2009: 1), seeks legitimacy in the eyes of its membership, the broader community and the state. The same scenario applies for the Trio, which struggle to legitimate themselves in the eyes of multiple stakeholders and agencies.

For Miller-Grandvaux et al. (2003: 4), organisations' level of success in order to enjoy this legitimacy or not, is determined by or conferred through their mandates by the government and alliances. As a result, organisations coalesce with other organisations they consider to be in good standing with the community or the state or private players (Joachim, 2003: 251; Ferarri, 2011: 89). Furthermore, the Trio coalesce on the basis of their **shared goals** in that they can generally be characterised as wanting to create inviting spaces of participation. As with the Hong Kong and Zambia cases, the Trio also engages in part through necessity as they all came into being through mandates of the government. This mandate is not only absent with the YCF, but its leadership compels the organisation not to engage with the others.

This rebuke becomes openly noticeable in public ward meetings where members of the YSF, CPF and Ward Committee meet members of the YCF. In countering the public denunciation, YCF members claim to be attached to the grassroots and dismiss organisations in the Trio for being "elite biased". By doing so, the YCF leaders make constant reference to the failure of the Ward Committee and the YSF to handle the housing

question, packaging itself as an effective, results-oriented alternative. In order to gain audience from government officials, the YCF staged a peaceful demonstration, marching in Johannesburg City Centre, and to the Department of Housing and the Department of Home Affairs, holding placards bearing messages.

Despite engaging in this demonstration, none of the complaints that were aired by the demonstrators have been addressed. Perhaps the only achievement of this demonstration is that the YCF presented itself as a new front in lobbying the government to deal with the housing problems of Yeoville. In this way the YCF, to some extent, managed to claim a position within the landscape of community representation and activism in Yeoville. In the process, the YCF has garnered knowledge and cultural capital that not only address the needs of their constituency, but also gained influence within the community and state agencies (Radermacher et al., 2011: 552). Thus, attempts to establish legitimacy is therefore both significant in establishing power as well, ascertaining a firm standing in knowledge politics.

2.5.3. Knowledge

The creation, control of and access to **knowledge** is important in strengthening the position of all participatory spaces of a community. The control and marshalling of knowledge is a battlefield of contestations and coalitions between spaces of citizen participation and between them and state agents (Elwood, 2006: 326). All community-based organisations attempt to create in themselves, custodians of task-based knowledge. This refers to the knowledge that is embedded within individuals and the sociocultural context. For Amin and Roberts (2008: 358), experience, tacit knowing, embodied know-how, continuous learning, and (kin-)aesthetic awareness are some of the factors responsible for this knowledge that requires special cultivation.

In the Yeoville context, this revolves around knowledge regarding community issues, if organisations are to effectively engage the state and other actors in resolving those issues. The four key organisations in this community, each claims control and possession of specific types of knowledge and in that way, justify their existence and relevance. The YSF, by virtue of being an umbrella organisation incorporating associate and affiliate organisations in Yeoville, claims possession of a pool of knowledge fed from each of the associate and affiliate organisations. The Ward Committee also claims knowledge about council procedures on how to address neighbourhood challenges in the realms of physical and socio-economic planning amongst others. The CPF avers possession of knowledge about crime prevention and community safety and security. The YCF also makes claims to possession of grassroots knowledge about the challenges, specifically on the matter of housing, that poor people face in the community.

The logic of interaction between these organisations is therefore informed by the particular type of knowledge all of them claim to possess. For example, in public ward meetings, the ward committee always gives the CPF

time to report on the security and safety situation in Yeoville. This is a sign of acknowledgement of the special local knowledge of safety and security that the CPF possesses.

It is important to note that the Trio collaborates by pooling together the knowledge it possesses, as it tries to lobby state agencies and private players to respond to the challenges faced by the community. By doing so the Trio underscores the significance of associating knowledge sharing intrinsically action (Walshe et al., 2010). For instance, the issue of illegal liquor outlets and unlawful rezoning of buildings in Yeoville has attracted the collective attention of the Trio and YBCDT; and has become a source of coalition by these entities. Yet in this coalition, each organisation strives to be seen as more resolute than others in addressing local challenges. In struggling for access to and control of knowledge within the community of Yeoville, the YSF, the CPF and the YCF attempt to strike partnerships with expert knowledge producing entities and individuals.

This follows from the belief that knowledge possession and the display therefore confer power, respect, honour and the overall legitimacy of an organisation (Elwood, 2006: 326 – 327). The process of creating and managing local knowledge is an arena that provides room for strategic partnerships and competition between community organisations. A case in point is the strategic positioning of the CPF with YBCDT in doing a housing audit to identify "bad buildings"[42] in Yeoville. In competition with the YBDCT and CPF, YCF also made proposals to do a housing audit in their own right, although they have not been able to do one owing to a lack of resources.

Accruing of localised knowledge about community problems therefore gives an organisation some leverage in enrolling state and private agencies in the governance of a neighbourhood; it can also be used as a point of departure for various forms of communal action (Margolin et al. 2015: 36). YCF members have already been making threats that they would forcibly take over occupied houses if the government does not respond to their calls for acquisition and repackaging these houses as social housing for poor South Africans. This shows that organisational capacities or incapacities in knowledge creation, management and marshalling are core elements in attracting local organisations together, while simultaneously pitting them against one another.

Subsequently, Popp et al.'s (2013: 32) perspective, as it has been illustrated in this subsection, stands true that how "power is wielded via roles, interests and professions can affect the ways in which knowledge is shared (or not)". This power principle is indeed applicable to knowledge as a cultural capital and, as established earlier, matters of political and legal capital as well. Equally, community-based organisations compete and forge alliances with one another as they struggle to access economic resources.

[42] Zack et al. (2010: 9) define "bad buildings" as buildings which were once sound in physical structure, management, use and occupancy, but have become dysfunctional in one or more ways. Such buildings do not meet minimum requirements as stipulated in municipal by-laws and are a threat to the health and safety of occupants, neighbouring buildings and the environment.

2.5.4. Resources and Power

Throughout this chapter the importance of **resources** for organisations has been substantiated. Not surprisingly, this is also reflected in the broader literature (Gilchrist, 2006; Scott & Hofmeyer, 2007; Weber & Khademian, 2008; Reith, 2010; Zhao et al., 2012) that resources play an important role in relations between community-based organisations and the state/private agencies. Accordingly, within Yeoville, economic logic influences coalitions and alliances between community-based organisations in that community-based organisations align themselves with the YBCDT.

The YBCDT is a local non-governmental organisation working on socioeconomic development in Yeoville and Bellevue. It is privately sponsored by the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA). The YBCDT, however, has to get the approval of the municipality to get the DBSA funds; hence, the necessity for the YBCDT to maintain a good relationship with the city. By virtue of its control of resources, the YBCDT has become like the internationally supported organisations in the Zambia case study: It is the locus of attraction of most participation-generating community organisations in Yeoville; thereby becoming a local **power** broker in the political landscape of Yeoville (Schepers, 2006: 288 – 289; Srinivas, 2010). Evidence of the YBCDT financial dominion is that it provides office space for the CPF. The YBCDT also used the CPF members as surveyors for the housing audit that it sponsored, and periodically hires street patrollers as security personnel in its public events. Due to its financial clout, the YBDCT influences local discourses and actions.

Like the CPF, most local organisations in Yeoville compete to forge good relations with the YBCDT because of its command of economic resources. As part of influencing local discourses, the YBCDT finances and runs a community newsletter, Yeovue News, and most local organisations including the Trio rely on this newsletter for their publicity and for information on local issues. Through this control of the media, the YBCDT has some control over knowledge distribution as well. This enables the YBCDT to influence the means of symbolic reproduction in Yeoville by directing community discourses on socio-economic issues, and in a way setting the agenda for or on behalf of or with the community.

Reiterating this scenario from DeMars´s (2005: 51) standpoint, the advantages of collaboration with significant stakeholders can include access to material resources, political supremacy, information and new ways to appeal to constituents. Regrettably, in Yeoville this forms a backstage of political games in which individuals, not just as representatives of organisations, but in personal capacities, carve out power seats through the patronages of their organisations (Bryson et al., 2006: 50; Walker et al., 2007). That is attributed to the reins of local power that tend to be concentrated in the hands of a few individuals: The clique of individuals circulates from one organisation to another, setting organisational agendas and influencing resolutions taken in these organisations.

This is substantiated by the fact that members of the executive of the key organisations in Yeoville hold positions of power in two or more local organisations. For instance, the executive director of the YBCDT is an executive member of the CPF, and is a former chairperson of the YSF. Executive members of the newly formed Yeoville Bellevue Community Empowerment Committee (YBCEC)[43] are essentially the core members of the CPF executive. The YSF executive is a collection of leaders of various local organisations representing their very organisations. One executive member of the YCF is also an executive member of the CPF. The majority of individuals active in local organisations also forms the core of people who consistently attend public ward meetings and public CPF meetings amongst other meetings.

Similarly, most people holding official positions in community-based organisations also hold positions in local branches of political parties. As a consequence, Popp et al. (2013: 59) argues that the relative size of these organisational players involved should be considered when addressing the overt exertion of power as it may determine whether the intentional use of power can be openly or effectively addressed. Huxham and Vangen (2005: 172) supports this notion by advising that special attention should be given to the different community/collaborative structures which "requires paying continuous attention to the interaction between changes in structure and membership, changes in aims and agendas and changes in power with respect to who can enact or sabotage those agendas".

Despite the feebleness of this particular space of political power, it should be acknowledged that it can give rise to constructive and decisive ventures. In Yeoville, as with the majority of the cases presented in this chapter, the need for **stability** has been understated, which is alarming considering that, according to Bacon (2013: 13), long-term stability is considered a key reason for organisations to engage in partnerships. The main objective of ensuring stability is to give organisations more control over their environment by means of limiting uncertainty, distributing risk amongst several stakeholders as well as securing an orderly, reliable pattern of resource flows and exchanges (Babiak, 2007: 342; Murdie, 2014: 313).

Note however that in this community stability is brought about through control which in turn is a component of power. Even though the hunger for power is an imperative factor to consider in this community, the success or failure of ventures in Yeoville, as with any other community, depends on a multitude of intricate factors. In this chapter these different factors have been showcased in a wide range of settings. Thus, to conclude this discussion, it will be indubitably necessary to consider the commonalities amongst these cases that might seem vastly different from one another before embarking on exploring the collaborative setting that is Heidedal.

[43] YBCEC is an advocacy body created in November 2010. This advocacy group attempts to raise community awareness and lobby government agencies around Yeoville and Bellevue grievances. These matters include the commonly disdained, but continuous granting of liquor licenses to liquor outlets, operation of illegal liquor outlets and rezoning of buildings.

2.6. Conclusion

As set out in the beginning of this chapter, attention was given to four different case studies to exemplify collaboration and its foil, contestation, spanning over an assortment of socio-cultural, geographical and developmental spheres. By doing so, it was possible to exemplify the different faces of this two-sided collaboration-contestation coin.

One observation to make regarding the different stages is that it seems that the more basic the form of collaboration, the more informal it seems to be. For example, both the "coexistence" and "communication" phases in all the case studies tend to be informal, whereas cooperation is the transitory stage as it enfolds components of both informal and formal interaction. By the same token, the more integrated the form of collaboration is, the more formal it tends to be with more complex structures representing it. Thus, the "7C" stage model could possibly considered to be hierarchal in certain instances.

Note, however, that a more basic form could serve as the basis for another (e.g. "communication" could lead to "cooperation"). For instance, in the Yeoville case study three organisations coexisted initially, but over time progressed to "communication", "coordination" as well as "collaboration". From the case studies we could also conclude that the model used is not a set chain with one stage leading to another (e.g. in Yeoville the "cooperation" stage was not prevalent).

Moreover, as we have seen with the other case studies, more complex collaboration forms could prompt other stages making it bilateral. For example, "coalition" (e.g. consortiums/extensive networks) or the "collaboration" stage (e.g. umbrella organisations/executive task teams) could lead to communication and cooperation (e.g. through daily interaction and short term projects). As it has been shown in this chapter, the manner in which these stages unfold, if at all, depends on the different push-pull factors. The discussion of the case studies overall has been balanced to incorporate an equal amount of arguments related to both aiding and constraining factors of collaboration.

One of these factors, that is, the development of knowledge and skills, is an essential end in itself (as disclosed in three of the four case studies). Nevertheless, the means through which it is obtained – collaboration – is equally significant. Considering that collaboration is a human construct, interpersonal relationships are of cardinal importance as they are essential ties in human interaction. Throughout all the case studies it was demonstrated that trust was at the core of interpersonal engagement. It was therefore dismaying to observe that interpersonal relationships negatively affected necessity. The influence of these ties depends on organisational leaders that could dictate or even prohibit interaction between their members and members of other organisations (as reflected especially in Zambia and Yeoville).

This could be attributed to the fact that organisations are competing for a rather small pool of resources which in itself obstructs collaboration. This lack of resources pushes the importance of legitimacy to the fore to garner funders; however, the official procedures that accompanies it tend to be burdensome. It could also divert organisations from providing proper service delivery to their community. Thus, the few donors that organisations have access to/are aware of retain the supremacy to make demands to their liking. Depending on how the donors (or organisations) yield this power could lead to a distortion of service delivery and overall contestation. Alternatively, it could drive organisations to bring positive influence in other areas.

The above is particularly of value as all case studies unanimously denoted that the alignment of goals is revealed as the most significant factor relating to successful collaboration. If shared objectives are delineated properly, efficiency could be bolstered as it moderates competition and the duplication of services. Taking all of these factors into account, even though stability might have gone unnoticed, it might essentially be the undercurrent of all the other factors. This may well be due to the fact that organisations essentially strive to ensure stability within their own organisation and/or community.

Everything considered, although important deductions have been made in this chapter, it should be noted that there are other case studies – as few as they are – with a strong emphasis on the inner-workings behind inter-organisational collaboration specifically.[44] However, as outlined in the introduction of this chapter, these were not included as they are not aligned with the criteria described in the conceptual framework or the aims and objectives of the Heidedal study.

As this Heidedal case study is explored in the next chapter, consideration will be given to the two pillars of this discussion: The first being the different factors related to interaction and whether it promotes or inhibits collaboration. The second is composed of the stages of collaboration which is expanded on by the different collaboration structures that embodies it and the manner in which it is being done (i.e. formally or informally). While reading the chapter following, bear in mind that the Heidedal case study rests on these pillars which in themselves comprise the groundwork set forth by the four case studies of this very chapter.

[44] Other significant examples include California Department of Developmental Service (2008); Rein & Stott (2008); Sitshange (2010); Thorsteinsdottir et al. (2010); Mishan (2012) and Murdie (2014).

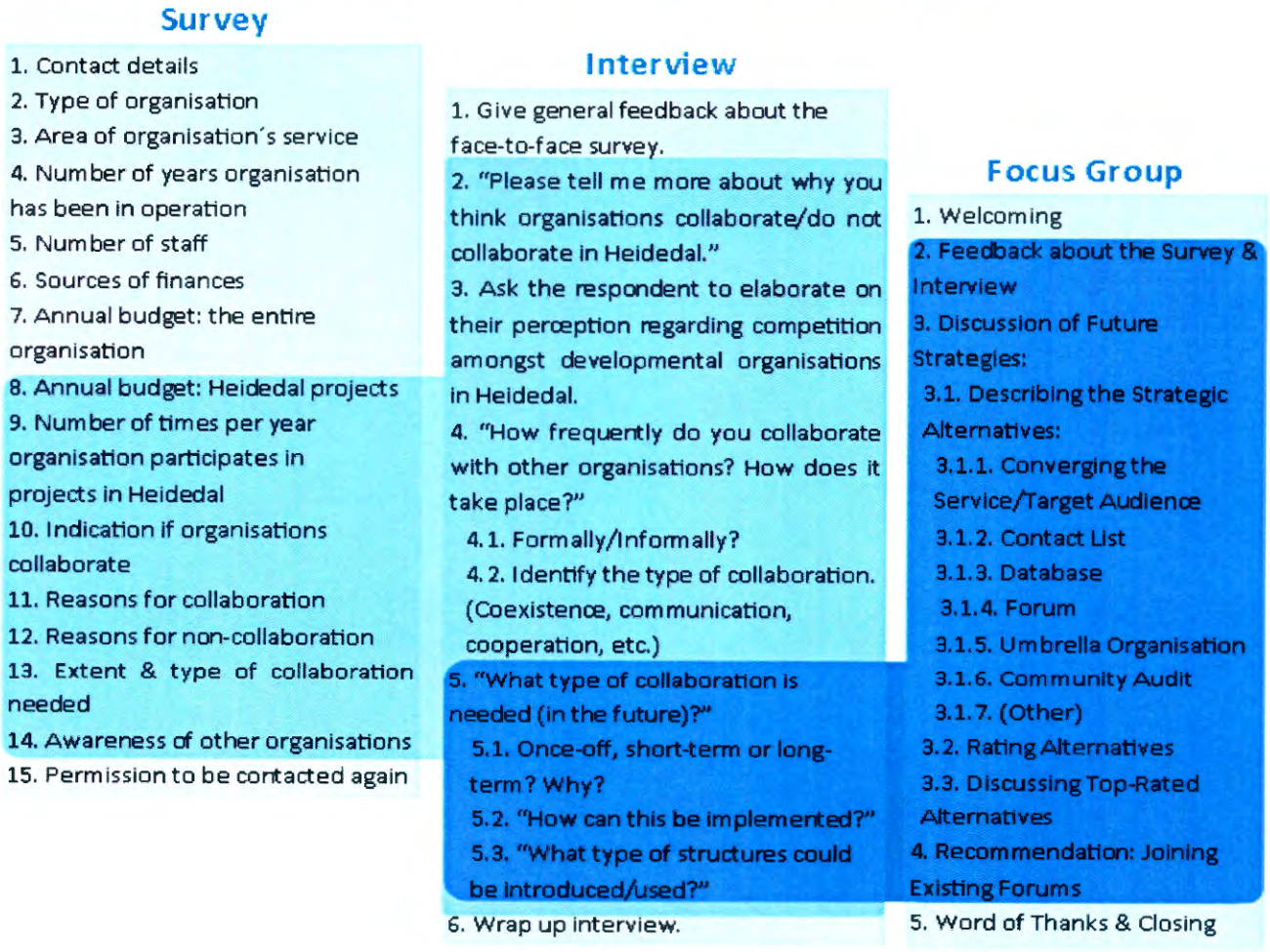
Chapter Three: Research Findings and Discussion

3.1. Introduction

As highlighted in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3), a kaleidoscope of factors exists that could either promote or constrain collaboration. In fact, in the preceding chapter it was shown how these factors take form in actual case studies from a broad spectrum of communities and conditions. Here special attention was also given to the manner in which organisations interact – be it formal or informal – and the different types of collaborative structures the community encompasses was also considered.

Subsequently, the discussion thus far has foreshadowed the analysis of the Heidedal case study since inter-organisational collaboration in this community also consists of the same components as identified in the first chapter and exemplified in the second. Note that exploring inter-organisational collaboration is uncharted territory in the Heidedal community which is the main motivator that prompted the first data collection phase (i.e. the survey). This was done in order to amass knowledge about organisations and to develop a general

Figure 5: Continuity between the data collection phases



sense of inter-organisational collaboration in the community. The information gathered was used to bolster the interview on the motives behind why organisations collaborate or not. This in turn steered the study towards a focus group session where respondents considered possible collaborative structures. Figure 3 delineates the continuity between the data collection phases by showing how the items of one phase shaped the others.

The results of each of these data collection stages – namely the face-to-face survey, the semi-structured interview and the focus group – will be introduced respectively under Sections 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4. As a result, inter-organisational collaboration in Heidedal will be addressed in broad terms first. The discussion is based on the data analysis of the survey and it aims to create a broad understanding of the collaborative setting before investigating it in greater detail.

3.2. Inter-Organisational Collaboration in Heidedal from a Bird´s-Eye View

3.2.1. The Organisations

In this subsection we will briefly look at the characteristics of the organisations that were surveyed. This information was gathered over a period of 36 working days by means of the face-to-face survey[45] – the first query was related to the types of organisations in Heidedal.

Eight of the 15 items of the survey covered basic information about the organisation which ranged from contact details to the classification of the type of organisation. The majority of the organisations (18 of 28) identified themselves as NPOs (Figure 4).[46] Of all of these organisations, 4 (i.e. 14%) are not from within the community; they have their main offices elsewhere, but provide services in Heidedal on a daily basis.

Considering the services of all 28 organisations, 7 of these busy themselves with child/orphan care and 5 working with health related matters which together constitutes 43% of the services rendered (Figure 5).

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[45] Please be advised that Appendix B contains a copy of the survey questionnaire.

[46] The distinction between NPOs and NGOs here are specific to the South African setting: Following the description set forth by the Department of Social Development (2013: 5) in Chapter 1 (Section 1.1), an NPO is any civil society organisation including FBOs, CBOs and NGOs. In this context, an NGO is therefore a type of NPO. The difference is that an NGO – as with FBOs & CBOs – wishes to emphasis its particularity. A non-governmental organisation is not affiliated or mandated by the state whereas an NPO could be. This is exemplified in the Yeoville case study (Chapter 2, Section 2.5) where the three of the organisations were delegated/instructed by the government and one, the Yeoville Community Forum, was not. For this reason the distinction was made when planning for the data collection phase in case the organisational environment had been affected by this distinction (as with the Yeoville case study).
However, the Heidedal organisations did not present themselves as being directly affiliated to the state. Also, as we have seen in the discussion of the literature review, NPOs and NGOs are generally considered to be the same in academic writing. Based on these two reason they have been grouped together when presenting the results and should be considered as the same entity.

Figure 8: Different types of organisations active in the community

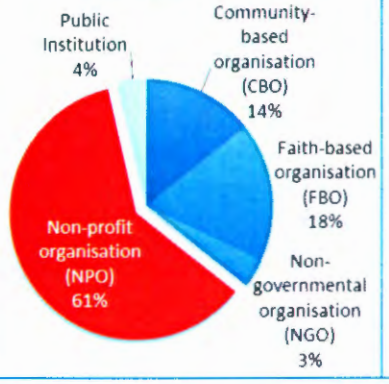
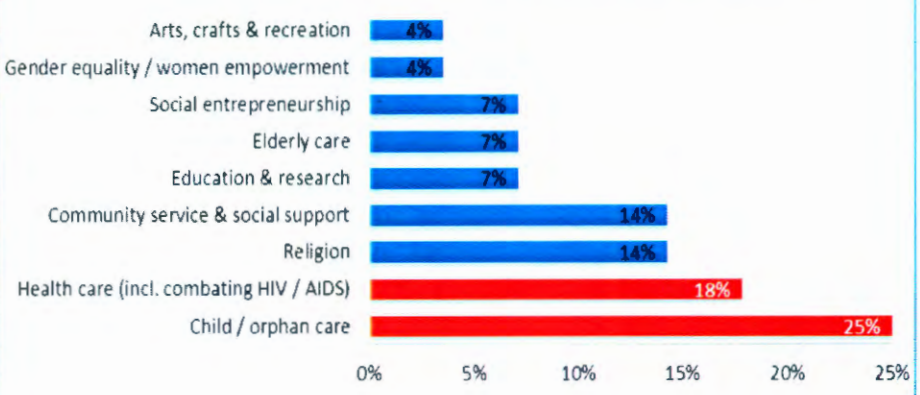
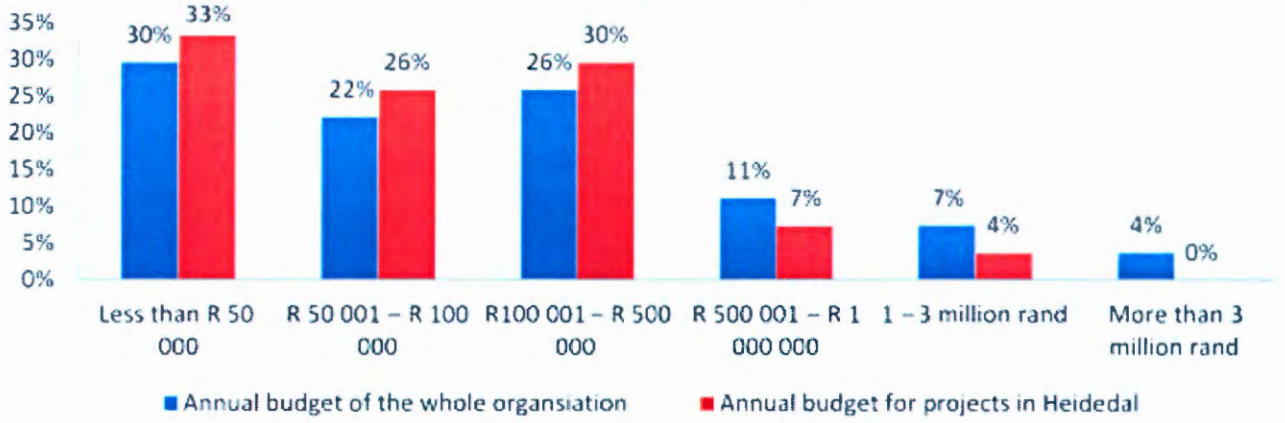


Figure 8: Main area of the organisations' services



These organisations have been providing these services to the community for a long time (Figure 6); nearly 65% of all the organisations are deeply seated in the community as they have been serving Heidedal for 8 years or more. Despite the entrenched nature of the organisations most of these organisations operate with very little human resources: A total 61% of all of the organisations have between 1 and 6 permanent staff members (Figure 7). This can be broadened to 82% if the range of staff members is extended to 10.

Figure 9: Annual budget of organisations



Another resource that is fairly scarce is that of funding: A total of 78% of the organisations have an annual budget of up to R 500 000. Nearly all the organisations devote their entire funding to projects in the community. The discrepancy between the two series in Figure 8 can be attributed to the fact that 3 of the major organisations with the largest budgets invest roughly 10% of their funding on projects in Heidedal.[47]

[47] These organisations listed their annual budgets as "between R 500 001 – R 1 000 000", "1 – 3 million rand" and "more than 3 million rand" while indicating that their total budget for Heidedal-related projects are "less than R 50 000, "R 50 001 – R 100 000" and "R100 001 – R 500 000" correspondingly. It should come as no surprise that these organisations are not based within the community and that they also cater for many other communities in Mangaung.

Figure 11: Number of years the organisation has been in operation

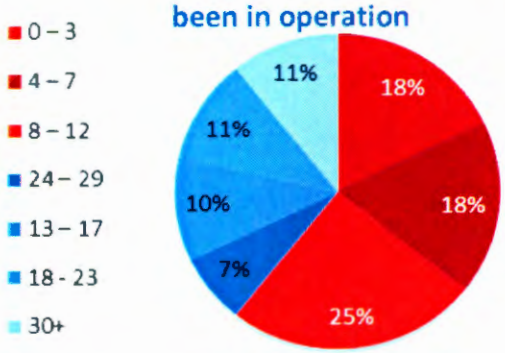
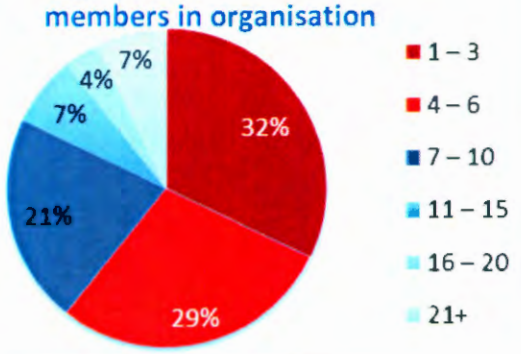
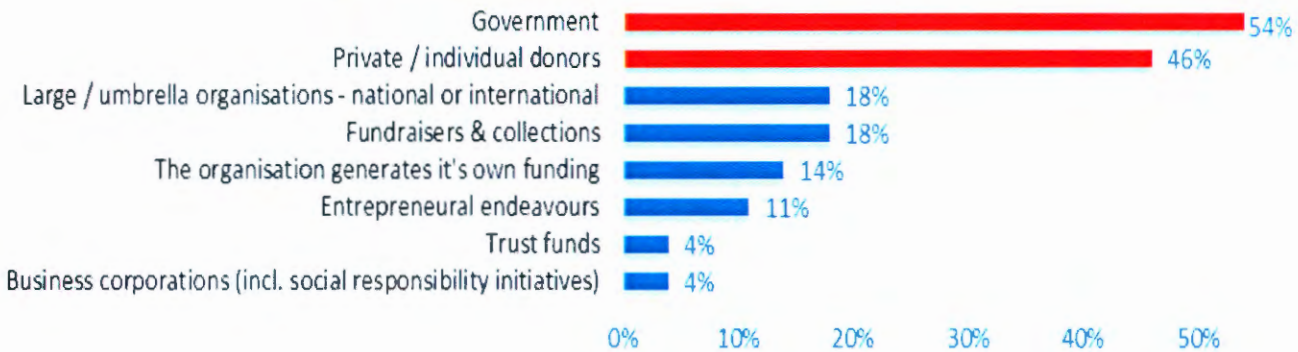


Figure 10: Number of permanent staff members in organisation



This means that 25 of the 28 (i.e. 89%) of the (mostly local) organisations are ploughing all their resources back into the community. Overall, this is a fairly humble notion, especially if we consider that these organisations are normally dependent on a single source of funding. For the majority of organisations, these sources are individual (private) donors and/or governmental departments (Figure 9).

Figure 12: Main sources of organisations´ finances



It is interesting to see then that the majority of these organisations invests barely any of these resources they receive from donors in joint ventures: A total of 55% respondents (Figure 10) indicated that they seldom partake in any collaborative projects in a year. This is reflected in the fact that collaboration of any form with other organisations adds up to 5 times per year. That translates to not even once every two months. What is even more surprising is that the biggest quintile (22%) of these organisations does not interact with other organisations at all.

Figure 14: Number of times per year that organisations participate in projects with other organisations in Heidedal

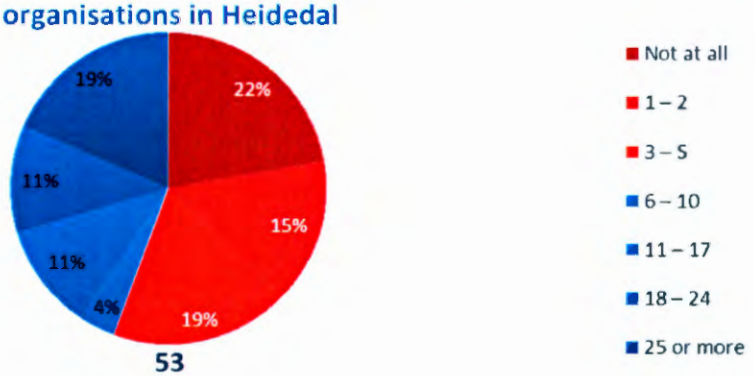
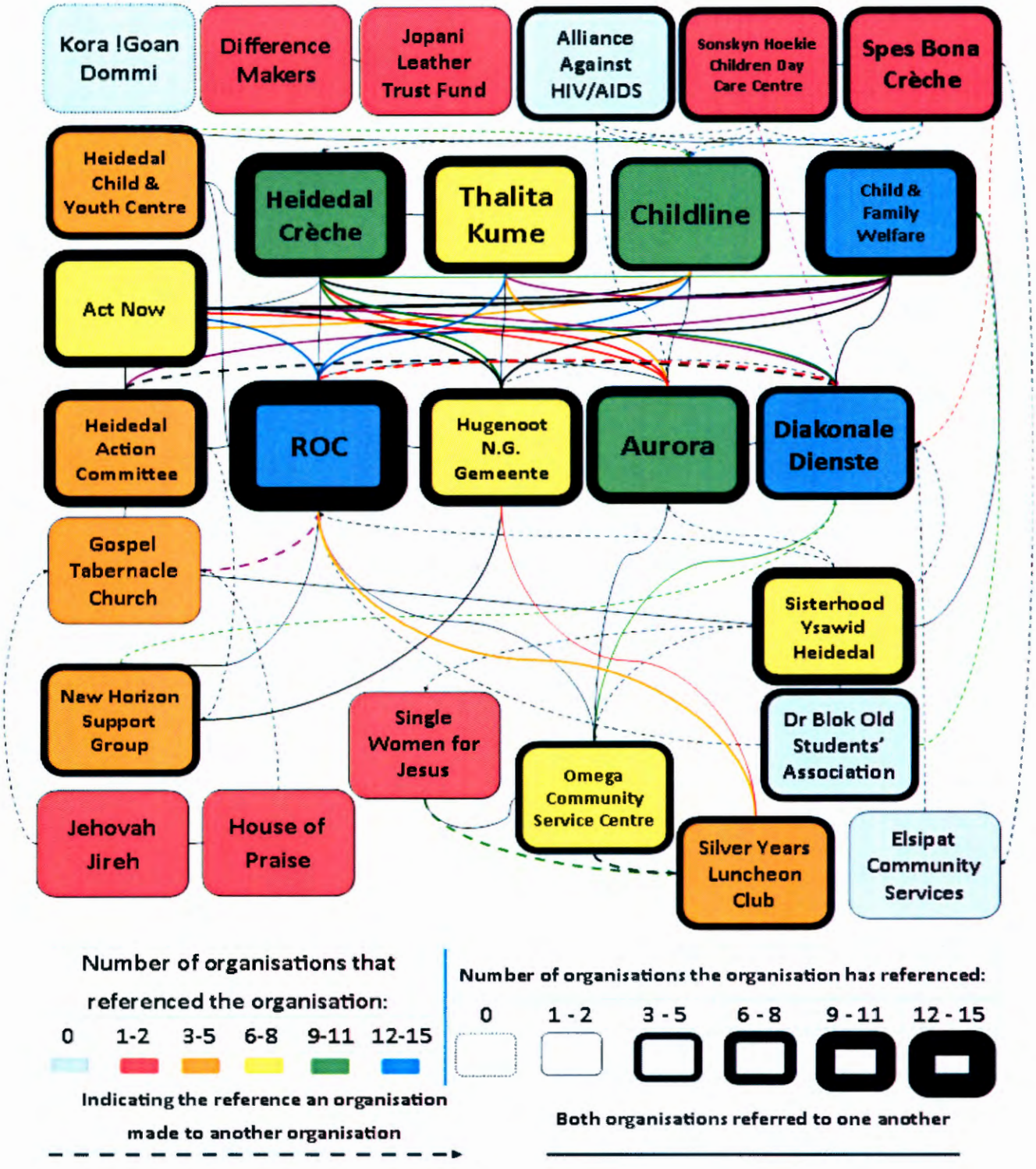


Figure 15: A representation of the network of organisations surveyed[48], [49]



[48] Please note that the Trevor Barlow Library is not is not represented in the figure as it is a public institution and not an independent social development organisation.
In addition, note that in this image only the organisations that were interviewed were listed; organisations that were either unreachable or unavailable at the time were not included. This was done to illustrate the level awareness that exist amongst the organisations that were surveyed.

[49] The colour & weight of the lines bear no significance whatsoever; it is for clarification purposes only.

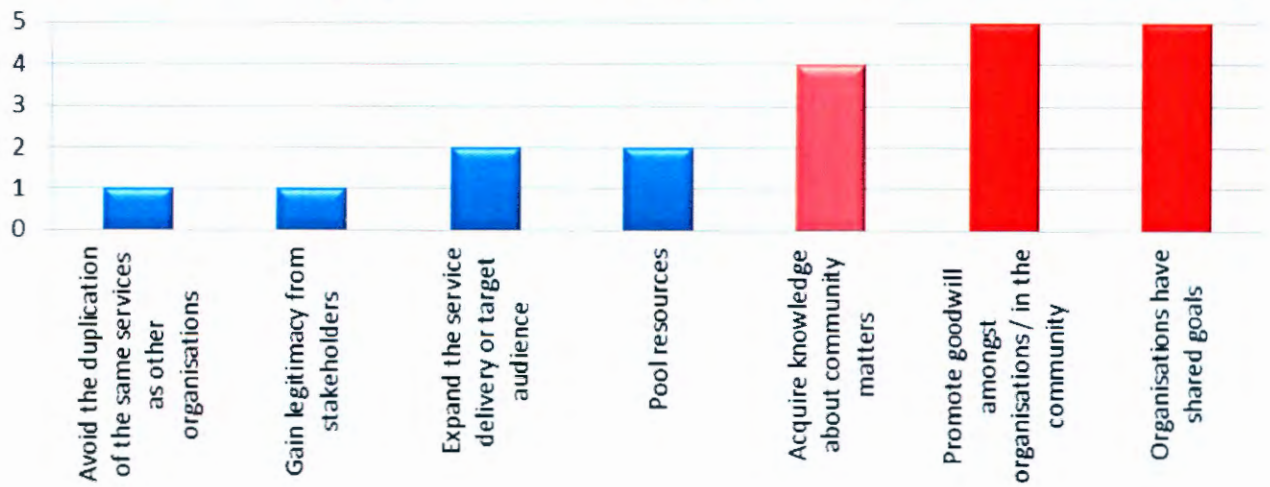
This enforces the weak sense of awareness that was found amongst these organisations: Eleven of the 27 organisations illustrated (i.e. 40%) in Figure 11 were hardly recognised by other organisations. Similarly, 8 of these organisations (29%) were able to list only up to 2 other organisations that they are aware of in the community. On the contrary, there are 8 other organisations that form a strong niche amongst themselves; that is to say, the organisations coloured in blue and green in Figure 11. They are the most prominent organisations amongst respondents and they also included the organisations that showed the greatest awareness of other organisations.

Considering this overall weak network of interaction that exist amongst the organisations, it is not surprising that 71% of all the organisations surveyed are of the opinion that Heidedal organisations do not collaborate. In part, the organisations' characteristics that were cursorily ascertained in the survey forms the undercurrent for the collaborative dynamics amongst these organisations. The extent and factors of collaboration were determined in both the remainder of the survey as well as the interviews.[50] We will now turn to those results to not only present the nature of collaboration in Heidedal, but also to apprehend it.

3.2.2. Collaboration among the Organisations

The second half of the survey homed in on the reasons for promoting or inhibiting collaboration introduced in Chapter 1 (Subsection 1.3.1). This segment of the survey was also used later on to form the foundation of the interview schedule seeing that the survey pointed towards limited/waning inter-organisational interaction and the perspectives that sustains it. For instance on one hand, when the face-to-face survey was conducted 8 of the 28 respondents (29%) indicated that organisations do work together. One of the reasons they identified (see Figure 12) was the need to share and generate knowledge regarding community matters.

Figure 16: Reasons why organisations collaborate (listed according to number of responses)

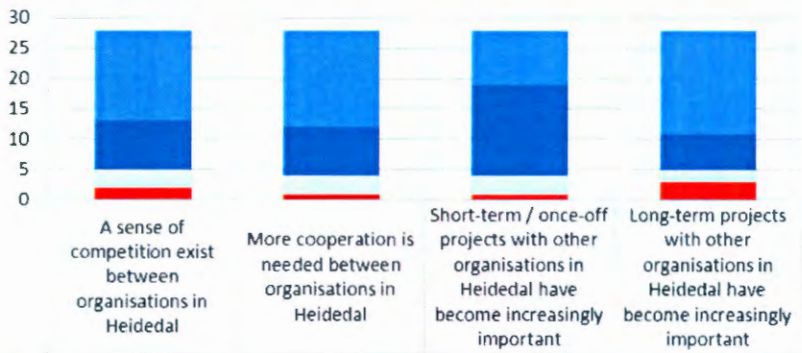


[50] It is advised to once again look at the interview schedule in Appendix C.

Figure 17: Reasons for non-collaborate behaviour amongst Heidedal organisations (listed according to number of responses)

On the other hand, a point that was not that prominent in the other case studies is that many respondents denounced the need of bringing organisations together as they believe that organisations deliberately choose to expand their services on their own (Figure 13). This viewpoint is enforced by the fact that organisations are competing for resources and that they wish to demonstrate their authority in the community or over other organisations. Subsequently, this forms the prelude to why the foremost reason for non-collaboration is that organisations seek to earn the legitimacy on their own. Thus, a sense that other organisations are conceited is prevalent from the outset. As we will see later on, this is a common notion in the community.

Figure 19: Perceptions regarding collaboration in Heidedal



	A sense of competition exist between organisations in Heidedal	More cooperation is needed between organisations in Heidedal	Short-term / once-off projects with other organisations in Heidedal have become increasingly important	Long-term projects with other organisations in Heidedal have become increasingly important
Strongly Agree	15	16	9	17
Agree	8	8	15	6
Neutral	3	3	3	2
Disagree	1	0	1	3
Strongly Disagree	1	1	0	0

Owing to this perception of complacence, 23 of the 28 survey respondents (82%) felt that a great sense of inter-organisational competition exist. In the face of this disfavour of collaboration, 85% of all organisations surveyed (Figure 14) feel that more inter-organisational collaboration is needed in Heidedal. It follows that

82% and 86% of respondents stated that long-term as well as short-term (or once-off) collaborations respectively have become increasingly more important. The highest response rate for this question item was 17 (61%) which relates to respondents strongly agreeing that long-term projects are needed in comparison to feeling strongly about short-term or once-off projects (32%).

This reaction could be rooted in the fact that in Heidedal's recent past, collaborative efforts had been attempted with varying degrees of success. In Chapter 1 (Section 1.2), it was shown that previous projects incorporating multiple organisations stretch over a multiplicity of themes. These projects are/were largely geared toward child/orphan and health care (with a strong emphasis on drug-related concerns). This is not surprising considering that, as we have seen earlier, these two fields form the main operational areas for the majority of Heidedal's organisations.

Some of these projects, as elicited by some of the 17 respondents of the interview phase of the study, are categorised under this non-exhaustive list:

- **Youth protection and empowerment**: Child Protection Week; the Drop-Out Project, I Dare You to Choose, Life Solutions, the reading programme (Childline, 2014; Coetzee, 2009: 6; Ebershon, 2009: 4; Gericke, 2013b: 8; Smith, 2012: 1).
- **Substance abuse and prevention**: the dagga prevention programme, *Gom-maak-jou*-dom, and *KeMoja* (Smith, 2012: 1).
- **Leadership recognition and development**: Heidedaller of the Year, Friend of Heidedal of the Year and Heidedal Institution of the Year (Thabete, 2012; Venter, 2013c).
- **Enabling of Senior Citizens:** Elderly reading programme, Golden Games, Pretty Things for Little Things (Age-in-Action, 2012; Business World Africa, 2013; Ebershon, 2009: 4; Gericke, 2012c).

As we can see, all of the projects listed here are forms of formal collaboration and most of them are either once-off or short-term ventures.[53] Conversely, interview respondents also cited some informal collaborative engagements such as referrals and redirecting cases to the appropriate organisation. This informal relationship could also be of an enduring nature and is quite often seated in formal platforms. Respondents have indicated that these platforms often include forums (such as the Childcare Forum, the Social Service Forum and the Community Police Forum) or committees (e.g. the Local Drug Action Committee).As Interview Respondent (IR) 1[54] stated, the objective of such formal, abiding ventures is "to eliminate overlapping and to find ways to supplement organisations reciprocally". Regrettably, this

[53] This fact could point towards survey respondents' need for more long-term ventures.
[54] Please note that the numbering of respondents are purely based on when reference is given to them in this text; the objective is to secure the respondents' promised anonymity as indicated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.8).

respondent also brought to the light that continuous and dedicated investment in these assemblies are often short-lived. This notion was also illustrated through an example from a different respondent:

> *"A couple of years ago we started a childcore forum. These were meetings held in the evening so that organisations could not say that they cannot attend. But in the end it was just myself and [five others]. Nobody came... Everybody wants to function on their own; they want the fame for themselves. They deliver a service to their own people – they simply refused to work together. If you want to bring this lot together, you are not going to get it right."*

Flowing from this illustration, Heidedal is riddled with animosity and non-collaboration, but at the same time the contradictory need "to take hands" still prevail. This metaphor ran throughout the interview phase of the data collection process. Fifteen of the 17 interviewees (88%) gave reference to this drift, which forms the beam as we balance the rationale between contestation and association within this community.

3.3. Motives behind Why Organisations Contest or Embrace Collaboration

In this section reference will be given to the motivating factors behind organisations' approach towards inter-organisational collaboration. These motives that have been provided by the interview respondents have been categorised by using the framework for inter-organisational collaboration as presented in Chapter 1 and elaborated on in Chapter 2.[55] This means that exploring collaboration as a developmental phenomenon will be done by first considering the prevalence and nature of the eight push-pull factors within Heidedal. This will be augmented by the factors enumerated to assure successful collaboration.[56] Thus, in the spirit of any academic pursuit it has been deemed fit to begin with knowledge as the starting block.

3.3.1. Knowledge

Yarwood (2007: 461) stresses the need for agencies in communication networks to develop and control knowledge. He states that producing localised knowledge about community concerns can be used as bargaining chips to gain support from other stakeholders: Knowledge is a form of cultural capital that each organisation covets; those who do not accrue knowledge cannot use it to secure resources. It should be noted that in Heidedal amassing knowledge is not simply a negotiating tool; in truth, it is considered to be more of an act related to understanding and amity.[57]

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[55] Also refer to Appendix A.

[56] Please refer to Appendix G which contains a list that summarises the findings of each of the factors discussed in this subsection. Refer to this list in order to get a general perspective when reviewing a particular factor.

[57] This was also evident in the survey stage – refer to Subsection 3.2.2 (Figure 12).

Firstly, the concept of understanding mirrors the Hong Kong case in that interviewees expressed the need to be informed chiefly of processes and structures not only related to organisations, but also that of governing bodies (such as police protocols and the inner-workings of the Department of Social Development). As IR 2 pointed out, "formal structures are necessary when making referrals – it is necessary to know who to contact, how and why."

Through the accruing of this knowledge of processes and proceedings, camaraderie could arise which seems to be of greater value than the knowledge itself: Some interviewees stated that they attend forums, workshops and meetings as it is a refuge for compassion and catharsis. One of these interviewees explained that other organisations often know of a problem area or a possible solution to a certain challenge as they have already experienced what other organisations are going through at present and so "sharing knowledge, outlining limitations and providing information are empowering".

Similarly, by attending courses hosted by another organisation, IR 3 feels that she is provided with plenty of useful information and is shown "how to handle things". In fact, the organisation that hosts these courses typifies the larger organisations as presented in the Zambia case, seeing that they too are of the opinion that it is their obligation to share their knowledge as soon as they have mastered it and know how to use it. Another interviewee eagerly highlighted the importance of knowledge-sharing as an instrument to promote goodwill:

> *"It is necessary for organisations to come together because we learn things from each other, the circle of friends gets bigger and we talk to each other. You talk about your problems and I talk about mine and we give each other advice. It is actually quite nice."*

In contrast, there were interviewees that heeded against this form of collaborative action as there is general mistrust in terms of what will be done with the collected information and how it will be used (Weber & Khademian, 2008: 339). IR 4 expressed her discontent in the founders of platforms (such as committees or forums) as it has been her experience that they "sit and listen to meetings and then they take all the ideas of other organisations and start their own thing".

Similarly, another interviewee shared how she has engaged with other organisations previously, providing training and guidance just to be abandoned as soon as they have gained what they wanted, taking those newly developed skills to further their own mercenary undertakings. Consequently, she has learnt not to share things with other organisations freely, but to let them pay for her organisation's service. This respondent posits that "people don't listen to each other. They don't share ideas. They don't look for opportunities. People are tired." As we have seen with the Yeoville case, this weariness sets in where power comes into play not only to secure knowledge, but more broadly with sweeping self-absorbed ascendency.

3.3.2. Power

A sense of pre-eminence has been identified by 82% of all interview respondents either as an essential pillar within their organisation or as a shortcoming in other organisations that prevent groups of engaging openly. Thus, it is interesting to note that interviewees perceived it as a strength within their own organisation, but a drawback in others which points to inter-organisational power that is at play in the community.

Authors (Oliver, 1990, 243; Babiak, 2007: 341) consider this power to be a function of organisation size, the extent to which an organisation has control over the rules governing the exchange of resources, the effectiveness of coercive strategies, and the concentration of organisational inputs. Popp et al. (2013: 59) further explains that power can be viewed as positional (i.e. the attribution of power to another based on their organisational role) or personal (i.e. the individual's experience of their own influence). Note that in the in the cases presented generally tend to be positional; however, the contrary seems to be true in Heidedal: As a respondent remarked, power amongst Heidedal organisations is seated in the organisation leaders as the organisations here are linked to the individual; "it is the personal experience of people that motivates them to get involved". It was also related simultaneously to the fact that a person that wishes to initiate something in Heidedal must have admiration in the community.

These two components together have sadly escalated to a power struggle amongst organisational leaders, which gave rise to non-collaboration and conceitedness. IR 4 elaborated on individuals that wish to establish self-reverence by stating that for her the trouble lies with the fact that "it all has to do with the title."

Inter-organisational collaboration is stifled further by the emphasis of the individual as "people have taken things too personally". IR 5 explains this estimation by explaining that individuals have personal vendettas against each other and will therefore not work with others. She cries out for people to "realise why they do what they do – why they are volunteers: It is not about personal gain." One respondent summarised the essence of this egoistic supremacy:

> *"We all work closely, but then there are organisations that work for 'shine'. They just want to be in the spotlight, but they do not reach the call of the community. There are too many 'important' people; the 'me, myself and I' is too much. People should get off their thrones... Just forget about your political standing and status and let us talk about how we can take hands. You can still blow your own horn over there, but let us just work together. Some people think that they are the 'be all and end all'."*

Here we can see that more often than not, power is the consequence of an eroding democracy and the manipulation of the public sphere (Swyngedouw 2011: 370). Notwithstanding, power can also be applied to ensure positive outcome collaboration in that organisations can make use of power structures collectively to

advocate upcoming issues, pinpoint policies, influence research processes as well as liaison agreements and norms (Steffek, 2013: 1005 – 1007).

Even though this constructive deployment of power is lacking in the community, there is nonetheless a call for it. Two interviewees separately referred to transformational leadership. For one, this concept is the ability to enable people to become leaders while for the other a transformational leader brings change in the community. For IR 6, this type of leadership is founded on a relationship, a friendship, a partnership; thus, a form of personal collaboration that is absent at present. He goes further, supporting Metzger et al. (2005: 469) view, by indicating that collaboration is built on certain agreements that flows from their set value systems.

Only once this is established would leaders feel comfortable and safe with one another to delegate and/or share power. Albeit IR 6´s buoyancy, he is dubious about collaborative initiatives:

> *"How many times hasn´t it been done in the past? All the key players were involved with initiatives. There was just not enough drive. If you want to steer something like this you need the power AND the resources."*

This point that the respondent raises ratifies why resources, especially funding, is an adversary to collaboration in Heidedal and the power benefactors have in its allotment.

3.3.3. Resources, Legitimacy and Necessity

As it was illustrated in Subsection 3.2.2, the relationship between resources and legitimacy can be acknowledged in what Bailey and Koney (2000) refers to as environmental validity. The theory of this construct, seated within the resource dependence model introduced in Chapter 1 (Section 1.3), suggests that organisations purposefully enter into alliances: Organisations wish to increase their legitimacy within the community and to external actors "as a means of attaining the resources and support necessary to achieve their mission" (Mayhew, 2008: 32).

Conversely, Steffek (2013: 1007) opposes this by postulating that financial self-interest is paramount for organisations. The result is competition prevailing between organisations for capital, which is regrettably the case in Heidedal. Sixteen of the 17 interviewees (94%) voiced their concern regarding the procurement of resources. Two of these correspondents expressed that they will continue to deliver their services as long as finances are available; for them "it is a struggle if finances run out".

For this reason, as one interview respondent illustrated, organisations shy away from other organisations in order to protect their own assets. "Protecting in the sense of ´I have worked so hard to get here. I am afraid of the unknown because maybe something goes wrong.´" This resonates with IR 1´s perspective that people do not want to do work voluntarily because the core of the matter is survival: "I will do it if I get money for it...

Each one of us is trying to see how we can make a success of our own projects. We are fighting for our financial existence."

Provan et al. (2007: 503) claim that resource availability also strongly influences the ability to gain legitimacy and facilitate partnerships. Based on this notion it is not surprising that 7 of the 17 interviewees (41%) indicated that the competition of monetary subsistence is one of the fundamental reasons why organisations do not collaborate. In part this could be ascribed to the fact that Heidedal organisations have the same goals and programmes which results in them tapping the same reserves. This is illustrated in what IR 6 calls the resource rat race (similar to Cooley & Ron´s, 2002, "NGO Scramble"):

> *"If the Department of Social Development gives funding to HIV, then everybody turns to HIV and if they give money for drugs then everybody turns to drug projects. It is a fight for survival. This is because organisations do not know what their goal of their couse is and what they are focusing on."*

The result is that some organisations come into being because they gain access to the same resources as other organisations and duplicate the same services of organisations that have been active for years. Another respondent poignantly remarked that in this rat race many organisations provide social services on behalf of the Department of Social Development. However, they do not get financial backing from the department whilst organisations dare not reach out to each other because they are perceived as a threat to one another (Chapter 2, Subsection 2.3.1, showed that this is often the case in developing countries). The result is that organisations are both severed from any support structure and isolated from one another as they are in a race against each other as they attempt to attain dwindling resources as competition for those resources are multiplying (Reith, 2010: 449).

Ferrari (2011: 89) highlighted another pitfall of such ominous and relentless procurement of economic capital in that it can seriously detract from the organisation´s focus on delivering its services. She also warns that it might interfere with collective action and could lead to skewed or even deceptive messages to donors.

For IR 8, it is precisely that bond with donor/mother organisations that forms the largest stumbling block for collaboration: "It is difficult to bring people together especially if it has to do with funding. People get funds to do XYZ." In other words, organisations have certain obligations toward donors (Choi et al., 2005; Reith, 2010; Steffek, 2013).

One respondent provided an example of a charity run by a church which wants to involve people from its congregation and wants to spread the gospel. It might also wish to give feedback to their synod about the projects they hosted. He postulated that in this instance, collaboration with others would deprive this charity of claiming ownership of its projects and, in effect, its legitimacy. As witnessed similarly in the Peru case study and stated in Section 3.1, the majority of organisations relies on very few contributors of funding. This element

secures organisations' obedience to these donors as they cannot afford to lose their financial backing. This is especially true considering that gateways to such patrons are on the decrease; IR 7 explains why this is:

> *"In the 1980s big international organisations funded locally. Why are there no funds anymore? The recent recession and the decrease of proper auditing, monitoring and evaluation over the years... have made international funders averse to invest locally. Today we rely on private organisations and the government as well as private donors."*

This essentially means that the competition for legitimacy nowadays has become a matter of political branding and rebranding of organisations. Pasotti (2010: 18) explains that political branding is the process of promoting the image of an organisation in order to make it more appealing to the organisation's stakeholders as well as current or prospective sponsors. Likewise, as with the Yeoville case, whether or not Heidedal organisations enjoy legitimacy is governed by their alliances with key players, the nature of this partnered engagement and the mandated accountabilities that it compels. "Community organisations discredit and enrol each other and shift or declare loyalties depending on circumstances and ideological convergence or divergence" (Katsaura, 2012: 331).

Three interviewees indicated that bigger organisations have more leverage to make such shifts. For one of these organisations being a larger organisation makes them a perceived threat for others considering that smaller organisations cannot compete with them. As one interviewee noted, this could be attributed to the fact that "the state gives more money to sustainable, legitimate organisations because they have the know-how." Another respondent underpinned this notion by suggesting that established organisations are reputable for abiding to provide what donors demand; "donors want things to be done in a certain way – in the right way".

However, Reith (2010) advocates caution with these demands of benefactors as they might manipulate organisations to establish political positioning not only within the organisation, but also within the community they are supposed to serve. Here we can see the jostling of stakeholders to advance unconventional political agendas – sometimes under the guise of community activism at the expense of the community or their constituency. One correspondent, though, is of the opinion that patrons could use this very same agency to promote organisational networking and tenacity:

> *"Funders have a lot of power if they start to indicate how much money is needed for what; this way they already start to compress [the duplication of services]. They also have the power to monitor people and to address where duplication takes place. Why can they address this? Because they have the power. I myself as another organisation do not have the power. If I as an individual address duplicity then they tell me: 'So what? Who are you? '"*

This supports the notion explained through the Hong Kong case that necessity can mandate collaboration: Directives from higher authorities may oblige organisations to interact, which might otherwise not have taken place voluntarily (Oliver, 1990: 243; Murdie, 2014: 313). In Heidedal we can see that through their authority, benefactors and stakeholders at large could directly steer the efficiency of organisations. In turn, efficiency in itself is a collaboration prompt, which shows that stakeholders have the strategic disposition to (obliquely) affect inter-organisational allegiances as well. It therefore warrants looking at how efficacy is interpreted in Heidedal and how this perception affects inter-organisational relationships in this community.

3.3.4. Efficiency and Stability

In the preceding subsection we have seen that organisations wish to secure resources from their benefactors in order to provide a service that they perceive to be efficient. Thus, from Claiborne et al.'s perspective (2009: 337), Heidedal organisations are striving towards stability which might deter collaboration due to heavy reliance on one revenue stream, lack of information regarding environmental fluctuations, socio-cultural segregation and/or biases.

Then again, as the literature suggests (Oliver, 1990: 246; Lewis, 2007: 96; Hoberecht et al., 2011: 24), organisations in Heidedal could use collaborative ventures to anticipate or absorb uncertainty and so minimise risk. One respondent alluded this by stating that "you have to be open-minded about how other organisations from other backgrounds could be important for you". Another supported this notion of stability through unity by referring to how organisations in the community have to support "each other like before. Organisations shared resources and we should learn how to take hands again. There is no alternative."

Unfortunately, as we have seen in Subsection 3.2.2, many Heidedal organisations choose not to do this based on previous experiences they have had with organisations, especially where they felt used by others. As a result, organisations choose to be self-reliant in order to ensure the predictability and control that they desire. IR 9 illustrated this with an example:

> *"Organisations asked us to provide staff training, but for free. It is not mutuol because one organisation must carry all the costs... but the return does not have to be financial. So why are people not working together? Because we could rather launch our own project with no hassle."*

Once again the sense of mistrust arises and Heidedal organisations wish to hold on the little bit they have as collaboration might lead to either them losing their resources or being unable to provide their service effectively. IR 3's comment rings true regarding this matter:

> *"People do not think it is necessary to work together as long as they can function on their own. It will be necessory to make people grosp why it is importont, why it will be better. The reason why people attend meetings is only if it helps your organisation somehow."*

It is quite evident then that Heidedal organisations do not make use of what Bailey and Koney (2000: 21) refer to as strategic enhancement. This represents using collaboration as an agency to enhance the organisation's facility to expand its service delivery or enlarging its target population. The objective is to safeguard the organisation's existence, but also procures the organisation's market while strengthening its strategic position. This is to increase productivity and to cut back on the duplication of services in the community. IR 5 proposed that strategic enhancement could be applied in instances where organisations have the same projects. According to her, they should "talk together and see how these programmes could be brought together because they all have different resources that could be shared."

Furthermore, as we have seen in the previous subsection, the duplication (or blending) of such projects in this area can be attributed to the fact that, in IR 10's words, "organisations pop up like popcorn". One interviewee remarked that this leads to a conflict of services seeing that there are organisations that do roughly the same work, but one wants to trounce the others (which upholds the findings of Barr & Fafchamps, 2006: 631 – 635). In the latter's opinion, the consequence is that it is ultimately service delivery that suffers.

IR 7 deems that this multitude of organisations mushrooming in Heidedal share the same goals and programmes while tapping the same funds, leading to competition. She poses that organisations should collaborate by giving other organisations the opportunity to develop a speciality and so improve overall efficiency. "This way there is an opportunity for a better quality of service; organisations should not just grow in numbers."

This is specifically of concern if one considers that 71% of all the organisations surveyed are area bound; each serving one of the three neighbourhoods in Heidedal. IR 11 remarked that organisations are fighting for space, but she recommends the following:

> *"Maybe we [the orgonisations] should say: You concentrote here and you concentrate there, then it will work. One person cannot do everything – we all have a lot of work. We should not step on each other's toes."*

Ergo, the discussion up until this point suggests that in order for community organisations to effectively provide services, they need to specialise. This translates to collaborating in order to either narrowing down the type of service being provided, or by clearly defining the geographic area of provisioning. Organisations may of course specialise in both aspects by focusing their services in an outlined locale. As a result, it seems that organisations need to come together in order to prevent disparaging competition and the blending of services.

At variance with this conception, one interviewee believes that organisations could better their service by embracing service blending instead of steering away from it and so enhance service delivery:

"The problems are shared: Blending of services is good. Organisations do a bit of everything. Organisations blend not because it is a hot topic or chasing buzzwords, but because it is a necessity, a reality... Overlapping is good because it ensures the continuity of a service. There is a holistic approach. There are different facets of buzzwords and there is a vicious circle in the community because to just focus one aspect will not solve the problem."

The idea of services overlapping could be ascribed to the fact that one issue encapsulates many different divisions. IR 12 gave the example of child trafficking, which – depending on the case – could simultaneously relate to family welfare, child prostitution, gender inequality, human rights issues, and substance abuse. This respondent noted that "the result is that organisations clash" and she feels that subdividing of responsibilities will not work either – even if a shared vision is identified. A different respondent felt that the reason why a common goal will not work is "because everybody works in a specific area and they will not interfere with each other".

A drive which had been posited regarding this is that organisations work independently in a designated field because they not only have their own niche and their own funders, but they also have their own set of objectives and goals. This drive, as we have seen in Chapter 1, is not only one of the eight key factors in determining if collaboration will take place, it also forms part of the four features that pre-empt the success of joint ventures if they do emerge. The following subsection is therefore doubly of importance in the discourse of Heidedal's inter-organisational collaborative scene.

3.3.5. Goals

Heidedal organisations underscored two facets that are of importance when identifying goals, namely in-house and collective target-setting. IR 13 highlighted the former which she associates with the composition of organisations. For her, internal goals determine the nature and extent of inter-organisational interaction which relates to organisations expanding their domain influence. This can be done by means of strategic alliance processes where organisations align activities, sponsor events or deliver services that are in pursuit of compatible goals (Bailey & Koney, 2000: 184). Simultaneously, Tsasis (2009: 18) reminds us that goals and values may result in disagreements which could affect the rapport between parties.

That being said, conflicts might arise due to the aforementioned resource rat race where organisations "chase buzzwords". The result is that organisations do not know what their goal is; they have not discerned a clear aim for themselves. There was an interviewee that elaborated on the matter:

"One of the basic things in organisation development is the setting of objectives and values. Then you build your organisation around that. If organisations have not mastered that, then you get organisations that do what is available in the field or market or what is available and not necessarily a specific vision."

Organisations have recommended, though, that if other organisations do not know which target area to focus on, they could identify those goals together by intertwining objectives. A respondent pondered on how aligned are the agendas of organisations, which generic objectives organisations share, and what the more specific things entail in which they specialise. For IR 14 this means identifying shared values while IR 4 believes that it should be taken further than that by doing their year planning together to avoid clashing: "This means that we support each other's projects as long as our objectives do not collide." The need for this sprouts from the fact that, as three interviewees stated respectively:

- Organisations do work together, but they work away from each other.
- There is no specific common goal in Heidedal. There is the same nebulous goal (i.e. promoting social development in the community), but organisations work divergently.
- Heidedal organisations (therefore) need a shared vision that everybody buys into and a champion to drive it.

Through these three statements we not only see the desire for community organisations to align their objectives separately, but the need for identifying a clear, well-defined goal towards which Heidedal can strive. Murdie (2014: 314) explains that this common aim can be within a single sector or could transcend issues or sectors. This yearning for an overarching goal was highlighted by a confounding 11 of the 17 (65%) respondents interviewed. One of these respondents refined what form this goal should take and the contemporary nature it ought to embrace:

> *"The strongest motivation is the one you feel the closest to you. You should not try to be there for everything and everybody... We cannot stay stagnant – we cannot use a vision of 20 years ago. We have to change as social circumstances change; it has to be a metamorphosis from where you come from and development."*

This up-to-date, critically-aware approach is key in strategic planning, but could prove to be challenging (McNamara, 2014) as it could lead to further power struggles between leadership and, as a result, more squabbling. Young and Smith (2013: 317) posit that goal-setting "can lead to conflict (i.e. disagreement) among organisational members required to select and prioritise goals whose performance outcomes are uncorrelated. This also stands true for Heidedal organisations, especially because Heidedal is a close-knit community where personalities and preconceptions come into play; there is a reluctance of organisations to gather for a specific purpose (e.g. collective goal-setting). One respondent stated "I do not go to meetings; I have better things to do"; another said that "you are lucky if I remember one thing from a meeting". As we have seen in this section so far and the subsections to follow, this hesitance to work with other organisations derives from negative past collaborations, perceptions regarding other organisations, and overall interpersonal relationships between members of different organisations and/or management.

3.3.6. Interpersonal Relationships

If we consider the interaction between people as a fundamental building block for collaboration, then interpersonal relationships are seated in the centre of it all. Thus, if collaboration is executed in a constructive manner, it could lead to a large array of other reciprocating networks. These linkages could offer inter- and intra-organisational advantages. Conoley and Conoley (2010: 77) explained that the former could include material and emotional support while the latter could refer to increased resilience, compassion and hopefulness within each organisation.

It is therefore a vastly powerful tool if applied correctly and even though all interview participants in the study gave reference to past collaborative successes, two thirds of these respondents reflected negatively on present day encounters. Organisations largely identified two components for this: The first revolves around preconceptions organisations have of one another; the second, the need for personal contact between organisations.

Considering the first component, Heidedal organisations replicated the Zambia and Yeoville cases by drawing attention to how interactions are teeming with prejudices, mistrust and pride. This is believed to be expressly found amongst organisations' management. IR 4 proclaimed that it "is always management; they do not understand each other... if you are in a high position, do not abuse it". This resonates with other respondents such as IR 8 that feel that "leaders feels threatened if someone comes from outside" while another pondered on this notion:

> *"I do not know why we are afraid of each other. I grew up in Heidedal... But maybe we should just sit down together because people get easily threatened. If we could just talk to each other then we would have won a long time ago. Get off your throne."*

This fear along with duplicity and what organisations call being "buddy-buddy" further polarises Heidedal groups. IR 4 explained that this "buddy-buddy" concept refers to when leaders only work with people within their personal circle of friends, clique or the same social status. The very same respondent admitted that she is sceptical about other organisations. This scepticism which reigns over the whole community is attributed to organisations perceiving other organisations as (1) lacklustre, (2) unreliable, and (3) paying "lip service".[58] While these 3 viewpoints indirectly impede collaboration, competition patently opposes it. IR 4 encapsulates all these different push factors:

[58] As identified by interview respondents 3, 7 and 8 respectively.

"People compete. It is a passion, a matter of the heart, but in the end they want to be rewarded; you should not have a hidden agenda and there should be no buddy-buddy either... It comes down to competition and for this reason organisations do not work together."

Thus, there is a strong sense of contestation; nonetheless, Heidedal organisations also cried out for camaraderie. One interview respondent stated that organisations "do not know about each other" while another felt that "everybody works on their own... There is not really interaction between organisations". The reason for this could be ascribed to the fact that at the core of interdependence is vulnerability. For Kloth (2004: 6) the more intimate the interaction is between organisations, the greater the potential vulnerability – which demands a greater need for trust.

This is a rather particular predicament for Heidedal considering that organisations, as we have seen throughout this section, strive toward autonomy and stability making leaders unwilling to engage. This is also in part due to leaders' lack of trust which take time to establish, but are easily shattered (McGuire, 2006: 37).

For this reason IR 13 and 15 highlighted that in-person network-building is the best way of cooperation where "you know who the face is behind the phone call".[59] IR 9 expands on the importance of select, personal engagements between organisations:

"You cannot work without others. You need a face – you need to work with a particular person... Successful collaboration is when I have a personal relotionship with other organisations; individuol contact is important where there is a network with other service providers in your areo. Yau quickly find out who is working or not working. Yau have to hondpick your organisatians. It must be smoll."

The manner and extent of this network-building depends of course on the cooperative mechanisms in place (or lack thereof). In broader terms, successful goal-orientated interactions between organisations are influenced by the degree of reliance both within and between organisations. This concept of reliance is not only moulded by the ground level engagements between organisations, it is also framed within the overarching collaborative context and the interplay of factors it encapsulates.

3.3.7. Contextual Factors

Bryson et al. (2006: 49 – 50) suggest that successful collaboration is determined by relationships built on shared accountability while having access to environmental resources. The latter can be somewhat hampered if, as we have seen under Subsection 3.3.4, service provision is by and large circumscribed to zones like in Heidedal. This, along with the social make-up of the community itself constitute the contextual factors in this community.

[59] Quote by IR 15.

Considering the former, in this section reference was made to the rising agglomeration of organisations in Heidedal. Koch (2011: 693) explains that this can thwart collaboration because when the number of organisations operating in a specific geographic area increases, "increased competition for funding and for contact with target groups becomes evident". This matter is of specific concern, especially seeing that service delivery in Heidedal takes place in specific zones: Thirteen (77%) of the interview respondents gave reference to these designated zones.

One these respondents explained that "everybody does what they have to do in their area" while another clarified that "these areas are demarcated; one organisation cannot encroach on another organisation's territory".

On one hand, this focuses service delivery and in principle it ensures that community members in need receive the attention they require. It is therefore of great importance that, as IR 9 highlighted, collaboration should start with "networking with other service providers in your area".[60] Though this allotment of service delivery can focus interventions, it can, on the other hand, curb it seeing that a social calamity does not abide to precincts.

The result is that organisations cannot effectively address challenges in the community which is intensified because of organisations' self-seeking notions. IR 8 explained that if organisations have found a niche, they would like to keep it for themselves. This correspondent called for an end to rigid service areas as "collaboration can only take place when we realise that things are not area or race bound".

This is especially true for a community that has become more and more diverse. IR 5 explained that the community has expanded a lot and had become more accessible due to several new developments (such as a shopping centre). She felt that this has contributed to diversity and that "diversity is good – it increases literacy, but also bad; there is more crime".

One correspondent expressed that consequently "people snap because there are so many problems to handle and as a result, people have built up defence mechanisms." These erected defence mechanisms curtail collaboration and, as a different respondent posited, it could be due to the influx in diversity; she believes that "it is more difficult to find common denominators in a heterogeneous community." Thus, it is perceived that the community is not bound together and as a result the sense of familiarity is waning. IR 1 bleakly expressed her woes:

[60] Note that once again a sense of person-to-person interaction is desired.

"The community is essentiolly dead; it is declining terribly. I have been here for a decade now and I see how things are falling apart in the streets. It is getting worse; there is no more pride in these people anymore... Organisations get despondent because others do not offer their collaboration."

Due to this perceived weakening in social ties collaboration is tainted as there is a deterioration in effective referrals, existing communication networks and the general use of available communication channels. In short, collaborative structures are stunted because of negative contextual factors transpiring in Heidedal.

3.3.8. Collaborative Structures

Following the discussion thus far, it should come as no surprise that 82% (14) of the interview respondents showed their discontent with the use of existing collaborative structures and/or posited suggestions on how to improve them. As we have seen in Subsection 3.2.2, communication platforms do exist. However, a core issue, also prevalent in the Peru and Zambia cases, is the lack of awareness or knowledge on how to use these structures. For one correspondent this is associated with incompetence:

"Many organisations are incompetent: They do not follow communication channels that exist. They are incompetent because they do not follow the processes or protocols because they do not know how to use it or they do not wont to. General awareness and communicotion is very poor for this reason."

Others felt that it is not only because of the ineptness of organisations, but just their general apathy towards collaborative engagements. IR 3 explained that "people that ought to be at the meetings, do not show up" and IR 7 showed an exemplary reaction of organisations towards others' lethargy:

"If somebody starts to frustrate me, then I will leave it. I give opportunities to others to get troining and organisations get invited, but if people do not come after a third time, then I would rather just leave it."

Part of this passivity could be attributed to organisations' general attitude towards collaboration; though, we should not forget that this could be attributed to a fear that is related to resources and legitimacy. IR 6 explained that their "drive is survival. The leader [of an organisation] has to decide if they want to support that cause or meeting if their own boat has holes."

The reason for this "drive for survival" can be attributed to the fact that the majority of organisations are small in size primarily occupied with direct service delivery (as presented in Subsection 3.2.1). Radermacher et al. (2011: 555) argue that organisations consequently do not have time to attend meetings and even less time to embark on collaborative ventures given that staff time is monopolised by addressing immediate community concerns.

Thus, the organisations' internal attributes – that is, their inability or unwillingness to collaborate – leave them disempowered. On these grounds there has been a cry for an external champion to step in because, as a

respondent pointed out, "every little organisation has things that it would like to do, but there is nobody to link people".[61] This responsibility could fall under the local community development worker's jurisdiction, but at the time when the study was conducted, there was no such person serving Heidedal. One respondent did indicate that there is the provincial liaison of the Department of Social Development; however, the competence of this officer is in question seeing that this respondent has only seen this liaison once.

As a result, organisations will have to draw strength, not from government officials nor from other organisations, but where possible from themselves despite the stated internal attributes. IR 14 pondered on this matter:

> *"Is my personality that of a connector or not? Not all leaders are connectors because leaders begin with something and then they need to get people on their team that can network. And what about his second-in-command? Does he also have passion like him? So, it is not just about one person; it is the whole organisation."*

Six other respondents also offered suggestions on how to improve collaborative structures such as the above. However, Tsasis (2009: 5) forewarns that even though there should be close nexuses between associates, a fine balance should nevertheless be struck between dependence and autonomy.

On the one side of the spectrum, there are respondents who posit that collaboration should be limited to the bare minimum. Bryson et al. (2006: 51) believe this is a matter of accountability seeing that "accountability is a particularly complex issue for collaborations because it is often not clear whom the collaboration is accountable to and for what". In the words of IR 13, organisations feel that if an organisation has a project, it is theirs meaning that they want to do their projects on their own. Other organisations could partake in a supporting (secondary) capacity and on a smaller scale. This respondent stated that if this is done, "liaison between organisations is not necessary; what could be done is to create liaisons in a specific area."

On the other side of the continuum, IR 12 felt that for collaboration they "need different organisations, different inputs" and therefore different collaborative structures. Moreover, as one respondent stated, "it might be more important to launch campaigns or big projects where everybody is involved and makes the community aware". In order to strike the balance, the most feasible approach to take – as one respondent suggested – is to keep it simple in terms of locality and function:

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[61] This is only one of the collaborative traits of effective leadership as explored in Chapter 2. Silvia & McGuire (2010: 270 – 271) also identified other hallmarks including "treating all network members as equal", "freely sharing information amongst network members", "creating trust amongst network members", and "encouraging support from and keeping the network in good standing".

"Focus your attention on working with local organisations... Organisations should host 3 or 4 big projects together. Collaboration for me is when each one does a part of the programme and gets joint feedback. It is getting other organisations on boord that is difficult to do."

As suggested here, organisations should build small, but effective collaborative structures in order to succeed. It should be noted though that in this section the use of the structures – and not the structures themselves – fell under scrutiny. By doing this we can use the suggestions posited here as keys to open the gateway to what collaborative structures in Heidedal ought to be like. In the study, this gateway took form as a focus group discussion. During the interview sessions a total of seven suggested structures emerged which in turn formed the foundation of the focus group interview. As to be expected, these proposals will be introduced alongside the findings and discussion of the focus group in the following section.[62]

3.4. The Way Forward: Collaborative Structures in Heidedal

3.4.1. Introducing the Collaborative Structures: Definitions and Sequencing

"We want to moke Heidedal a new place. We would like to take honds with each other ond not do things on our own."

This statement by IR 16 encapsulates the yearning of all Heidedal organisations: The desire to work together in some form. The question, however, is whether or not they have the drive to do so: "All suggestions could work, but each has their challenges and it is here where the willpower falls short of addressing the challenges... This will have to be approached holistically. One solution does not fit all, especially in a diverse community like Heidedal" (IR 6).

Before considering what a well-rounded approach might entail as proposed by this respondent, it is important to clarify what is meant with the different types of collaborative structures[63] identified by the interviewees which were discussed at the focus group session:

- **Converging of service/target audience of organisations**: A shared vision or goal identified by organisations in terms of what they envision for the community. Organisations take this then as a broad guideline to develop projects independently as they see fit.
- **Contact list**: A list of all organisations along with basic contact information (e.g. contact person, contact number, email address and physical address).

[62] Please refer again to the Appendix D that contains the agenda of the Focus Group.
[63] Note that the definitions put forth were delineated by the researcher based on the descriptions given by respondents from both the interview and focus group phases.

- **Database**: A collection of information (online) that not only includes all organisations' contact details, but also their structure (e.g. chain of command, staff information, financial and legal status) and purpose (incl. mission, vision, objectives, projects and year plan).
- **Forum:** A meeting where organisations gather to share ideas, views, experiences, information and knowledge.
- **Umbrella organisation**: A large association of organisations that coordinates the activities of its members. The task of this organisation might range from simply creating a shared identity amongst its member to providing resources, support and accountability.
- **Work group**: A forum serving as a task force to organise and conduct a community audit.
- **Community audit**: An extensive enumeration of a community's population tally. This by and large constitute community members' demographics; however, other socio-cultural and/or economic matters could also be considered. This includes data regarding social diversity, networks, institutions as well as the developmental organisations and structures that serve the community. Information could be gathered from the population directly and/or through previously conducted surveys/censuses.

These different collaborative structures (presented in Table 2) have been arranged by means of using the "7C" model while drawing from the classifications applied to the case studies of Chapter 2. The converging of service/target audience has been listed under "coexistence" based on the fact that it underscores the function of all the other collaborative structures. In addition, it has been placed under this stage considering that once this goal/vision has been identified, no further collaboration is expected or required.

Table 2: Collaborative structures classified according to the "7C" Stage Model of Concord

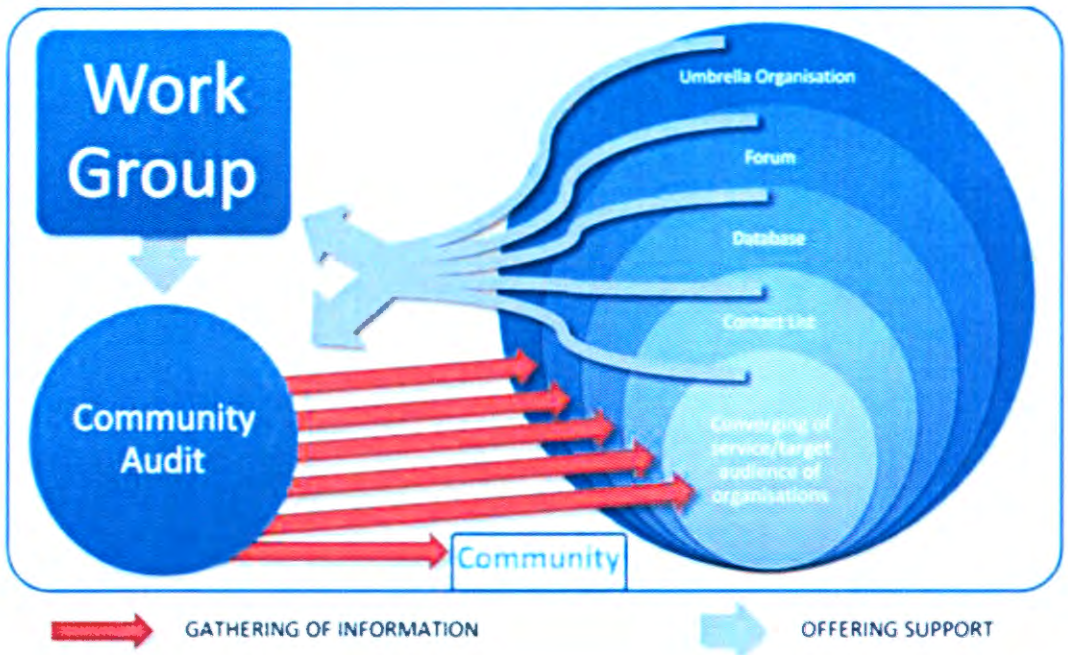
Collaborative Structure	Stage
Converging of service/target audience of organisations	Coexistence
Contact list/Database	Communication
Community audit	Cooperation
Forum/Work group	Coordination
	Coalition
Umbrella organisation	Collaboration
	Coadunation

Moreover, the umbrella organisation as well as the forum/work group has been classified under two different stages. These collaborative structures could be listed under either stage identified depending on its size, function, capacity, influence and/or regulatory power. That is, the greater the effect of these features, the

bigger the increment. For example, an umbrella organisation that simply aligns goals and coordinates projects would be classified under "collaboration". On the other hand, an umbrella organisation would be placed under the "coadunation" stage if it consists of a unified identity, controls resources and supervises decisions made by member organisations.

If one were to categorise the collaborative structures according to the aforementioned definitions above, a clear hierarchy would unfold as depicted in Figure 15. This reflects that the more dedicated the form of collaboration becomes, "the degree of time involvement, commitment, risk, interdependence, power and trust, as well as a willingness to share territory" will also increase (Radermacher et al., 2011: 551).

Figure 20: Sequencing of & interaction between suggested collaborative structures



Referring to Figure 15 again, take note that the community audit is listed separately as it could be considered a project or transient event which makes the work group also ephemeral. In addition, from the figure we can see that the community audit could amass information not only about the community, but also about to the (potential) collaborative structures. One focus group member wondered: "How do you get to a database or a forum or an umbrella organisation? A community audit will you get there." Thus, the community audit could be a catalyst to prompt the formation of one or more of the collaborative structures.

Equally, these structures could prompt the call for a community audit – and therefore the possible establishment of the work group – through providing the resources and support needed. The nature and extent of the community audit will depend on which collaborative structure(-s) is at play and the reserves to which it has access.

Furthermore, the convergence of the service/target audience in itself is not truly a structure, but rather a collaborative end related to efficiency and goal-setting. Nevertheless, as we have seen throughout this study, it forms the common ground on which all other collaborative structures are established. Subsequently, when focus group respondents considered this structure, they deemed it extraneous as it is underlying in all other structures.[64] It should come as no surprise that, when the focus group respondents voted on the most significant collaborative initiative, the converging of services/target audience fared the weakest (Figure 16).

Figure 21: Tally of the focus group´s vote regarding collaborative structures[65]

Referring back to Table 2, it exhibits the hierarchical nature of the selected collaborative structures: Just as the contact list encapsulates the essence of converging services, so does the database engross both the contact list and converging of services as they both are fundamental elements of a database. As a result the umbrella organisation is considered the most complex collaborative structure not only based on its definition as set out above, but also because it incorporates all the other collaborative structures in their entirety.

Building on the verdicts of the Peru case study, an umbrella organisation could, for example, be involved in converging the services of its member organisations: It has an extensive contact list that could be extended to a database which in turn is used to oversee forums. It was noted during the focus group session that, related to the different structures, the "one is a product of the other one and the qualities are therefore transferable".

For this reason the focus group remarked that many of the things under discussion "can be listed either as a strength or a weakness, an opportunity or a threat depending on how it has been executed". By comparing a forum with an umbrella organisation, this group also observed that collaborative structures do not have to develop in a linear manner:

> *"A forum is simply where we get together and I say: I am X and I do this. From this we can create a database... and we get to know each other because we do not do the some things... But if it comes down to*

[64] In part, this is why it does not form part of the discussion here; it is also essentially a goal-related factor which has been extensively discussed in all the chapters.

[65] During the focus group phase the 7 respondents had 10 ballots to vote for the collaborative structures they considered to be the most appealing.

function, an umbrella organisation sounds better when something should be done then. Because for me with the word 'organisation', it sounds like something should be done. We only organise things to get something done. An organisation for me is almost an unordered gathering with an awareness of what is happening in the environment and a place where we could exchange information – a talk shop.... There is a place for talk shops so that people could simply share things. I think as soon as we want to give it function – that you want to do something – then you need an umbrella organisation. The one is a conversation and the other is more action-orientated. The forum is the coming together and the umbrella is more organised if we talk about doing studies, undertaking audits, that kind of jazz."

Taking into consideration that the sequencing and definitions of collaborative structures have been elaborated on, it is appropriate to now turn to the discussion of these structures at this interval. Based on the latter quote, forums will be discussed first as it has been clearly distinguished from an umbrella organisation which will aptly be the last structure to be considered.

3.4.2. Discussion of Collaborative Structures under Examination

3.4.2.1. Forum

It was anticipated that the forum would mark low, based on negative opinions regarding forums as shown by 65% (11) of respondents during the interview phase. The overall consensus was that a forum should have purpose – which is currently lacking in existing forum. Thus, respondents felt that forums were unavailing which was emphasised by IR 3's rebuke:

"You could be doing something else with the hours that you would have been sitting there... You will have to have a delicate start and everybody will have to attend. It will take a lot to make it successful because are we really going to do what we are discussing?"

This resonates with IR 9's view that forums bear no fruits:

"The problem with a forum is that I feel used because people just want to pick my brain. At the next meeting there are new people, new introductions... it has no value. We spend too much time on introductions and talking about nothing. It needs to be more focused, energised, with purpose."

In the words of IR 5, if forums were to be resolute in nature, it "can promote collaboration and eliminate duplication". The concern with the duplication of services arose multiple times in the interview phase: IR 15 lamented that the "problem with organisations is that a lot of them rooted up and in the end they are working over each other... It would be better for organisations to work under one structure where everybody works together. Create a forum there where duplication occurs." On the same subject, IR 8 stated that "a communication network is necessary, even if it is just a form where they can talk together and through this develop the awareness that we need each other to minimise duplication and to focus groups".

This lighter approach to forums was also prevalent in the focus group where one respondent illuminated the value of this collaborative structure:

> *"A forum for me is the meeting place for different organisations to talk together and give input. A forum does not do anything – it is just a co-ordination of things, but a forum could be used to set a more effective goal. For example, it could get the funding and the resources through which other organisations could get their resources."*

While the latter presented the value of camaraderie, goal-setting and resource development, Focus Group Respondent (FGR) 1 reflected on its consolidative nature:

> *"A forum is important because it keeps all the things that people have been building together. Because if there is not a forum, everything falls apart. So, if there is a forum and we do programmes, the forum will coordinate the outreach so that one thing is not being done double. So that we know that if I do this thing, another person does not have to do it. It ties in with the sharpening of goals."*

Note that despite these positive qualities a forum might possess, it was not considered significant enough by the focus group for discussion as the general consensus was that it does not have the drive. The respondents did feel, however, that if such a forum had a specific objective or task to complete it could be of value. One objective that came to the fore was conducting a community audit under guidance of a task-driven forum which the respondents called a "work group".

3.4.2.2. Community Audit and Work Group

As with the forum, interview respondents questioned the value and purpose of a community audit. One respondent pondered on what difference it will "make if we know that there are 2000 children in a school. How will it help to solve the issue?"

In the face of this adversity, the community audit was defended in both the interview and focus group phases. During the interview phase it was indicated that the objective of an audit is to focus and empower the community organisations which, as a secondary effect, enhances collaboration between these organisations. IR 7 explained that the form this could take depends on the audit's outcome:

> *"If the goal is to create bait, for example, if you want to get access to ABCD then you have to meet the following XYZ... If the goal of the community audit is to arouse organisations to reflect on themselves, then it can also be done... A community audit can also aim to rationalise organisations and bring like-minded organisations together."*

This sense of converging, blending and specialisation of services was also echoed during the focus group:

"The moment we say: Look! Here are 10 people working on home-based care. I did not know that you also work in home-based care – let's talk to eoch other. What makes me different from you? Whot is my approach? Why do I do it this way? Then you can soy `some people just work on Sonneblom Street', these guys just work in Parish Avenue... Then it makes sense to soy let's get the commonalities together and let's see how these commonalities empower us now that we can talk about the some things."

From this statement we can see that a community audit could lead to an assortment of opportunities. Through deeper analysis the focus group respondents also identified other opportunities and other facets of such an audit all of which are presented in Table 3.

During the focus group session, respondents stated that an audit could greatly contribute to the acquisitioning of information and knowledge regarding organisations, networks, funders, structures, the area itself and the community members' demographics. As it has been illustrated in the preceding sections (particularly Subsection 3.2.2), amassing of knowledge on these matters are of fundamental importance for the organisations. One of the respondents expanded on this matter by distinguishing between knowledge and information as two distinct, but interrelated entities. Another respondent suggested that the difference between knowledge and information "is that information is there – you do not even have to be aware of it. But if you have knowledge, then you are aware of certain pieces of information."[66]

Table 3: Focus group's SWOT analysis of community audits

Strengths	Weaknesses
• Contributes to the **acquiring of knowledge** • **Eliminates duplication** • **Catalyses action** • Spurs **empowerment** • Creates **rapport** in the community	• Possible poor manner of data-capturing: - **Substandard** questionnaires - **Incompetence** of fieldworkers/data-capturers • Asking questions could be perceived as **prying**
Opportunities	**Threats**
• **Exchanging of information & expertise** • Establishment of **links** & **networks** • Gives **access to** available **resources**, such as: - **Funding** – especially multi-national donors - **Human resources** • **Brings organisations** with shared interests **together** • Promotes **converging** between organisations	• **Lack of time** • **Community fatigue** - Other audits might have similar work in the past • **Mistrusting the motives** behind collecting data • **Not full participation** from respondents

[66] For this reason it is listed in the table under two different categories (i.e. strengths and opportunities respectively).

This implies that knowledge is a form of contextualised and synthesised information through experience (Gupta, 2011: 235 – 236). Through garnering information/knowledge, the focus group demonstrated that a community audit enables organisations to move in a set direction as "it creates the option for action because you cannot do something if you do not have the information and knowledge". According to the Environmental Association for Universities and Colleges (2015: 3 – 4) and the State Government Victoria's Department of Environment and Primary Industries (2015), this type of action undertaken by a work group/community audit could have several functions, such as:

- developing an overall strategy for the community and agree priorities for project development and funding – which are clearly based on a sound understanding of the area;
- providing a benchmark against which progress can be measured and impact evaluated;
- building awareness, support, involvement, skills and capacity as part of a wider commitment to community involvement;
- justifying bids for funding, press for the allocation of more resources to the area or challenge the way services are delivered;
- gathering information about the diversity of a community and the potential stakeholders that may otherwise not be recorded;
- highlighting the gaps in understanding of a community;
- raising awareness, interest and building the capacity of members in the community; and
- shaping plans to measure progress as well as involve and empower community members.

Furthermore, a community audit could also lead to socio-relational offshoots such as rapport-building. FGR 2 supported Isett et al. (2011: i166) by explaining that trust is instilled when people are perceived as knowledgeable and competent. Another respondent elaborated on the matter as well:

> *"If you have the trust of people and it appears that you are well-organised, then people will trust you. We do not know what this translates to, but at least there is this perception that you are organised and therefore we could work with you."*

This notion of trust is based on the fact that, according to the focus group, the community audit ought to be executed by a work group that consists of organisations involved in the community. Consequently, they felt that it also links organisations through "personal contact between individuals that form the greater network. It brings people together." FGR 1 neatly encapsulated the function of the work group:

> *"A work group will bring all the organisations together that are working in Heidedal so that we can just know about each other so that we know exactly who is doing what and that we can eliminate duplication. And the focus is – for the first round – data collection."*

As we have seen in Table 3, this data collection process could also present certain drawbacks and threats. The Environmental Association for Universities and Colleges (2015: 3) believes that this process could be tarnished by negative past experiences for the community based on past efforts by other researches: Community members might feel that they have not been heard, that they have been pointing to what is wrong without avail or that reports solely focus on the problems in the community, but not on how to address them. This also resounded in the focus group:

> *"When you organise yourself in a community people often have negative questions [about an audit]...: What is your motivation behind it? If people are trying to find out what your motivation is, you have to convince them that your motivation is grounded. What is your agenda? And it will happen that your agenda and their agenda are not the same. So, it is a weakness internally and a threat for external relationships with the other community role-players."*

This adversity could be ascribed to the lack of time previous data collection ventures had for the undertaking. Naturally, focus group respondents questioned whether or not there would be enough time to do a comprehensive community audit. FGR 3 explained that the reason for this is "because we want people to trust us, but if we try to do it chop-chop then people do not trust you. If you do it for too long, then people do not trust you either."

This sense of trust is also associated with time allocations seeing that time is intertwined with the level of the competence of the work groups' representatives conducting the audit. FGR 4 felt that sufficient time should be assigned to not only conduct the audit skilfully, but also to develop a well-designed questionnaire:

> *"If you do not research your audit well and you do not formulate your questions well, if you do not describe your intentions clearly, then you will not have good results... I would rather spend two months on designing a good questionnaire because your dividend in your investment is weak if you have a weak questionnaire. The methodology behind capturing the information could be a threat depending on how it is executed and the manner in which your staff do it... So, the methodology is important and it could be a threat if you do not plan it properly, but it could also be a strength."*

As indicated by the State Government Victoria's Department of Environment and Primary Industries (2015), some of the most noteworthy questions to ask could be the most time intensive and/or expensive to research. They therefore also posit that consideration should be given to how information will be collected, managed and presented seeing that communities are complex entities. Managing such a lofty venture would require great logistical and networking skill from the work group accompanied by an extensive contact list and database of Heidedal organisations – both of which were absent when the study was conducted. For this reason it should come as no surprise that the focus group welcomed the notion of a contact list or database.

3.4.2.3. Contact List and Database

Due to this great interest in having a network of contacts from the outset, respondents from both the interview and focus group phases highlighted which characteristics such a tool ought to have. Over these two research phases, the following attributes were identified to constitute a good information tool. This resource must be:

- user-friendly, interactive and accessible;
- useful for those that will have access to it;
- comprehensive, but simplistic in design;
- well-managed and frequently updated; and
- sustainable, affordable and have financial backing.

The fact that it should be easily accessible, effortless to use and up-to-date made out the main focus of discourse during the interview phase. Eight of the interview respondents (i.e. 47%) gave reference to a contact list and/or database; one of them stated that the need for an efficient system is "because too few people have time to put two hours aside for meetings, but it would be so much easier to spend 5 minutes to read information online".

Moreover, 7 of the above-mentioned 8 interview respondents felt that an internet database would be significantly better seeing that, as IR 8 mentioned, organisations know that certain other organisations exist, but it is unclear what they do. For this reason IR 2 suggested that they need a database resource that answers the questions such as: "Who are they? How long have they been up and running? In which area? Which service do they provide?"

The interrelatedness of a contact list and database was also conveyed during the focus group session. FGR 5 explained that a "contact list is where your address, contact numbers and information are listed and that of other people that need to be seen and talked to – their details will have to be there about from where they operate, how they work." Another respondent clarified how this forms part of a database:

> *"Your contact list is an excerpt from your database – it is a condensed section of your database. In other words, that would be page one of your database. The database gets bigger and more compact depending on what you would like to have there. For example, what is your focus area, who are your funders, where do you operate, how big is your organisation, how is your management structure – those kind of things."*

Focus group respondents also identified organisations' objectives, mission and vision statements as essential information that should be included. Nonetheless, it should not be forgotten that the main advantage of such a database is that it promotes communication by linking organisations. By being better informed organisations, stakeholders and others interested in organisations can make better decisions (Margolin et al., 2015: 36). These decisions include which organisations to interact with and the types of projects to launch.

Table 4: Focus group's SWOT analysis of databases (and contact lists)

Strengths	Weaknesses
• Offers **complete & updated information** • **Elucidates confusions/misconceptions** • Stimulates **collaboration** • **Facilitates proper referrals** • Promotes continuous **communication** • Advances **familiarity** & **trust** between organisations	• **Cumbersome** if the database is **not user-friendly** • **Difficult to ensure** it will be **maintainable** • **Resource intensive** • It is a **complex system to manage** • Challenging to **incorporate** & **monitor** the constant **flow of new organisation**
Opportunities	**Threats**
• **Links between organisations** • **Promotes continuous communication** • Makes organisations **accessible** to each other, other stakeholders & funders • Give rises to more **informed decision-making**	• **Affordability & funding** • Users could be **inexperienced in using** such **systems** & might need training

Take note that in Table 4 "communication" and "linking" have been placed under two different entries. This is due to the fact that, as FGR 3 explained, "linking implies that we do not necessarily have to work together, but with communication you and I talk to each other – we work together." Organisations would be able to engage in this fashion seeing that, as FGR 6 explained, a database can demystify misconceptions organisations have of each other:

> *"I only know what the people do that I have worked with. Often people get confused what some people do and what the processes are that we should follow... We just want to start with a list of the different organisations. So if I have a problem, I can pick the phone and ask for some information. There is a need for it because the list we received from the Department of Social Development is outdated with no contact details."*

Considering that the official details are dated along with the fact that people frequently change positions within organisations (as indicated by IR 2), it would be the responsibility of the database administrator(-s) to ensure that the information is current. IR 9 shed light on the matter:

> *"Every organisation that is listed should be visited and checked if they do what they say they do. The strength is to identify other organisations that share the same vision. A weakness is that it is very resource intensive. Following up is also difficult as new organisations pop up constantly."*

The constant emerging of new organisations also jeopardises the database's ability to be comprehensive. From the above statement by IR 9 we can also see that sustainability is a hazard in that this tool would require

what Provan and Lemaire (2012: 64 – 645) call governance mechanisms. This includes financial, time and human resources to manage this interminable task of gathering and updating information about the organisations. Furthermore, if the system's interface in itself is not simplistic in design, it will not be able to do what it is set out to do: It should be an expedient information tool for its users. This stands particularly true if the ones using this database might lack the computing skills to use it. FGR 4 offers a digest of these matters:

> *"It will be a threat if it is not sustainable. You cannot just work on it every three years. There should be a central operator and people from organisations should be empowered to be able to enter their data. It should be managed and it should be alive... Finally, a database should be interactive. You will get a lot of pleasure from a database if people see what value it contributes. It should have value; it should not be a burden. It should add value to what it is doing. It is a communication tool."*

Notice that the discussion of this communication tool started with a summary of attributes needed to ensure that it is a valuable resource. The discussion then deliberated on different aspects that might be considered either an advantage or disadvantage depending on (1) if it is present or lacking, (2) how this attribute presents itself, and (3) the manner how it would be realised. This observation also stands true for the community audit as well as the umbrella organisation. The issue with the latter is that (as its name suggests) it is an all-encompassing structure that it could possibly incorporate both the benefits, but also the shortcomings of an audit or a database. Nevertheless, in essence a database (and audit) serves the same basic function as an umbrella organisation: It is an instrument for collaboration.

3.4.2.4. Umbrella Organisation

An umbrella organisation as a collaborative instrument was acknowledged by 59% (10) of the interview respondents. As with the database, these respondents as well as the focus group members outlined their perceived strengths, weaknesses and characteristics of this structure. The features that were recognised during these two research phases differs from the database to a fair extent in that an umbrella organisation should:

- be built on relationships;
- start small;
- be viable;
- ascend from the community itself;
- discern between the different organisations it enfolds;
- recognise that not all developmental organisations will necessarily form part of it; and
- extend to incorporate not only organisations, but also other social institutions.

For the interview respondents, the most significant part is that an umbrella organisation should have a firm grounding. This implies that the umbrella organisations should (1) start small to ensure stable growth and (2) have involvement from stakeholders. The latter, as stipulated by IR 6, refers to securing a mandate from funders and other enablers to warrant its viability and transferability. The former point denotes that, in the words of IR 8, "bridging to an umbrella organisation must be systematic". One interview respondent explained how this ought to be done:

> *"Start small (five organisations or so) and do your year plan together and then next year you include more organisations for the umbrella. This woy everybody speoks the same language and it is necessary to share knowledge."*

It was further noted that secure relationships should also be built with all stakeholders. IR 6 and 14 suggest that this should not only include organisations, but also consists of community leaders along with representatives from schools, tertiary education institutions, religious establishments, the government and private sector.[67] That being said, an interview respondent commented that "we cannot expect that the umbrella organisation will be for everybody". IR 4 and 8 posit that this could be due to the fact that self-regarding leaders might not see the value of an umbrella organisation, a lack of trust and/or parameters set forth by the umbrella organisation itself. The focus group in particular delineated what these parameters might entail:

Apart from differentiating between organisations and stakeholders, focus group respondents also felt that the organisations themselves should also be classified according to whether or not they are registered at the Department of Social Development. Similarly, as FGR 3 & 4 proposed, a distinction should be made between those organisations (and stakeholders) that are from the community and those that are active in Heidedal, but is not based in the community itself. FGR 4 proposed that one "could distinguish between Heidedal-based organisations and non-Heidedal-based organisations... This makes things a bit easier if you distinguish between these groupings because then you can also see the different weights: You can see how many people are inside Heidedal organisations themselves and how many have an existence outside of Heidedal, but provide a service here."

Though this classification of organisations could be good from a logistical perspective, it could also be detrimental for collaboration because, as we can see in Table 5, organisations might feel excluded, disregarded or even mistreated. Other obstacles for an umbrella organisation could also be related to resources and legitimacy: As one interview respondent indicated, it will be challenging to bring organisations together under an umbrella organisation considering that each organisation receives funding to do what is required (relating

[67] These community authorities will also be considered in Chapter 4 (Section 4.3).

to donor dependency as described in the Zambia case study). IR 3 also expressed her concern regarding autonomy seeing that "the umbrella organisation knows everything about us and we are part of it. This means that they can collect money on our behalf, but where is the money going? As a result organisations could lose their funding or interest."

Table 5: Focus group's SWOT analysis of umbrella organisations

Strengths	Weaknesses
• A **greater part of** the **community** can be **reached** • A **structured, guided form of collaboration** • **Creates jobs** • Forges a **unified identity** between organisations • Organisations gains **legitimacy**	• Due to its nature, it could lead to **excessive regulation/restriction** • **Organisations** that are not part of the umbrella organisation **could feel discounted, rejected** or **ignored** • As a bigger structure, it will **struggle to be flexible** • Could fall **prey to the power-hungry** • It might follow suit in Heidedal's history of having **poor organisational structures**
Opportunities	**Threats**
• Organisations gain better **representation & exposure** • Sounder **bargaining power** when engaging funders • **Access to** more/previously unattainable **resources** • Greater **prospects for joint projects** • **Development of leaders** in the community • **Statistics** can be generated	• **Distrusting outsiders** & **other organisations** • Keeping it **sustainable** • **Inability to spread the word effectively** about the umbrella organisation

Diminished interest could also be associated with the general apprehension amongst organisations (as highlighted in Subsection 3.3.6) along with the short-lived vivacity that often accompanies collaborative initiatives in this community. A focus group respondent revealed that in Heidedal "people kick off in a big way. It is like making a fire with tinder alone and it all goes up in flames. You are supposed to use the tinder to fuel the bigger branches".

This also accompanies another misgiving raised regarding the true motivation behind an umbrella organisation. One focus group member imparted that "many other organisations have fallen because they

became a tool for something different. The other side is: What is your agenda? If you only join to have a backdoor to promote yourself in some way, then the whole organisation sinks with you."

These fears and uncertainties could most definitely be raised by organisations' leaders due to the overall sense of mistrust that exist between organisations. In fact, interview respondents questioned who the leader of an umbrella organisation in Heidedal would be seeing that, as IR 3 explained, this "person will have to be outstanding because everybody else will think that they could be better". As a result IR 8 suggested the following:

> *"The leader will have to be an impartial person from outside because we do not trust any of the current leaders of organisations to lead people... It will be a great task to convince the leaders to work with others; it might be possible if there is someone from outside that can convince them. A person has to come from outside to build the skills and then build a relationship this way. The biggest problem will be to get the head-figure in the organisation."*

The reason for external intervention is (as mentioned in Subsection 3.2.2) because of the domestic power disputes and the qualms that accompanies it. Hence FGR 2's view that "power should not be associated with [an umbrella organisation] – it is not a power struggle. There should be relationships; there should not be control." However, an umbrella organisation being a structure by definition consists of boundaries and for this reason, in the words of FGR 3, "it will be hard to keep people in the organisation without being prescriptive".

Based on this foreboding nature that is dominant in the community, FGR 4 suggested that in order for a Heidedal umbrella organisation to work, it will have the great task of putting organisations at ease:

> *"Each organisation that declares themselves as willing to partake in such an umbrella organisation will find its own niche where they feel comfortable with, whom they would like to work with, with whom they would like to share information, resources or networks. Nobody should feel forced and the more comfortable – the more flexible – that environment is, the better it will be. We should stay away from words like `regulate'. Let people participate spontaneously. In the end the ones that see the value of this will stay and those who feel it is a waste of time let them be. Work with those that want to and invest positive energy there where it matters."*

Thus, in accordance with Provan and Huang (2012: 373), the umbrella organisation should "be flexible and resilient, enhancing the capacity of members to deliver needed services to clients while strengthening the performance of the network as a whole". This can be done by kindling the positive energy mentioned. By doing so organisations will be able to benefit from the other advantages an umbrella organisation might have, such as securing resources.

IR 6 explained that an umbrella organisation can "look for gaps and see how funds and organisations can get involved. Alternatively, it can look for organisations that are already addressing the matter and then support them." Consequently, from the interview sessions it is evident that the umbrella organisation could address matters internally, that is, not only within the community but also between the organisations it represents and ventures they are pursuing.

The focus group, on the other hand, considered how an umbrella organisation could contribute to external representation. Using funding as an example once again, it was mentioned in the focus group session that donors "will fund a well-oiled machine rather than a struggling individual". FGR 4 elaborated on the matter in detail:

> *"How many organisations are geared and have the inner-workings to compile a proper project proposal? Should we not propose a Heidedal project as a whole with the support from everybody that could profit from it? This is where collaboration could play a role so that not 10 guys go to funders, but one umbrella organisation and tell them this is our case and this is the field we cover. Then it will make a bigger impact than 10 little ones that are barking at each other."*

Thus, proposals could be executed with more success because joint ventures give organisations greater legitimacy now that Heidedal organisations have a united identity. One focus group member explained that the sense of identity is the one thing that sets an umbrella organisation apart from other collaborative structures. The respondent explained that "it gives you an identity as soon as you are organised and if you have that then you pop up on other people's databases. Then you are not the collector of data, but data for other people of where they can get you." This data advancement, as one respondent indicated, also contributes to producing a wealth of research:

> *"The nice thing is that as soon as you have [an umbrella organisation], then you can start doing research because it is being monitored the whole time and statistics are being kept... Non-profit organisations are used to statistics because to exist you have to submit statistics."*[68]

Through the research done, reports could be compiled to enhance collaboration, hone service delivery and ultimately empower people. It is peculiar to note then that, as we have seen earlier, that leadership should come from elsewhere, but the remainder of the individuals involved should be Heidedallers. Once again, as FGR 5 explains, it is a matter of trust, autonomy and emancipation:

> *"Will it be people from Heidedal – not people from outside? This is where trust comes in. There were instances like that in the past, but I feel tarnished. Because why do they not empower the people that live*

[68] Note how this feature of an umbrella organisation compromises aspects of a community audit which exemplify the interrelatedness between the different types of collaborative structures.

in Heidedal with the knowledge to manage it? They will come and do it voluntarily, but we are already doing the work here. Empower us that are already here inside Heidedal to take things further."

One way an umbrella organisation could empower Heidedallers is that it gives the opportunity to create jobs. FGR 2 illustrated that "if you start an umbrella organisation, you can establish job creation through collaboration. I see people in the umbrella organisation, whereas I see data in the database. I see management. I see a group of people that have taken hands as a permanent structure."

Even though an umbrella organisation could lead to people taking hands, job creation and other advantages as discussed, focus group members heeded against the pitfalls identified based on past experiences and relationships. One focus group member remarked that "things like these have been set up many times before in the past and then it dies slowly because nobody has the time or energy or focus to invest... So, it can only be a bonus if one can generate the resources to put a secretariat in place, but it is normally quite a challenge. Resources will be a strength, opportunity, threat and weakness."

This last statement quite rightly shows how (with reference to Table 5) many other SWOT components (e.g. resources, legitimacy or regulation) could be placed as a strength, opportunity, threat or weakness depending on how it is applied, the contextual factors at play and timing (Jurevicius, 2013). This fact also applies to the other SWOT analyses which reflects the interconnected nature of the collaborative structures discussed. As mentioned at the beginning of this subsection, these structures are considered building blocks for one another in that the database contains elements of the community audit, whereas the umbrella organisation include elements of the database and therefore also of the community audit as well.[69]

Though it would appear that an umbrella organisation is deemed the apex of structured collaboration, the viability of such a formation for the Heidedal community is shrouded in doubt. It would appear, then, that this subsection has come full circle in that it reflects the sequencing (as identified in Subsection 3.4.1) with the umbrella organisation considered the pinnacle of collaborative structures while uncertainty still prevail. Hence, certain features of the sequencing of these structures should be re-examined in light of the findings of this study. This will be done in the following segment along with a brief analysis of a proposed strategy by the respondents flowing from this discussion.

3.4.3. Succession, Forum Revisited and Proposed Strategy

At the beginning of this section it was indicated that respondents discounted converging organisations to a common goal or vision as they felt it forms the undercurrent of all collaborative dealings. Initially, respondents expressed a similar negating attitude towards a forum (as shown in Subsection 3.4.2.1). The reason for this

[69] Appendix H shows how the different SWOT elements transcend from one collaborative structure to another based on the sequencing/hierarchy identified.

could be because organisations do not see a forum as a goal in itself, but rather a means to an end. That is, it could rather be a commission to foster other collaborative structures such as a work group or umbrella organisation.

This notion comes to the fore when striking the difference between a forum and an umbrella organisation. FGR 3 illustrated that a forum should be considered as a bud that develops into an umbrella organisation – or other collaborative structures – seeing that a "forum is where not all the key-players are necessarily represented. Three, four, five or ten people depending on what the people feel are the representatives and the organisers of it. While an umbrella organisation... is where all the organisations have representation in the umbrella organisation."

Thus, the differentiation between these two structures is not only based on function, but also on the composition of the collaborative structure and its respective stage (as identified in Table 2); it also evokes the notion of converging services/the target audience. A focus group respondent animatedly emphasised these facets:

> *"If you are attempting to bring people together – be it with a forum or an umbrella organisation – you have to ask yourself: What is it that I would like to achieve with it? And let's say we take it a step further and we agree that we want a forum: What will the forum do for us that we cannot do on our own? Will the forum open doors for me? Will it channel resources for me? Will it stay a "talk shop"? Will the forum warrant decision-making? Will the forum engage with other forums on equal footing? We have to decide what we want to achieve with it before we try to cast it into a certain shape. And if I am not sure what it is that I want to achieve, then it will be difficult for people to dedicate another hour every month to get together in the interest of the forum... Furthermore, you have to ask yourself: Do we have enough knowledge about what is happening in Heidedal in order to make assumptions regarding duplication and if there really is overlapping. Before I can get to a forum, I will have to empower myself with data."*

In response, the focus group considered the most feasible plan would be to start a forum in order to conduct a study/community audit; through this study it can be established how many organisations are needed to start an umbrella organisation. Note that once again the forum is identified as the platform from which other structures/ventures sprout.

Subsequently, the question needed to be asked is: Why not support an existing assembly? IR 12 reflected on this question by stating that "maybe it is better to strengthen something that already exists rather than starting something new because energy is high for something new, but it flops soon after." Ergo, consideration has to be given to already existing committees and forums active in the community (as revealed in Subsection 3.2.2).

During the study, it was particularly the Social Work Service Forum that was considered as worthy to develop by respondents. This is due to the fact that it is considered even-handed in that it welcomes any organisation that provide a social service to the community. In both the interview and focus group phases respondents reflected positively on joining this specific forum as they wish to minimise duplication. This is evident in that, as mentioned previously, organisations do not have the resources to attend another taxing gathering that might result in the reiteration of the same matters raised in other meetings. They did not want to replicate an existing structure either: One focus group respondent requested that "if there is a vehicle – like the Social Work Service Forum – that is making an effort, then we should not place another one next to it. Use the existing things."

Thus, at the end of the study it would seem that Heidedal organisations are back where they began in the starting blocks: As it was primed in Subsection 3.4.1, a form of disinclination to take pervasive action still exists. The aspiration would be that organisation respondents acquired a sense of awareness both of other organisations as well as their role in developing the community's well-being. In the very least a greater deal of contact was instilled which in itself, along with awareness, is a powerful foundation on which collaboration can be built.

3.5. Conclusion

In this chapter it was shown that contact and awareness are two collaboration principles currently lacking in Heidedal. Both of these components relate to the first two stages of the "7C" model[70] and in this study the other stages were also prevalent – if not in past or present endeavours, then as envisioned possibilities.[71] The nature of these undertakings, that is, if they are performed formally or informally, depends on the nature of these pursuits themselves.

Table 6 abridges these findings and from what is illustrated, it is evident that the collaborative options envisaged for the future tend to be formal, complex structures that currently do not exist within the social landscape. That is, apart from one (i.e. the contact database) form part of the upper tiers of the "7C" model. What is peculiar is that throughout this discussion, the Heidedal case was in accordance with many aspects of the case studies' presented in Chapter 2 (especially related to the motivating factors behind collaboration). However, even with the non-collaboration case (i.e. Peru) well-established, formal collaborative structures were in place. In Heidedal it appears that the prospect of exploring these options is arduous seeing that the current endeavours that do exist are knotted with constrictions and faults.

[70] I.e. awareness relates to "coexistence" and contact with "communication".
[71] Which were discussed under Subsections 3.2 – 3.4.

Table 6: Summary of Collaboration Models in Heidedal[72]

LEGEND	Example type		Manner		
KEYWORD	Actual endeavour	Envisioned possibility	Informal	Informal/ Formal	Formal
COLOUR CODE					
DEFINITION	A form of collaboration that has already been noted in the community.	A form of collaboration that has been identified by respondents as a future pursuit that could be embarked on.	Collaboration occurs informally.	Collaboration occurs either informally, formally or both.	Collaboration occurs formally.

STAGE	EXAMPLE	EXAMPLE TYPE	MANNER
Coexistence	**Awareness of other organisations**	Actual endeavour	Informal
	Friendship	Actual endeavour	Informal
	Vague converging of service/target audience	Actual endeavour	Informal
Communication	**(Dated) contact list**	Actual endeavour	Informal/Formal
	Contact database	Envisioned possibility	Formal
Cooperation	**Referrals**	Actual endeavour	Informal/Formal
	Redirecting cases	Actual endeavour	Informal/Formal
	Once-off events[73]	Actual endeavour	Formal
	Short-term projects[74]	Actual endeavour	Formal
Coordination	**Platforms**[75]	Actual endeavour	Formal
	Programmes[76]	Actual endeavour	Formal
	Harmonised converging of service/target audience	Envisioned possibility	Formal
	Cursory community audit	Envisioned possibility	Formal
Coalition	**Work group**	Envisioned possibility	Formal
Collaboration	**Extensive community audit**	Envisioned possibility	Formal
Coadunation	**Umbrella organisation**	Envisioned possibility	Formal

[72] Please note that the table is not meant to be exhaustive in terms of which collaborative activities are prevalent in the community, but rather a synopsis of what has been discussed in this chapter in order to elevate the different components of the case study.

[73] E.g. Golden Games, *Gom-maak-jou-dom*, and *KeMoja*.

[74] E.g. Child Protection Week, the Drop-Out Project, I Dare You to Choose, Heidedaller of the Year, Friend of Heidedal of the Year, and Heidedal Institution of the Year.

[75] E.g. the Social Work Service Forum, Childcare Forum, Police Forum, and Local Drug Action Committee.

[76] E.g. the elderly reading programme, Pretty Things for Little Things, Life Solutions, the dagga prevention programme, and the reading programme.

As it has been indicated in this study, some of these obstacles are related to the fact that more than 70% of survey respondents expressed that they feel organisations do not offer collaboration. In addition, half of survey respondents revealed that they do not participate in joint ventures themselves either. That is despite the fact that the majority of organisations have been active in the community for 8 years or more and three-quarters of these organisations are based in the heart of the community.

One of the reasons posited by respondents for the lack of collaboration was attributed to the deterioration of social ties over the years. Respondents denoted this to the fact that organisations (1) lack steadfast drive to complete projects, (2) exhibit an attitude of supremacy over others, (3) show a derisory awareness of/apathy towards other organisations, and/or (4) approach matters with distrust.

These factors could be coupled with inter-organisational competition – particularly related to safeguarding resources that are difficult to procure: The majority of Heidedal organisations solely relies on private/individual donors and/or the government for funding. As a result organisations could be obligated to comply with directives as set out by these benefactors. In turn, this could lead to non-collaboration seeing that organisations wish to prove their legitimacy and authority as well as choosing to expand services on their own. Through this obstinacy, lines of inter-organisational communication are diminished which in time leads to the duplication of services. This replication is exacerbated by the burgeoning of organisations. These new organisations are constantly shifting their service-delivery goals in order to secure resources for subsistence.

Expectedly, there has been an outcry for inter-organisational collaboration.[77] The main reasons for promoting collaboration is on the grounds that it (1) promotes goodwill,[78] (2) begets knowledge,[79] and (3) fosters shared goals.[80] Throughout this study special emphasis was also placed on longer term initiatives which evokes the matter of collaborative structures identified in the beginning of this subsection:

The most desired collaborative structures that were identified were the umbrella organisation, the community audit/work group, the forum and the contact list/database. Each of these structures pose their own challenges, but it is the umbrella organisation that possesses the most challenges as it is deemed the definitive collaborative ideal for the respondents and it is considered to be the most complex structure. As a result, it is the one that will have to be devised in the most prudent manner by starting small and developing a strong leadership from the onset.

[77] As indicated by 85% of survey respondents
[78] In the form of "taking hands" and, therefore, surmounting mistrust.
[79] This process could lead to a source for creating mutual understanding and camaraderie.
[80] As stated it numerous times in this chapter, converging of services or collective goal-setting is underlying in any collaborative venture as it steers the engagement in specific direction in order to attain an identified target.

This could be done by performing a community audit – under the guidance of a work group – that aims to stimulate awareness and knowledge which in turn empower organisations. Alternatively, a frequently updated database or extensive contact list could be implemented as it is the easiest collaborative tool to assemble. However, strengthening an already existing forum would require no start-up resources as it is an already functioning structure.

Further suggestions in this regard will be made in the next and final chapter. Here the most viable form of collaboration will be proposed while exploring observations for the study overall. Attention will also be given to the limitations of the case study and recommendations for future inquiries. Thus, the concluding chapter will consider all things examined in its foregoing chapters ranging from the research methodology, the literature study as well as the discussion of the research findings.

Chapter Four: Observations, Recommendations and Conclusions

4.1. Introduction and Summary

This chapter will review and reiterate the research by reviewing the main methods used and then discuss their implications for the research as well as for future inquiries. In order to do so, note that the purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which social developmental organisations in Heidedal share activities to improve service-delivery (Koch, 2011: 692). Fulfilling that purpose required the development of a bilateral tool in part consisting of a framework that groups the different motivators behind (successful) collaboration. This was accompanied by the "7C" stage model which outlines inter-organisational collaborative structures.[81]

Before this tool was used in the Heidedal case, it had been applied to varying, existent case studies to familiarise the reader with the tool itself. It also sets a backdrop for the Heidedal study by exemplifying inter-organisational collaboration in the literature. In truth, the discursive nature of the theoretical literature, accompanied by the absence of grounded collaborative case work (especially in Africa) gave rise to the Heidedal case in the first place.

Based on this lack, it was necessary to establish the conditions of collaboration between organisations in Heidedal along with the factors that instituted it. These preliminary indicators were ascertained by employing the face-to-face survey while a semi-structured interview was used to deepen the discussion. The interviews also explored whether a need for collaboration exists and if so, which structures could house it. This led to the focus group session where the identified structures were discussed in detail.

Notice at this juncture that these three phases encapsulated the determined research objectives, but only because they made use of the bilateral research tool developed initially. This is not to say that this tool, nor the research study itself is faultless. In fact, the following subsection will highlight the study's most relevant constraints.

4.2. Limitations

The limitations were in part inherent due to the nature of the study while other limitations came to the fore as the study progressed. The latter refers to contextual factors that emerged as the research was conducted and should be noted when future research ventures are undertaken in Heidedal. The former, on the other

[81] Please refer to Chapter 1 (Section 1.3) and Appendix A.

hand, is attributed to the methodology of the study itself, which chiefly pertains to affairs of generalisability and bias (as introduced in Chapter 1, Section 1.8):

Regarding the composition of the study, given that it focused on case-based research, it has been shown (6 & Bellamy, 2012: 105, 108; Mouton, 2009: 150) that a large number of cases/volumes of data cannot be analysed with this type of research which might produce particularistic deductions. It is, therefore, difficult to generalise the results to other contexts (e.g. in other instances of inter-organisational collaboration) or establish a common theory (Colorado State University, 2015).

This is despite the fact that comparisons were drawn and inferences made with the help of other case studies. The reader should note though that, as ascertained in Chapter 1 (Section 1.5) and supported by Nieuwenhuis (2007: 76), the scope of this exploratory study is narrowed down to the Heidedal community and it wished to determine collaboration in its current form; thus, the research was intended to gain greater insight and understanding of the dynamics of this specific situation/community.

That being said, the extent to which the research can contribute to theory building is limited since the case has been presented as an idiosyncratic and mutually exclusive example of collaboration in relation to other cases (6 & Bellamy, 2012: 105). Nevertheless, the new insights offered in Chapter 3 contribute to the limited case work available on the subject while also offering a new tool for interpreting such collaborative cases. The research therefore advances already established theories and findings regarding collaboration.[82]

For this study Bless et al. (2013: 166) introduces a further restriction to generalisability related to the fact that a non-probability sampling method was used: This method could bring into question how representative the sample is of the population as a whole (i.e. all Heidedal organisations). For this reason a sampling frame consisting of an extensive list of known and/or registered organisations which were active in the rather sampling pool/small community of Heidedal was used to curtail this limitation.

Furthermore, considering the matter of prevalence bias, this subject is chiefly seated within the data collection process. Due to the mainly qualitative nature of the study, in all three data collection instances there was a window of interviewer partiality. This could have been in terms of moral beliefs and opinions, observations, labelling of the respondent as well as the sense of rapport between the respondent and researcher (Rubin & Rubin, 2005: 82 – 84; Corbin & Strauss, 2014: 46 – 48).

Another facilitation bias might have existed as interviewees themselves exhibited problematic behaviour and so skewed the results by, for example, giving socially desirable answers, attempting to flatter the interviewer,

[82] As postulated in Chapter 1 and explored further in Chapter 2.

being concerned about the impression they are making and searching for the interviewer's approval (Karnieli-Miller, Strier & Pessach, 2009: 282 – 284).

Subsequently, in order to circumvent these bias-related limitations, the interviewer took great care in preparing before and during the different data collection stages. This was done by using a strong framework for the interviews which stipulated possible scenarios/retorts and how to manage such encounters drawing from several sources: As advised by Remenyi's (2012: 81 – 82), this framework was developed by reviewing the relevant literature[83] as well as executing a thorough examination of the data as they are presented. Through this data analysis, certain features became apparent that are relevant for future studies – some associated with collaboration as a research topic while others refer to the Heidedal community.

4.3. Recommendations

Concerning inter-organisational collaboration as a whole, a specific bilateral tool (as mentioned earlier) had been developed based on the agglomeration of literature available on the topic. However, after the field results were systematically labelled[84] by using this instrument, it has become apparent that subsets exist for the inter-organisational factors. Note that, even though the finer divisions of each factor are loosely described in the literature (as demonstrated in Chapter 2), it has not been presented in an abridged manner (as exhibited in Appendix I). Future researchers could use these subsets in order to construct a more honed study with more focused outcomes established by this finding. Furthermore, future research could also strive to:

- extend the study over a larger geographical area (e.g. the whole Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality) and/or a specific service area (e.g. health or child care),
- obtain a larger/complete sample of the community in order to ensure that the results represent the community's organisations indubitably; and/or
- incorporate contextual factors that are now (after this study) known.

The aforementioned contextual factors (as introduced in Chapter 3, Subsection 3.3.7) include, for example, the government and higher education's involvement (or lack thereof) in social development matters. Admittedly, their prevalence of the state's involvement was introduced in Chapter 1 and later briefly mentioned with the other contextual factors in Chapter 2. Notwithstanding, the focus of the research dictated an emphasis on primarily the Heidedal organisations and their experiences.

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[83] Sources used to manage these challenges during the different data collection stages include (but are not limited to): Rubin & Rubin (2005); Gill et al. (2008); Gilbert (2008); Yin (2009); Swanborn (2010); Tashakkori & Teddlie (2010); Denzin & Lincoln (2011); Remenyi (2012); Galletta (2013); and Savin-Baden & Major (2013).

[84] As set out through the data analysis methods in the first chapter (Section 1.9).

In a similar fashion, other public institutions to be considered include the library, schools and health clinics. These institutions in particular were prominent in the interview and focus group discussions: Their significance can be contributed to the fact that 43% of the services rendered by the Heidedal organisations are related to health and child care (as presented in Chapter 3, Subsection 3.2.1). In the study these services were referenced to be frequently provided in conjunction with church volunteers. Thus, many of the community's clergymen together with other community leaders are influential in community matters.

As a result, it is advisable for future research endeavours to incorporate these leaders' assessment of inter-organisational collaboration in the community. However, the study at hand was delineated by its research objectives to focus particularly on the organisations. Conclusively, this lead to the portrayal of inter-organisational collaboration in the social development sector embodied as a case study in Heidedal.

4.4. Conclusion

Gorod et al. (2015: 8) posit that case studies provide a means for highlighting practical principles in order to solve emergent issues while they inform burgeoning theories in literature. By doing so they not only provide detailed information about the topic and highlight the complexity of a situation, they also raise reflective questions on the subject matter. In retrospect, it appears that these elements were present in the 4 case studies exhibited in Chapter 2.

The study also aspired to illustrate these features by condensing the different aspects related to inter-organisational collaboration and contextualising it in the multifaceted Heidedal environment. By doing so it became clear that Heidedal organisations have the need to "take hands", but like many other organisations (as discovered through the other case studies), they lack the expertise to collaborate successfully.

As a result, a good starting point would be to focus on more informal engagements with other organisations. An easily available structure to use is the contact list seeing that it was ranked as one of the most worthwhile options to pursue (as discovered in Chapter 3, Subsection 3.4.2). Additional advantages include that a contact list – as does informal interaction at large – neither requires advanced networking skill sets, nor strong commitments.

This can simultaneously be done while participating in already existing collaborative structures. From Isett et al.'s (2011: i165) perspective, organisations could use these non-binding engagements and existing structures to advance towards more formal, complex and dedicated structures (such as the envisioned umbrella organisation). Approaching collaboration in such a prudent manner will ensure that a steady progression is sure to follow based on trust and understanding – two key factors in any collaborative venture. This is not to

say that the convolutions of these two components, as with all the other cited factors, should by any means be understated.

The Heidedal case has validated the interconnectedness between the collaboration factors; it has shown, for instance, how the goal to ensure resource stability can instigate power struggles and ultimately affect interpersonal relationships. Another example is how some organisations offer training for others to develop their skill sets (i.e. knowledge) in order to prove their service delivery (efficiency) because they share the same goals.

Ultimately, Heidedal has revealed that the dynamics constituting inter-organisational collaboration is no simple thing. It is fundamentally a human engagement. This means it emulates other forms of human interaction and all the intricacies it entails – ranging from hierarchical structures and resource-acquisitions to perceptions, beliefs and drive.

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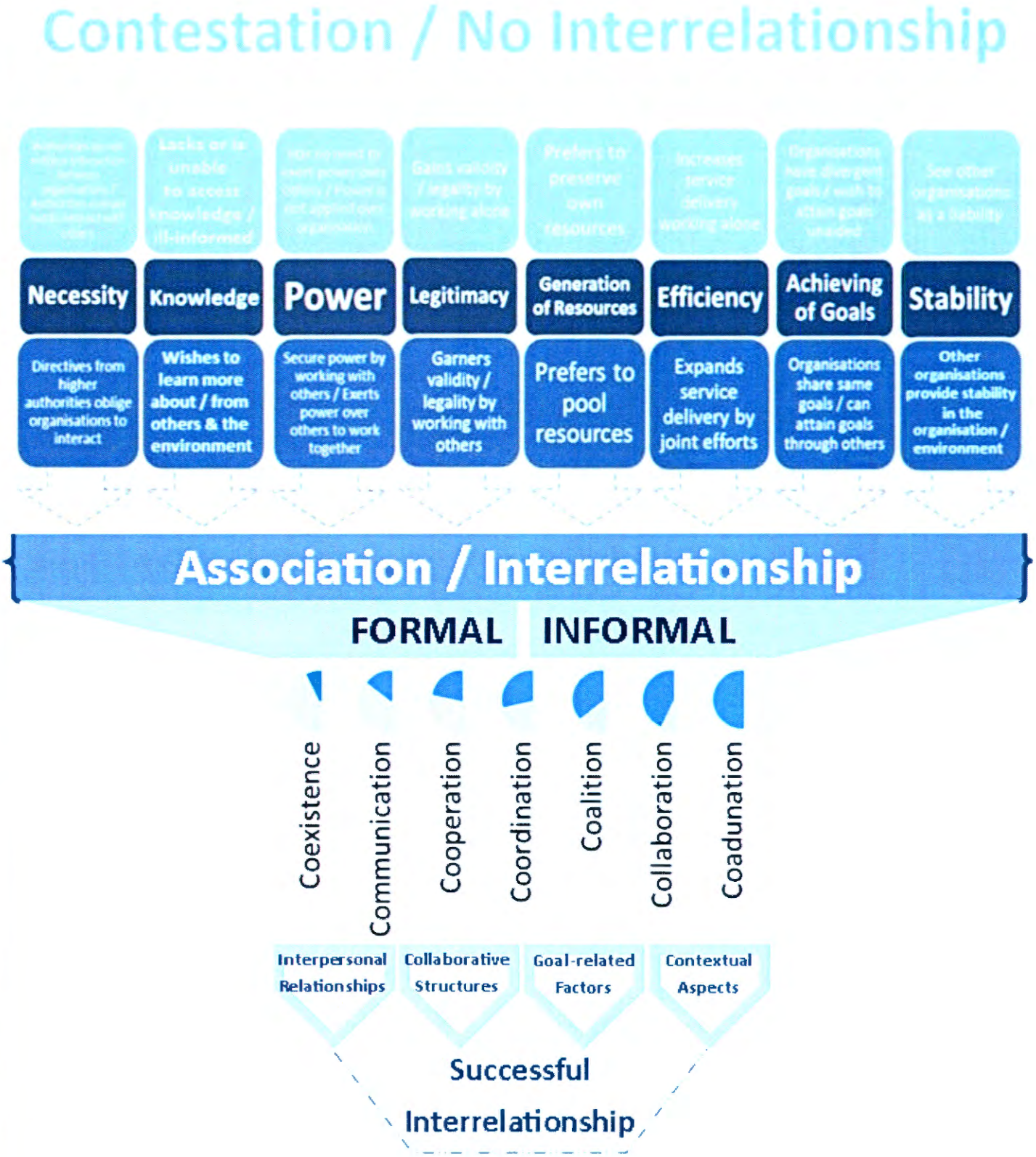
Appendix A: Conceptual Framework of Collaboration as Construct



Appendix B: Survey Questionnaire

Heidedal Inter-Organisational Collaboration Survey

PLEASE CHECK ONLY **ONE RESPONSE** PER QUESTION EXCEPT IF IT **HAS BEEN INDICATED OTHERWISE**

1. Please complete the following:

Name of organisation _____

Your name _____

Your position in the organisation _____

Contact number _____

Address _____

Email address _____

2. How would you classify your organisation? *(Multiple options may be selected)*

☐ Community-based (CBO) ☐ Faith-based (FBO) ☐ Non-governmental (NGO) ☐ Non-profit (NPO) ☐ Other (please specify) _____

3. What is the main area of your organisation's services?

◯ Child / orphan care ◯ Culture, arts & recreation ◯ Education & research ◯ Gender equality / woman empowerment ◯ Health care (including combating HIV / AIDS) ◯ Human rights, social justice and advocacy ◯ Religion ◯ Skills development / training

◯ Other (please specify)

4. How many years have your organisation been in operation?

◯ 0 – 3 ◯ 4 – 7 ◯ 8 – 12 ◯ 13 – 17 ◯ Longer

5. How many staff members are currently working at your organisation?

◯ 1 ◯ 2 – 3 ◯ 4 – 6 ◯ 7 – 10 ◯ 11 – 15 ◯ 16 – 20 ◯ 21 – 25 ◯ 26+

6. What are the main sources of your organisation's finances? *(Multiple options may be selected)*

☐ Business corporations (including corporate social responsibility initiatives)

☐ The organisation generates its own funding

☐ Entrepreneurial endeavours

☐ Fundraisers and collections

☐ Other (please specify)

_____

☐ Large / umbrella organisations – national or international (e.g. United Nations, World Health

☐ Private / individual donors

☐ Government

☐ Trust funds

7. What is your approximate budget per year for the **ENTIRE ORGANISATION**?

◯ Under R 50 000 ◯ R 50 001 – R 100 000 ◯ R100 001 – R 500 000 ◯ R 500 001 – R 1 000 000 ◯ 1 – 3 million rand ◯ 3 – 5 million rand ◯ 5 – 10 million rand ◯ More than 10 million rand

8. What is your approximate budget per year for PROJECTS IN HEIDEDAL specifically?

◯ Under R 50 000 ◯ R 50 001 – R 100 000 ◯ R100 001 – R 500 000 ◯ R 500 001 – R 1 000 000 ◯ 1 – 3 million rand ◯ 3 – 5 million rand ◯ 5 – 10 million rand ◯ More than 10 million rand

9. How many times per year do you participate in projects with other organisations in Heidedal?

◯ None ◯ 1 – 2 ◯ 3 – 5 ◯ 6 – 10 ◯ 11 – 17 ◯ 18 – 24 ◯ 25 or more

10. In your opinion, do developmental organisations in Heidedal collaborate?

◯ Yes **[If checked "Yes", go to Question 10]** ◯ No **[If checked "No", go to Question 11]**

11. *Please choose a maximum of THREE statements:* Developmental organisations collaborate in Heidedal

☐ to **expand** the **service delivery** or target audience

☐ to **avoid duplicating** the same services as other organisation

☐ to pool **resources**

☐ to **exercise influence** over other organisations / in the community

☐ to **acquire knowledge** about community matters

☐ to **gain legitimacy** from stakeholders

☐ to **promote goodwill** amongst organisations / in the community

☐ because they have **shared goals**

☐ Other (please specify)

IMPORTANT: Please go to **Question 12** (Skip Question 11.)

12. *Please choose a maximum of THREE statements:* Developmental organisations *DO NOT* collaborate in Heidedal because organisations

☐ believe that collaboration could lead to **arduous work**

☐ have **conflicting goals**

☐ are **unaware of other organisations** that active in the community

☐ compete for **resources**

☐ perceive **other organisation(-s)** as **inefficient, unreliable or partial**

☐ choose to **expand their services on their own**

☐ want to **gain legitimacy** from stakeholders **independently**

☐ want to **prove their authority** in the community / over other organisations

☐ Other (please specify)

13. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Greater collaboration is needed between developmental organisations in Heidedal	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
A sense of **competition** exists amongst developmental organisations in Heidedal	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Short-term / once-off projects with other developmental organisations in Heidedal have become increasingly more important	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Long-term projects with other developmental organisations in Heidedal have become increasingly more important	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

13. Please list all the development organisations that you are aware of that are active in Heidedal.

(Kindly include as much information as possible.)

No.	Organisation	Contact Person	Contact Number	Physical Address	Email Address
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					
15					

14. May we contact your organisation in the future for further enquiry regarding this study?

◯ Yes ◯ No

Thank you for completing the survey! ☺

Appendix C: Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

The following questions were used as guideline for the interview sessions. That is to say that not all questions were necessarily used and other questions arose depending on the time allocated by the respondent and the disposition of the respondent him-/herself. Thus, these items were used as a frame of reference to initiate discussion. The items are as follows:

1. Give general feedback about the face-to-face survey.
    a. Use this as a stepping stone to reflect direct the interview to their survey responses.
2. "Please tell me more about why you think organisations collaborate/do not collaborate in Heidedal." (Referring to items 10 – 12 on the survey.)
3. Ask the respondent to elaborate on their perception regarding competition amongst developmental organisations in Heidedal. (Referring to item 13b.)
4. Ask the respondent about how frequently they collaborate with other organisations and in which manner it takes place. (Referring to item 9.)
    a. Formally/Informally?
    b. Identify the type of collaboration. (Coexistence, communication, cooperation, etc.)
5. "What type of collaboration is needed (in the future)?" (Particularising on item 13.)
    a. Once-off, short-term and/or long-term? Why?
    b. "How can this be implemented?"
    c. "What type of structures could be introduced/used?"
6. Wrap up interview.

Appendix D: Agenda of the Focus Group

Inter-Organisational Collaboration in Heidedal

Time and Date: 12:00 Wednesday, 4 June 2014.

Location: Trevor Barlow Library

AGENDA

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1. Welcoming and Introduction of Attendees
2. Feedback about the Survey and Interview
3. Discussion of Future Strategies as Mentioned by Interviewees:
    a. Describing the Strategic Alternatives:
        i. Converging the Service/Target Audience of Organisations
        ii. Contact List of Organisations
        iii. Database of Organisations
        iv. Forum
        v. Umbrella Organisation
        vi. Community Audit
        vii. Other: Work Group
    b. Rating Alternatives
    c. Discussing Top-Rated Alternatives
4. Other Matters:
    a. Recommendation: Joining Existing Forums (e.g. Heidedal's Social Service Forum)
    b. (Other)
5. Word of Thanks and Closing

- Refreshments

Appendix E: Complete Sample List

I. Sample List Legend

Here is a short summary of the number of respondents that were involved in each leg of the data collection process:

- Initial sample pool: 66
- Survey: 28
- Interview: 17
- Focus group: 7

Please take note of the following legend used for each of the columns of the sample list (i.e. the table following this one):

Column	Keyword	Description
Survey	Surveyed	The organisation listed completed the survey.
	Unavailable	The organisation was unwilling/unable to complete the survey during the data collection period.
	Unreachable	The organisation could not be reached at the time of the data collection period.
Interview	Interviewed	The organisation participated in the interview.
	Unavailable	The organisation was considered for an interview, but was unwilling/unable to participate in it.
Focus Group Session	Focus Group	The organisation participated in the focus group.
	Unavailable	The organisation was considered for the focus group, but was unwilling/unable to participate in it.
Sample Source	Sample List	The organisation's information was obtained from the original sample list.
	Snowball	The organisation's contact details were obtained from other respondents.
	Sample List & Snowball	The organisation's contact details were obtained from the original sample list, but were also mentioned by other respondents.
Sample List (SL) Source	DSD	The respondent's contact details used to compile the initial SL were obtained from the Department of Social Development (DSD). Even though organisations might have been listed under Medpages, Oliver's House or Prodder, DSD was used as the primary source.
	Medpages	Medpages was used to get the respondent's contact details to compile the initial SL.
	Oliver´s House	Oliver´s House was used to get the respondent's contact details to compile the initial SL.
	Prodder	Prodder was used to get the respondent's contact details to compile the initial SL.

II. Complete Sample List

No.	Name of Organisation & Contact Person	Survey	Interview	Focus Group Session	Sample Source	Sample List Source
1	**Act Now** Kiepie Jafhta (Chairperson)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Focus Group	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
2	**Aurora** Melinda Otto (Social worker)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Focus Group	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
3	**Dr Blok Old Students Association** Esaz Coetzee (Chairperson)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Focus Group	Sample List	DSD
4	**Heidedal Action Committee** Marta Botha (Secretary)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Focus Group	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
5	**New Horizon Support Group** Karen Venter (Senior Nurse)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Focus Group	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
6	**Sisterhood YSAWID Heidedal** Nicole Baartman (Chief Executive Officer)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Focus Group	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
7	**Trevor Barlow Library** Elizabet Francis (Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Focus Group	Snowball	N/A
8	**Child & Family Welfare** Reshona Jones (Site Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Unavailable	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
9	**Heidedal Youth Mission Centre** Caroline Moase (Project Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Unavailable	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
10	**ROC** Patrick Kaars (Director)	Surveyed	Interviewed	Unavailable	Sample List & Snowball	DSD
11	**Childline** Emma Francis (Social Work Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed		Sample List & Snowball	DSD
12	**Heidedal Crèche** Esther Knoetze (Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed		Sample List & Snowball	DSD

13	**Hugenoot N.G. Gemeente** Ina Snyman (Project Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed		Snowball	N/A
14	**Omega Community Service Centre** Joan Pietersen (Secretary & Project Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed		Sample List & Snowball	DSD
15	**Silver Years Luncheon Club** Mrs. Mulder (Chairperson)	Surveyed	Interviewed		Sample List & Snowball	DSD
16	**Single Women for Jesus** Molly Senosi (Project Manager)	Surveyed	Interviewed		Snowball	N/A
17	**Thalita Khume** Renette Pace (Social worker)	Surveyed	Interviewed		Snowball	N/A
18	**Diakonale Dienste** Ilse Kobbie (Treasurer)	Surveyed	Unavailable		Sample List & Snowball	DSD
19	**Alliance Against HIV/AIDS** Vuse Lani (Manager)	Surveyed			Sample List	DSD
20	**Difference Makers** Solomon Mtlakosi (Director)	Surveyed			Sample List & Snowball	DSD
21	**Elsipat Community Services** Elsie Tsubane (Director)	Surveyed			Sample List	DSD
22	**Gospel Tabernacle Church** Nigel Olin (Pastor)	Surveyed			Sample List	DSD
23	**House of Praise** Ivan Greef (Pastor)	Surveyed			Sample List	DSD
24	**Jehovah Jireh** Apostel Assegaai (Pastor)	Surveyed			Snowball	N/A
25	**Jopani Leather Trust Fund** Bongani Johannes (Senior Clerk)	Surveyed			Snowball	N/A
26	**Kora !Goan Dommi** Rudolph Dodds (Chairperson)	Surveyed			Sample List	DSD
27	**Sonskyn Hoekie Children Day Care** Martie Hoorniet (Teacher)	Surveyed			Sample List & Snowball	DSD
28	**Spes Bona Playschool & After Care** Rosina Mofokeng (Headmistress)	Surveyed			Sample List	DSD

29	Age in Action	Unavailable			Sample List	DSD
30	Ashbury Adventist Centre/Meals on Wheels	Unavailable			Sample List	DSD
31	Auksano	Unavailable			Snowball	N/A
32	Christian Revival Church	Unavailable			Snowball	N/A
33	Clive Solomon (Community Leader)	Unavailable			Snowball	N/A
34	Eben Ezer	Unavailable			Sample List	DSD
35	Elanja	Unavailable			Snowball	N/A
36	Free State Griqua Council	Unavailable			Sample List	DSD
37	Heidedal Live	Unavailable			Snowball	N/A
38	Kids Care Trust	Unavailable			Sample List	DSD
39	Langenhovenpark N.G. Gemeente	Unavailable			Snowball	N/A
40	One Stop	Unavailable			Sample List	DSD
41	Sewendelaan Luncheon Club	Unavailable			Sample List	DSD
42	Skatkis	Unavailable			Sample List	Oliver's House
43	A.W.C Help-Ministry	Unreachable			Sample List	Prodder
44	Ace Magashule Foundation	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
45	Bicentenary Woman Manyano Millennium Project	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
46	Community Faith Centre	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
47	Diketso Eseng Dipuo Community Development Trust	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
48	Edna Rita Educare Centre	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
49	Educare	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD

50	Free State Network on Violence Against Women	Unreachable			Sample List	Oliver's House
51	Heidedal United Youth Development	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
52	Ikhae Ikhab Khoede Organisation	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
53	Ke Ya Leboha Children`s Shelter	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
54	Mahatammoho Community Development Initiative	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
55	Mahlwempu Day Care Centre	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
56	Mangaung Care Givers Association	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
57	Mathaka Youth Organisation	Unreachable			Sample List	Medpages
58	Phomolong Care Centre	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
59	Sesthaselo Centre	Unreachable			Sample List	Medpages
60	Thabang Ierona Home	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
61	Three Golden Eggs	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
62	Tswelapele Community Development	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
63	Umbane Development Organisation	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
64	Universitasrif N.G. Gemeente	Unreachable			Snowball	N/A
65	Women in Action For Jesus	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD
66	Youth 2000 Trust	Unreachable			Sample List	DSD

Appendix F: Summaries of the Literature Review Cases

Each section in this appendix consists of 2 tables. The first table identifies which of the collaboration stages are prevalent in the "7C" model, highlighting the structure representing this stage as well as the manner in which encounters take place (i.e. formally, informally or both).

The second table represents the push-pull factors, the form it takes in the case study and the effect of the form at hand: The colour blue represents it is promoting collaboration while the colour red represents collaboration is inhibited.

I. Hong Kong

a. "7C" Model Stage, Structure and Manner

"7C" STAGE	STRUCTURE	MANNER
Communication	Regular interaction with organisations/service units	Informal
Coordination	Small NGOs Concern Group	Informal/Formal
	Strategic Management Committee	Formal
	Service Unit Committee	Formal
Coalition	Consortium	Formal
Collaboration	The Short-Term Food Assistance Project[85]	Formal

b. Factors Promoting or Inhibiting Collaboration

Collaborative Structures	The Small NGO Concern Group was the initial fountainhead for collaboration
Contextual Aspects	Access to government funds for the Project initiated further collaboration
Interpersonal Relationships	Good rapport between NGOs (Due to bonds established in Concern Group)
	Conflict in defining roles in the hierarchy/between different organisations
Goals	Shared operational vision and sense of responsibility
Efficiency	Competition amongst member organisations in a specific location/domain
Legitimacy	Desire to showcase (to the government) the capacity of the consortium
Necessity	The government mandates organisations to work together on the Project
Power	Ability to influence policy arena
Resources	Access to government funds

[85] Note that it is the Short-Term Food Assistance Project that is the fountainhead of all the other structures as it is a new, consolidated service.

II. Peru

a. "7C" Model Stage, Structure and Manner

"7C" STAGE	STRUCTURE	MANNER
Communication	Networking with other umbrella organisation members	Informal
	Contact between frontline workers	Informal
	Sharing information	Informal
Cooperation	Occasionally hosting projects together	Informal/Formal
Coordination	Non-binding umbrella organisation	Formal
	Monthly local development meetings	Informal/Formal

b. Factors Promoting or Inhibiting Collaboration

Collaborative Structures	Umbrella organisations
Contextual Aspects	The government is marginally engaged
	Socio-political barriers between organisations due to cultural differences (between NGOs/NGOs and community members)
Interpersonal Relationships	Locals are suspicious of outsiders
	Great demand of services inhibits incentives to develop reciprocity
	Rapport-building with communities pressures intra-organisational relationships
Goals	A shared mission of sustainable development/commitment to provide social welfare services to local communities
Efficiency	NGOs focused on independently extending their services over large geographic areas or within densely populated areas
	High demand of social services limits the obligation to render high-quality services
Knowledge	Umbrella organisation provides access to information related to service delivery models, general funding and research
	International organisations provide expertise, consultation and training
Legitimacy	Umbrella organisations offer power to member organisations
	International organisations require demonstrable outcomes from beneficiaries promoting quality service delivery
	Having to prove NGO´s accountability from international organisations is an impetus to focus on own growth
	Burdened with providing reports to donors/the government that is divergent and time-consuming to compile
Necessity	Absence of pressure to promote efficiency due to the lack of competition to garner service consumers
Power	Dependency of local organisation on bigger donors dictates stability, decision-making and readiness to engage with others

Resources	Competing for scarce resources
	NGOs are taxed and audited
	Lack of donors
	Economic activities are hindered by communities´ distrust in outsiders
	NGOs compete for the same funding sources
Stability	Changes in organisational culture/hierarchy evoke unsteadiness
	Heavy reliance on one revenue stream
	Small full-time work force due to rigorous labour laws

III. Zambia

a. "7C" Model Stage, Structure and Manner

"7C" STAGE	STRUCTURE	MANNER
Communication	Bilateral relationships between two NGOs	Informal
Cooperation	Sport-for-development and health-based NGOs pairing off briefly to host events	Informal/Formal
	One NGO training volunteers of another	Formal
Coordination	Multi-sector Working Groups for Policy Development	Formal
	Lusaka District AIDS Task Force Stakeholders Forum	Informal/Formal
Coalition	Kicking AIDS Out Network	Formal

b. Factors Promoting or Inhibiting Collaboration

Collaborative Structures	Closed membership of networks/forums
Contextual Aspects	Cultural differences between members from separate NGOs lead to conflict
Interpersonal Relationships	Larger NGOs support smaller ones
	Larger NGOs are oppressive when collaborating with smaller NGOs
	Partnerships tend to be small due to mistrusting others
Goals	Local NGOs form partnerships with larger NGOs due to shared objectives
	NGOs are not aligned with government policy / major funders
Efficiency	NGOs duplicate the same service
	Joint services are provided that would not have been able otherwise
Knowledge	KOAN raising awareness about certain sport programmes can be adapted to promote HIV/AIDS awareness
	SDPEN sharing knowledge on sport-for-development practices and experiences
	Volunteer training workshops hosted by larger NGOs
	Lack of skills related to interaction and conflict resolution and risk management
	Exclusion from discussion groups lead to lack policy, practice and general understanding of other fields

Legitimacy	Qualitative results is preferred by funders
	Results of NGO programmes are harder to account for since the results are nebulous and the government favours quantitative outputs
Necessity	NGOs are compelled to work with organisations in same field/thematic working group only
Power	State agencies initiating other partnership structures
Resources	Volunteer placements take place due to international organisation-local NGO partnerships
	Equipment and information about potential funders provided by larger NGOs
	Larger NGOs use funding to manipulate smaller NGOs
	Competition between local NGOs to secure partnerships with larger NGOs (for their funding)

IV. Yeoville, South Africa

a. "7C" Model Stage, Structure and Manner

"7C" STAGE	STRUCTURE	MANNER
Coexistence	YSF-CPF-Ward Committee trio is aware of YCF and its undertakings	Informal
	The Trio attends the same meetings as YCF with limited interaction	Formal
Communication	Day-to-day interaction between the Trio	Informal
Coordination	CPF public meetings	Formal
	Monthly SAPS meetings	Formal
	Monthly executive meetings	Formal
	Monthly ward meetings	Formal
Collaboration	Yeoville Stakeholders Forum	Formal

b. Factors Promoting or Inhibiting Collaboration

Collaborative Structures	All the organisations are composite organisations consisting of other organisations
Interpersonal Relationships	The Trio shares a strong sense of rapport due to collective opposition to YCF
	YCF experiences antagonism from the Trio due to divergent views
	YSF and YBCDT coerced the CPF to dissociate itself from YCF
Goals	YSF, CPF and Ward Committee fused an alliance to unite against the YCF
	The Trio shares the aim of creating invited spaces of participation
Knowledge	Organisations interact through sharing the knowledge they possess
	The Trio pools knowledge to lobby state agencies and private players
	Sharing knowledge gives leverage to organisations to enrol agencies
	Knowledge can be the source for communal action
	Trio members compete to be seen as more resolute through directing knowledge
	The YBCDT controls knowledge distribution by running the community newsletter

Legitimacy	YSF, CPF and Ward Committee are supported by the government
	YCF uses political partnerships with external agencies to promote its profile
	The Trio gains legitimacy from followers through the alliance
	Organisations coalesce with others that are in good standing with key-players
	YSF gets validity through support from affiliated organisations
	YCF has to be wary not to overstep boundaries of legality
	The Trio struggles to prove legitimacy to stakeholders
	Organisations are more accountable for the government rather than community
	The Trio uses connections with governmental structures to discredit the YCF
	The JDA distancing itself from YCF brings the YCF into disrepute
Necessity	YSF, CPF and Ward Committee interact based on the government's mandates
	The Trio members compel others not to engage with YCF
Power	Power is shared amongst the few whom influence several platforms
Resources	The financial clout of the YBCDT gives it unrestrained power over other organisations
	Organisations compete to forge good relations with the YBCDT
Stability	Exerting power ensures stability

Appendix G: Summary of Organisations' Motives for Contesting or Embracing Collaboration

I. Knowledge

a. Positives Aspects

- Organisations network in order to gain/control knowledge.
- Knowledge related to organisations, governing bodies, referrals and governing bodies are desired.
- Sharing knowledge is a process that creates understanding, empathy and rapport.

b. Negative Aspects

- Those who do not share knowledge do so because they mistrust other organisations and are unsure what will be done with this information.
- Mistrust also follows from previous experiences where an organisation provided knowledge and was then abandoned after the other party got what they needed.

II. Power

a. Positive Aspects

- Authority is generally perceived as a good thing within an organisation, but a threat in others.
- Transformational leadership is sought after in the community.

b. Negative Aspects

- Power struggles exist between organisation leaders.
- Organisations will succeed in Heidedal if the leader is admired by others in the community.
- Personal relationships (vendettas) of leaders hinder collaboration.
- Leaders work for personal gain and not for the well-being of the community/organisation.

III. Resources, Legitimacy and Necessity

a. Negative Aspects

- Organisations compete for resources to ensure the survival of their own projects.
- This means organisations do not collaborate in order to protect their own assets.
- They have the same goals and programmes which results in them tapping the same reserves.
- The Department of Social Development promises financial backing, but hardly ever delivers.

- Obligations to donor/mother organisations could hinder collaboration: they give funding for a specific purpose and so dictate interaction.
- The power yielded by the funders could also be good as it reduces the duplication of services and overall efficiency.

b. Positive Aspects

- By collaborating organisations might lose ownership of their projects and as a result, legitimacy too.
- Bigger organisations are considered greater threats as they have more credibility – a better (documented) track record.

IV. Efficiency and Stability

a. Negative Aspects

- Organisations want stability which might deter collaboration due to heavy reliance on one revenue stream, lack of information regarding environmental fluctuations, sociocultural segregation and/or biases.
- By working on their own, organisations do not have to manage the demands of outsiders, be afraid of losing their precious resources or that they will not be able to provide their service.
- Organisations are wary to collaborate because of negative past experiences and consequently do not risk instability.
- New organisations are constantly cropping up which leads to the duplication of services and conflict.
- Overlapping exist because one case/issue encapsulates many different divisions which leads to clashing.

b. Positive Aspects

- Duplication (or blending) of services is not necessarily bad as overlapping ensures continuity of service delivery.
- Organisations in Heidedal could collaborate in order to forestall, forecast, or absorb uncertainty.
- Organisations' could expand their service delivery (through strategic enhancement) by working with others that have similar programmes.
- In order to avoid conflict organisations could develop a speciality.
- One way to develop this speciality is to demarcate organisations to specific service areas.

V. Goals

- Two types of goal-settings exist: in-house and collective.
- Internal goals are determined by the composition of the organisation.
- These goals dictate inter-organisational interaction.
- Organisations partake in setting goals to expand their domain influence.
- Diverging goals and values may result in disagreements which in turn could affect the rapport between parties.
- Some organisations do not know what their true goal is as they are constantly changing their objectives in order to fit gain resources for specific (government-funded) projects.
- These group objectives will come to rise based on shared values.
- Alternatively, organisations could simply support each other's projects without getting involved in those projects or duplicating the same type of project.
- There is no specific common goal in Heidedal. There is the same nebulous goal, but organisations work divergently.
- Heidedal organisations need a shared vision that everybody buys into and a champion to drive it.

VI. Interpersonal Relationships

- Collaboration affects interpersonal relationships in that it could lead to reciprocating networks such as emotional support, increasing resilience, compassion and hopefulness.
- Interactions are teeming with prejudices, mistrust and pride found among/fuelled by management.
- Leaders feels threatened if someone comes from outside.
- Leaders only work with people within their personal circle of friends, clique or the same social status.
- Organisations perceive others as lacklustre, unreliable and paying "lip service".
- Organisations do want camaraderie that constitutes in-person network-building with select, personal engagements between organisations.

VII. Contextual Factors

a. Service Delivery Zones

- Service delivery is circumscribed to zones.
- This focuses service delivery and ensures that community members receive the attention they require.
- It can also curb it seeing that social problems are not bounded to geographical boundaries.
- As a result organisations cannot effectively address challenges in the community.
- If organisations have found a niche, they want to keep it for themselves.

b. Changes in Heidedal´s Social Fabric

- Heidedal has changed from a homogenous group of people to becoming more diverse.
- It has advantages, but it is also perceived as the reason for an increase in crime.
- Consequently, individuals are overwhelmed by the great influx of problems and so they raise defence mechanisms that curtail collaboration.
- A sense of understanding and connectedness is fading.

VIII. Collaborative Structures

- There is a lack of awareness/knowledge of existing collaborative structures.
- Organisations are apathetic towards collaborative assemblies.
- Organisations do not have the know-how to use these structures.
- There is a need for organisational leaders that can connect people.
- Some organisations feel that collaboration should be limited to the bare minimum.
- This means that if an organisation has a project, it is theirs and that they want to do their projects on their own (i.e. they want to ensure autonomy).
- Organisations could support other organisations in smaller locales and in a secondary role.
- Liaison will, therefore, only be limited to small-scale, minimal engagements.
- In contrast, organisations could also engage in across-the-board campaigns where everybody is involved, which would necessitate several larger collaborative structures.
- The general consensus is that engagements should start with only a few collaborators to ensure the effective use of communication channels.

Appendix H: Interrelatedness of Collaborative Structures´ SWOT analyses

The table shows how elements of one collaborative structure transcend from one structure to the next in the hierarchy. The umbrella organisation encompasses elements from all three collaborative structures identified, the database its own elements as well as that of the community audit and the audit, only its own elements. Note that these features are not mutually exclusive, but the sequencing and classifying presented here was done so during the focus group session.

	Strengths	Weaknesses
Community Audit	• Contributes to the **acquiring of knowledge** • **Eliminates duplication** • **Catalyses action** • Spurs **empowerment** • Creates **rapport** in the community	• Possible poor manner of data-capturing: - **Substandard** questionnaires - **Incompetence** of fieldworkers/data-capturers • Asking questions could be perceived as **prying**
Database	• Offers **complete & updated information** • **Elucidates confusions/misconceptions** • Stimulates **collaboration** • **Facilitates proper referrals** • Promotes continuous **communication** • Advances **familiarity** & **trust between organisations**	• **Cumbersome** if the database is **not user-friendly** • **Difficult to ensure** it will be **maintainable** • **Resource intensive** • It is a **complex system to manage** • Challenging to **incorporate** & **monitor** the constant **flow of new organisation**
Umbrella Organisation	• A **greater part of** the **community** can be **reached** • It is a **structured, guided form of collaboration** • **Creates jobs** • Forges a **unified identity** amongst organisations • Organisations gains **legitimacy**	• By nature it could lead to **overt regulation/restriction** • **Organisations** that are not part of the umbrella organisation **could feel slighted, rejected or ignored** • As a bigger structure it will **struggle to be flexible** • Could fall **prey to the power-hungry** • It might follow suit in Heidedal´s history of having **poor organisational structures**

	Opportunities	Threats
Community Audit	• **Exchanging** of **information** & **expertise** • Establishment of **links** & **networks** • Gives **access to** available **resources** such as: - **Funding** – especially multi-national donors - **Human resources** • **Brings organisations** with shared interests **together** • Promotes **converging** between organisations	• **Lack of time** • **Community fatigue** - Other audits might have similar work in the past • **Mistrusting the motives** behind collecting data • **Not full participation** from respondents
Database	• **Links** between **organisations** • Promotes **continuous communication** • **Makes organisations accessible** to each other, other stakeholders & funders • Give rises to more **informed decision-making**	• **Affordability** & **funding** • **Users** could be **inexperienced** in using such systems & might need training
Umbrella Organisation	• Organisations gain better **representation** & **exposure** • Sounder **bargaining power** when engaging funders • **Access** to more/previously unattainable **resources** • Greater **prospects for joint projects** • **Development of leaders** in the community • **Statistics/research** can be generated	• **Distrusting** outsiders & other organisations • Keeping it **sustainable** • **Inability to spread the word** effectively about the umbrella organisation

Appendix I: Subsets of the Study´s Inter-Organisational Factors

Please note that the directory of key-words compiled here is drawn from the study´s literature review in its entirety along with the findings of the research case itself. It is therefore meant as a non-exhaustive reference reflecting the study, which can be used as a base for future work.

Structures	Awareness of existing structures; attitude towards meetings/forums; function of structures; "7C" model´s stages; membership
Contextual Aspects	Service delivery zone/domain; public institutions; government involvement; societal demands; cultural references; socio-political aspects
Efficiency	Service quality; autonomy; specialisation; service duplication; blending; reduced input; increased output; strategic enhancement
Goals	Domain influence; shared goals; individual goals; purpose; consensus; irresolute; donor agenda; larger organisation supremacy; beliefs; compatibility
Interpersonal Relationships	Trust; leadership; inter-organisational communication; intra-organisational liaison; networking; perceptions (of others/self); personal relationships; roles (within organisations/partnerships); past experiences
Knowledge	Information-sharing; knowledge-expansion (esp. referrals, opportunities, structures, service-delivery models, procedures & policy); training; skills-development; boundary-spanning; expertise; consultation; contributing to policy-development
Legitimacy	Mother organisations´ or donors´ demands/proof; burden; bureaucracy; procedures; regulations; validation; accountability; ownership; credibility; time-consuming
Necessity	Absence of pressures; mandates from the government/stakeholders; resource-scarcity/-insufficiency obligating organisations
Power	Power struggle; positional power; personal power; vendettas; leadership; hierarchies; power of funders/larger/mother organisations over smaller organisations; authority; personal gain; influence policy
Resources	Competition; donor dependency; lack of funders; tapping same source; different forms of resources – not only as material capital/funds (incl. time, human resources & publicity)
Stability	Reduce risk; donor dependency; control environmental fluctuations; predict outcomes