

**CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS AND SOCIAL INNOVATION: A STRATEGY FOR
PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

By

TSHWENE BRIDGET MALETE

Student no: 2013098237

**Mini dissertation submitted in partial requirement for the degree
Masters of Public Administration**

in the

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE

PROMOTER: Dr Maréve Biljohn

BLOEMFONTEIN

December 2023

DECLARATION

I, Tshwene Bridget Maletle, declare that the mini-dissertation that I hereby submit for the degree Master of Public Administration at the University of the Free State is my independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education



TB Maletle

13 December 2023

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Big acknowledgements and many thanks to the Almighty God for giving me strength and the ability to undertake this study. Without your blessings and guidance, I would not have accomplished this research.

Furthermore, I would not have pursued this study without inspiration. For this reason, I am dedicating this study to my beloved little sister Tlou Reshoketswe “Shocky” Maletle because she always encouraged me to further my studies. Although you are no longer in this world, the memories we had will never fade. Those who touch our lives stay in our hearts forever; I love and miss you beyond words. Your untimely departure left me with a torn heart and a void never to be filled. However, I am grateful to have always received your boundless support throughout my academic studies. Although, it has been a difficult journey since your departure on 06 August 2016, God showed mercy on me to ensure that I finish this qualification and fulfil our study plans. Through his blessings again, I believe I will successfully embark on the PhD journey.

Again, without a supportive family, I would not have reached these heights. I would like to express my greatest gratitude to my family for their endless love, especially my mother “Selinah Maletle” who cultivated the seed of education in me. Your greatest love and support as well as your daily teachings played a huge role in shaping me and teaching me to never get tired of chasing my passion. Sister Noko “Nnoshi”, thanks for always being there for me, your unwavering support will forever be appreciated. Further appreciation goes to my partner for selflessly supporting me throughout my study journey. My Son, Mohau “Archie”, please consider education as a powerful weapon. To my nephews Oratile, Oteng, and Kedumetse Maletle, let this study serve as motivation for you to study hard and prioritise education.

This study would not have been possible without a dedicated promoter. Therefore, I would like to convey my deepest and profound appreciation to my study promoter, Dr. Maréve Biljohn. Your vast wisdom, wealth of experience, guidance, support, and advice were invaluable, and have led to the successful completion of this study. Your patience is out of this world, and it was really a great privilege to study under your supervision. I would choose you all over again. I would also like to express my gratitude to the University of the Free State, Department of Public Administration and Management for affording me an opportunity to study. Lastly, many thanks to the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development for awarding me a bursary to make this study possible.

SUMMARY

Orientation: Cross-sector partnerships (CSPs) are increasingly seen as a solution to the most pressing societal problems facing contemporary societies. As such, CSPs have become inherent to socio-economic service delivery by the public sector. CSPs are defined as partnerships between public, private, and civil society organisations and between government departments or business units within the public and private sectors working in new ways to address complex social and economic challenges.

Motivation for study: The South African National Development Plan accentuates the collective responsibility of collaborative and strategic partnerships among different sectors. In this regard exploring CSPs enable the public sector to target "wicked issues" more effectively by unlocking the benefits of comparative advantage while simultaneously enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of public agencies' efforts to address socio-economic service delivery issues (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680). Research shows that social innovation could be fundamental to CSPs that are used to address socio-economic public sector service delivery challenges. Moreover, CSPs are considered to be a source of social innovation, often working together to fill gaps and discover new opportunities to advance societal good (Cukier & Gagnon, 2017:2). However, the use of social innovation in CSPs to address socio-economic service delivery challenges is latent and not optimally explored in the programmes delivered by the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD). Given the successful use of social innovation in socio-economic service delivery globally, it is deemed beneficial to enhance CSPs in rendering socio-economic service delivery programmes of the DALRRD. Against this background, this study investigates the use of social innovation in DALRRDs' cross-sector partnerships in improving public sector programme delivery.

Research methodology: Using an interpretivism paradigm, this study applies a qualitative research approach and exploratory research design. Through content analysis of documents, the study's aim, research objectives and research questions were addressed.

Contribution: The significance of this study lies in four domains, namely the (i) Public Administration discipline, (ii) the South African policy agenda, (iii) using social innovation in public sector programme delivery and (iv) DALRRD use of CSPs. Concerning the Public Administration discipline, this study contributes to the discourse about the relevance of using social innovation in CSPs during public sector programme delivery. About the South African policy agenda, this study undertook research that contributes to the policy agenda regarding the use of social innovation for public sector programme delivery by

DALRRD. Regarding using social innovation in public sector programme delivery this study contributed to the debate about the role and nature of CSPs towards stimulating the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery and the discourse on the significance of using social innovation in public sector programme delivery. Pertaining to DALRRD's use of CSPs this study presented a conceptual framework for CSPs use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery.

Keywords: Social innovation, cross-sector partnerships, public sector, Job Funds, Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
SUMMARY	iii
CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY FIELD	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY.....	3
1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	7
1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES	10
1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	11
1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	11
1.6.1 Qualitative Research Approach and Design	11
1.6.2 Data Collection and Analysis.....	12
1.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY	14
1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY.....	14
1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE	15
1.10 CONCLUSION	16
CHAPTER 2: A CONCEPTUAL DEMARCATION FOR THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY.....	18
2.1 INTRODUCTION	18
2.2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION THEORIES INFLUENCING THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY	19
2.2.1 New Public Governance Theory	20
2.2.2 Social Innovation Theory	26
2.3 CONCEPTUALISATION OF SOCIAL INNOVATION	33
2.3.1 Attributes of SI.....	39
2.3.2 Conditions for SI.....	45
2.3.3 The Consequences of Using SI.....	46
2.3.4 SI in Public Sector programme Delivery	49
2.3.5 Benefits of SI in Public Sector programme Delivery.....	50
2.3.6 Barriers and Challenges of Using SI in the Public Sector programme Delivery.....	52
2.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR USING SI.....	53
2.5 CONCLUSION	61

CHAPTER 3: PERSPECTIVES ON CSPs AND THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY	63
3.1 INTRODUCTION	63
3.2 CONCEPTUALISING CSPs.....	64
3.2.1 Defining CSPs.....	64
3.2.2 Attributes of CSPs	68
3.2.3 Pre-conditions for CSPs	72
3.2.4 CSPs Success Factors	76
3.2.5 Consequences of Using CSPs	80
3.2.6 Challenges Confronting CSPs	86
3.3 CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS AND THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY	91
3.3.1 CSPs and Public Sector Programme Delivery	91
3.3.2 The role of CSPs in advancing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery.....	94
3.3.3 Challenges Hindering the Use of SI in CSPs.....	97
3.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR CSPs TO USE SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY	102
3.5 CONCLUSION	113
CHAPTER 4: CASE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF JOBS FUND PROGRAMME.....	115
4.1 INTRODUCTION	115
4.2 CASE OF THE JF PROGRAMME.....	116
4.3 EVALUATION OF SI'S USE IN CSPs FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE JOBS FUND PROGRAMME BY DALRRD	123
4.4 CSPs STIMULATION OF SI FOR IMPROVED PUBLIC SECTOR SERVICE DELIVERY PROGRAMMES BY DALRRD.....	131
4.4.1 CSPs' stimulation of SI for improved public sector programme delivery by DALRRD.....	131
4.4.2 Challenges hindering the use of SI in CSPs by DALRRD	134
4.5 STRATEGY FOR DALRRD TO USE SOCIAL INNOVATION IN CSPs IN IMPROVING PROGRAMME DELIVERY.....	139
4.6 CONCLUSION	144
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUDING CHAPTER	147

5.1 INTRODUCTION	147
5.2 ACHIEVEMENT OF THE STUDY AIM, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS	147
5.3 LESSON LEARNT FOR PRACTICE AND FUTURE RESEARCH	154
5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS: A STRATEGY FOR DALRRD TO USE SOCIAL INNOVATION IN CSPs.....	158
5.5 CONCLUSION	163
REFERENCES	167
Appendix 1: Proof of language editing	188
Appendix 2: Ethical clearance.....	189
Appendix 3: Turnitin report.....	190

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Significance of the study.....15
Table 2.1: Commonalities between the NPG and SI.....30
Table 2.2: Definitions of SI.....34
Table 3.1: Definitions of CSP.....66

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Process view of NGP and SI.....	32
Figure 2.2: Core elements of SI definition.....	36
Figure 2.3: SI motivations, attributes and consequences.....	48
Figure 2.4: A conceptual framework for an SI blueprint in public sector programme delivery.....	54
Figure 3.1: Characteristic elements of CSPs.....	68
Figure 3.2: CSP connections.....	79
Figure 3.3: SI stimulation through CSP.....	94
Figure 3.4: The conceptual framework for CSPs to use SI in public sector programme delivery	102
Figure 4.1: Project process flow.....	122
Figure 4.2: Conceptual framework for the use of SI in the case of DALRRD	124
Figure 4.3: Evaluation of CSPs stimulating the use of SI by DALRRD.....	131
Figure 4.4: Strategy for using SI in CSPs.....	140
Figure 5.1: Strategy for DALRRD to use SI in CSPs.....	158

ACRONYMS

ABC PIMP:	Activity-Based Costed Project Implementation Monitoring Plan
ARC:	Agricultural Research Council
CCC:	Commercial Credit Committee
CSP:	Cross-Sector Partnership
CTT:	Commodity Task Team
DAFF:	Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
DALRRD:	Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development
DPME:	Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation
FAO:	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FDD:	Financial Due Diligence
GTAC:	Government Technical Advisory Centre
IA:	Implementing Agent
JF:	Jobs Fund
M&E:	Monitoring and Evaluation
NASCA:	National Association of Chief Administrators
NGO:	Non-Governmental Organisations
NDP:	National Development Plan
NPC:	National Planning Commission
NPG:	New Public Governance
NPM:	New Public Management
PDA:	Provincial Department of Agriculture:
PMO:	Project Management Office:
PMT:	Project Management Team
PA:	Public Administration
PDA:	Provincial Department of Agriculture
SA:	South Africa
SI:	Social Innovation
SOE:	State-Owned Entities
OECD:	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
UNDP:	United Nation Development Programme
UN:	United Nations

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW AND DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY FIELD

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Socio-economic challenges, namely extreme and persistent poverty and hunger, unemployment, inequalities, and sluggish economic growth, constitute high barriers to sustainable development everywhere (Hujo, 2021:344; Minh, 2012:124; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development-OECD, 2011:22). Many countries have been plagued with the problem of sustainable service delivery and further development in the context of these socio-economic situations (Bilgaev, Dong, Li, Cheng, Sadykova, & Mikheeva, 2020:1). Given these circumstances, countries have been embarking on public sector reforms to improve public service delivery (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007: 9) to solve these challenges. These include interventions targeting socio-economic service delivery initiatives regarding poverty alleviation and employment or safety nets programmes, which in turn provide an entry point and trigger for longer-term social, political, and economic change (Berry, Forder, Sultan, & Moreno-Torres, 2004:10). Globally, organisations have been established with mandates to drive socio-economic development. Amongst others, these include the International Labour Organization, the United Nations (UN), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), OECD, the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, the World Food Programme, and the Food and Agriculture Organisation. Critical public sector ministries with mandates supporting socio-economic development are agriculture, tourism, and social welfare. Socio-economic service delivery is about providing services intended to improve all individuals' social and material well-being to achieve the highest possible level of human development.

As with others, some South African government institutions still need to deal with service delivery challenges. The delivery of services to the masses of South African citizens remains a complex process (Department of Social Development, 2005:1). South Africa is confronted with significant challenges in delivering optimum provision of socio-economic services (Mbazira, 2013 cited by Mathebula, 2014:132) to address the problems of poverty, inequality, and unemployment, which constitute the triple challenges facing South Africa (SA) (World Bank, 2018:xii). According to Mathebula (2014:139), service delivery challenges within the country are rooted in the failure to implement socio-economic programmes. Hence, in addressing these, for the past two decades, the South African government developed progressive legislative frameworks, policies, and procedures, especially in social and economic areas (Mathebula, 2014:139; Pretorius, 2020:151). The effort to do these is evidenced through a wide range of initiatives, including mechanisms to increase employment, incomes, productivity, and provision of quality public services (The Presidency, 2020:2; World Bank, 2018:x). In support of the South African government's broader development agenda, the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development

(DALRRD) has embarked on various socio-economic development initiatives. These include farmer support and job creation programmes such as the Agricultural Support Programme and the Jobs Fund Programme. DALRRD's socio-economic interventions are underpinned by alleviating poverty, reducing inequality, creating jobs, food security and economic development. Despite remarkable progress made through these interventions, socio-economic service delivery challenges in South Africa remain overwhelming (World Bank, 2018:x). As observed by Mathebula (2014:139), these command a vital necessity for the government to implement strategies that would effectively improve service delivery.

The increasing socio-economic challenges, together with the complex nature of service delivery problems, have driven governments across the world to recognise the use of social innovation (OECD, 2014:2; Vasin, Gamidullaeva, & Rostovskaya, 2017:26). Social innovation has emerged as a public sector reform strategy (Tohidi & Jabbari, 2012:535), a catalyst for improved service delivery (Biljohn & Lues, 2019a:1; Jordaan, 2013:4), and a driver for socio-economic development (Center for Public Service Innovation-CPSI, 2018:6). Social innovation refers to a new outline of practices, products, services, models, and processes that simultaneously meet social needs in a more effective way than existing solutions, leading to new or improved capabilities and relationships, and enhanced use of assets and resources (Cukier & Gagnon, 2017:1; Cukier & Jackson, 2018:224; OECD, 2011:20; Pinsent, 2021:I; UNDP, 2014:6; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:25). Several authors confirm that social innovation provides many benefits. The first benefit is the modernisation of public services by shaping new processes and services in a more tailored approach, thus enabling increased public sector efficiency (OECD, 2011:22). The second is tackling social challenges which conventional approaches are unable to solve (Nasir & Subarib, 2017:9). Thirdly, social innovation offers opportunities to advance efforts to address socio-economic challenges, which, in turn, yield social benefits throughout communities (Nasir & Subarib, 2017:13). Owing to its benefits, social innovation appears to be increasingly embraced by many countries (Goldenberg, Kamoji, Orton, & Williamson, 2009:1). However, given the complexity of current social and economic problems, the use of social innovation is often underpinned by cross-sector partnerships (Sadabadi & Rahimi Rad, 2021:1).

Cross-sector partnerships (CSPs) have become inherent to socio-economic service delivery. CSPs are defined as partnerships between public, private, and civil society organisations and between government departments or business units within the public and private sectors working in new ways to address complex social and economic challenges (Bruner, 2014:8; National Association of Chief Administrators-NASCA, 2017:4; Pretorius, 2020:147). The common objective of CSP is to solve social, economic, and environmental problems through collaboration (Klein & Spsychalska-Wojtkiewicz, 2020: 1). Public sector organisations tend to use partnerships to improve their administration and to create good governance

(O'Byrne, Miller, Douse, Venkatesh, & Kapucu, 2014:58). CSPs offer a fresh approach to public service delivery (NASCA, 2017:2) and warrant the improvement of organisations, activities, and services in the public sector (Pătraşcu, 2018:32). CSPs are increasingly seen as a solution to the most pressing social problems facing contemporary societies (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:679) and the best approach to stimulate innovation as well as create initiatives that are necessary to turn around persisting challenges (Jupp, 2000:7). Pretorius (2020:151) points out that CSPs emerged as the best approach to overcome challenges through successful implementation of processes, programmes and/or interventions of socio-economic service delivery.

To deliver on socio-economic service delivery initiatives, the South African public sector has joined other countries in using the CSPs. In South Africa, the National Development Plan accentuates the collective responsibility of collaborative and strategic partnerships among different sectors (Pretorius, 2020:147). Hence, CSPs enable the public sector to target "wicked issues" more effectively by unlocking the benefits of comparative advantage while simultaneously enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of public agencies' efforts to address socio-economic service delivery issues (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680). Regarding the CSPs approach to addressing socio-economic service delivery, social innovation could be fundamental to CSPs. There is a common understanding that CSPs can be the source of social innovation, often working together to fill gaps and discover new opportunities to advance societal good (Cukier & Gagnon, 2017:2). However, the use of social innovation in CSPs to address socio-economic service delivery challenges is latent and not optimally explored in DALRRD programmes. Given the successful use of social innovation in socio-economic service delivery globally, it is deemed beneficial to enhance CSPs in rendering socio-economic service delivery programmes of the DALRRD. Against this background, the study sought to investigate the use of social innovation in DALRRDs' cross-sector partnerships in improving public sector programme delivery.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The study focuses on the DALRRD, which is one of the South African national government departments holding a mandate to provide agriculture, land reform, and rural development services and ensure food security for all citizens as entrenched in Section 27(1)b of the Constitution of RSA (Republic of South Africa, 1996:11). The DALRRD provides its service delivery through programmes and projects. Notwithstanding the positive impact of such programmes, service delivery challenges remain a reality (Moreddu, 2016:7). As governments are faced with increasing pressure to improve service delivery (Tauté, 2021:3), CSPs between various actors within and across sectors are deemed essential (Moreddu, 2016:7) given that today, none of the sectors can shoulder these challenges alone (DALRRD, 2022a:v). Hence CSPs

are increasingly used as an important tool for addressing socio-economic service delivery to leverage public funds and enhance efficiency and effectiveness (Moreddu, 2016:2). It is for this reason that the complexity of service delivery challenges faced within the agriculture sector, especially with depleting public resources (DALRRD, 2022a:v), have driven the DALRRD to join the masses to explore CSPs as one of the innovative strategies (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:26) aimed at accelerating and improving service delivery (DAFF, 2013b:1) and effectively meet its mandates while coping with the ever-increasing needs. The delivery of effective and efficient agricultural support services is important, particularly in fighting against the socio-economic challenges facing the sector (DAFF, 2013a:xi; World Bank, 2015:15). To this effect, DALRRD has been implementing various service delivery and support programmes and projects to their varying degree of success, including the Job Funds Programme, which is implemented through CSPs.

The use of CSP is premised on the acknowledgement that DALRRD alone cannot tackle socio-economic service delivery challenges (Agribiz, 2018:1), particularly considering that these challenges are multidisciplinary, thus requiring consorted efforts, resources, capacities, and expertise of various actors (DALRRD, 2022a:v). Hence, various DALRRD policies, frameworks, and strategies including the Comprehensive Producer Support Policy, Agricultural Agro-Processing Master Plan (AAMP) put great emphasis and support on the use of CSPs (Agribiz, 2018:1). Moreddu (2016:2) confirms that to support the use of CSPs in public sector service delivery, the SA government have generally put in place a policy environment to facilitate the development of CSPs.

Given the recognition and support of CSPs by the government, the DALRRD, in partnership with the National Treasury, through Government Technical Advisory Centre (GTAC) have been implementing the Jobs Fund Programme for the commercialisation of smallholder producers within the agriculture sector (DALRRD, nd:11; The Jobs Fund, 2019:13) to realise the government's objectives of job creation, food security, and economic growth (DALRRD, 2021:3). The Grant Agreement between these two parties was signed on the 30th of September 2019. Following the signing of the Grant Agreement, the 1st of October 2019 marked the programme start date (DALRRD, nd:11; The Jobs Fund, 2019:13). As per the Grant Agreement, the programme is scheduled for 5 years, in which the first 3 years are for actual implementation, that is, provision of support to farmers, whereas the last 2 years are for M&E (DAFF, 2019b: 3; The Jobs Fund, 2019:3) to conclude reporting, auditing, and evaluations.

The DALRRD Jobs Fund programme was approved as a matched grant funding to the tune of R600 million, where each partner contributes R300 million (The Jobs Fund, 2019:3). The funds are released in tranches on a quarterly basis, based on performance in relation to the planned Activity-Based Costed Project

Implementation Monitoring Plan (ABC PIMP) (The Jobs Fund, 2019:3). The following constitute the specific objectives of the Jobs Fund Programme (DALRRD, nd:11):

- (i) To support inclusive growth, sustainable jobs, wealth creation, rural development, and sector transformation;
- (ii) To support sustainable black producer's farming enterprises in the agriculture sector;
- (iii) To enhance production by Black Producers through deliberate, targeted and well defined financial and non-financial interventions, and
- (iv) To strengthen global market access for South African agricultural products.

Owing to the nature of the programme, which is a blended funding model which involves both loan and grant funding, the DALRRD appointed the Land Bank as an Implementing Agent for the programme. In addition, as part of institutional arrangements, various structures have been established to guide the implementation process. This includes the establishment of the Steering Committee to provide oversight and strategic leadership for programme implementation to ensure the attainment of its objectives (DALRRD, 2021:6), and the Programme Management Team aimed at facilitating its implementation (DAFF, 2019c:4). The rationale for investigating the use of CSP using the case of the Job Funds Programme is discussed in the remainder of this section. This rationale is discussed in respect of:

- (i) The growing use and success of social innovation in the public sector service delivery globally;
- (ii) The DALRRDs programme delivery challenges make it prudent to investigate the use of social innovation in CSPs, and
- (iii) Social innovation could be fundamental to improving service delivery by DALRRD

(i) The growing use and success of social innovation in the public sector service delivery globally

Social innovation is increasingly used globally by public sector organisations as a strategy to deliver improved and sustainable public services (Biljohn & Lues, 2020a:2). Governments introduce social innovation in their organisational practices and capacities as well as programmes to effectively make service delivery more proactive, efficient, and accountable (Sono, 2018:1; UN, 2006:2). The centrality of SI as a catalyst for improving the effectiveness and efficiency of government is further supported by various scholars within the discipline of public administration (Sono, 2018:1). Despite its global spread and success, the use of social innovation for improving public service delivery appears to be a lagging area in the DALRRD. To help resolve the situation, this study employed the case study of the Jobs Fund Programme to examine how social innovation could be advanced in CSPs of the DALRRD. This programme has been

implemented through the CSP approach by the DALRRD and its partners from private organisations, civil organisations, and State-Owned Entities.

Given the importance attached to innovation in a country's socio-economic development (Manzini, 2015:2), and because of the need to induce social innovation to improve public sector service and programme delivery in South Africa, it was prudent to investigate how social innovation could be advanced in CSPs of the DALRRD. Given the prevailing challenges concerning service and programme delivery in DALRRD as well as the apparent success and benefits of using social innovation to advance service delivery as confirmed by various scholars, this study provides a unique and excellent opportunity for exploring this phenomenon, which is beneficial. This investigation is critical considering that agriculture is the most important sector in the South African economy owing to its central role in building a strong economy, reducing inequalities by increasing incomes and employment opportunities for the poor, and playing a pivotal role in the development of the country (Oladele, 2015:30).

(ii) DALRRDs programme delivery challenges make it prudent to investigate the use of social innovation in CSPs

Nearly 30 years into democracy, the South African government has been encountering service delivery challenges that have resulted in South African public sector organisations being under tremendous pressure to reform and address weak service delivery (Goldman, Engela, Akhalwaya, Gasa, Leon, Mohamed, Mketi, & Phillips, 2012: 1) to respond to the demands of citizens and to tackle complex social-economic issues. Remarkable efforts have been made to improve service delivery, and this is evident from the implementation of public sector service delivery programmes to provide services to the people (Kamau & Mohamed, 2015: Public Service Commission, 2008:39). However, the service delivery challenges persist, leading to the country continuing to sink deeper into turbulent social and economic waters. As one of the South African government institutions, DALRRD has progressively been unable to deliver effective agricultural services, owing to many reasons, including limited financial resources and capacity (Mgumia, Mattee, & Kundic, 2015:74) and inefficient support and delivery systems (Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation-DPME, 2015: viii). It is therefore deemed necessary for the government to explore effective strategies to advance public sector service delivery (Mathebula, 2014:139).

(iii) Social innovation could be fundamental to improving service delivery by DALRRD

The complexity of service delivery problems and societal challenges led many government institutions to adopt social innovation to improve service delivery and tackle socio-economic related problems such as poverty and unemployment (Chandra, Shang, & Mair, 2021:3; Draai, 2010:136; Jordaan, 2013:4). This was

with the intention to provide a sustainable solution to consistent societal problems. Innovation in the public sector promotes efficiency in service delivery, good governance, transparency, and accountability in public expenditure and opens a great opportunity for governments to incorporate new tools and approaches (OECD, 2014:2). Given that DALRRD has been implementing the Job Funds Programme to contribute towards addressing socio-economic challenges, adopting social innovation could be fundamental to improving service delivery. The Jobs Fund is a socio-economic service delivery programme aimed at job creation and enterprise development (National Treasury, 2016: 7; The Jobs Fund, 2019:4), thus contributing to poverty alleviation, food security, job creation and economic growth. As pointed out by Biljohn and Lues (2019b:13), social innovation has often yielded many benefits beyond addressing societal problems, including delivery of new services, stakeholder collaboration, building relationships, and promoting better responses to societal challenges.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

For the past two decades, the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) (now the DALRRD) attached greater importance to delivering effective and efficient agricultural support services to the agricultural community, in particular previously disadvantaged farmers (interchangeably called producers), with the vision to fight against the socio-economic challenges facing agriculture, thus having a united and prosperous agricultural sector (DAFF, 2013a:xi; World Bank, 2015:15). To realise this, DALRRD has implemented a plethora of initiatives to accelerate service delivery regarding job creation, food security, and rural development (DAFF, 2013a:xi; DAFF, 2018:1). These include the implementation of various important programmes and frameworks mainly targeting smallholder producers such as Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP), Mafisa, Ilima/Letsema and Strategic Plan for Smallholder Support (SPSS) among others (DAFF, 2012:46; DAFF 2013b:1; Mncina & Agholor, 2021:122). The central objective of these initiatives is to promote and facilitate agricultural development through expanding the provision of agricultural support services and streamlining the provision of services across all categories of farmers within the agribusiness continuum (DAFF, 2013b:1; DAFF, 2011:18) and to promote alignment and coordination of support services, including financial and non-financial support, especially to smallholder farmers (DAFF, 2013b:4).

Notwithstanding the applaudable progress made through these interventions, evidence confirms that many programmes and initiatives targeting smallholder producers have not been far-reaching (DAFF, 2012:30; DAFF, 2021:33). Thus, efforts to support smallholder farmers have been ineffective and inadequate, mainly because they have been inappropriate in design and implementation (Aliber & Hall, 2012:548; DAFF, 2012:46). The key challenges are inadequate producer support, weak programmes implementation systems

and inefficiencies in governance processes (DAFF, 2016:4). To make it explicit, the research problems are discussed in the rest of this section through five main areas.

(i) Ineffective and inefficient delivery of CSP initiatives

Inadequate, ineffective, and inefficient support and delivery systems are one of the key problems that hinder the commendable provision of agricultural services (DPME, 2015: viii). The weakness of delivery and implementation systems of a wide range of government regulations and programmes as well as ineffective support systems constitute a major concern facing the agriculture sector (DAFF, 2016:7). In the absence of appropriate farmer support programmes, in particular for smallholder producers, SA as a country would have little chance to escape the skyrocketing socio-economic challenges (DAFF, 2011:11). Factors that contribute to this problem in the DALRRD are the disintegration of certain services, inadequate resources, and weak governance (DAFF, 2001: no page). Other factors that contribute towards the ineffectiveness of the support programmes include inadequate planning in terms of the provision of support, weak coordination, capacity constraints as well as lack of appropriate skills and expertise for effective implementation and inadequate enterprise development support (DAFF, 2012: 46).

(ii) Poor coordination of CSPs programmes

Poor coordination and collaboration mark some of the greatest challenges facing the provision of support services to producers in SA (DAFF, 2011:18; DAFF, 2016:4; DAFF, 2018:6). This aspect remains a challenge despite enormous efforts undertaken to improve the coordination of support services (DAFF, 2013b:4). According to DAFF (2018:1), poor coordination within the department is rooted in the lack of a framework to harmonise, guide, and regulate the provision of support services to the various categories of producers. Wenner (2007:1) link poor coordination to weak governance, changing priorities, differing expectations and inefficiencies that make various interventions non-viable. Weak governance, particularly lack of effective planning, monitoring and evaluation usually result in poor and fragmented implementation of existing programmes (DAFF, 2012:57). Poor coordination in the DALRRD also results in poor implementation of programmes and ineffective support services (DAFF, 2018: 6), which often dilute and significantly undermine the intended impact (DAFF, 2012:57; Mncina & Agholor, 2021:128). The above, coupled with capacity constraints, subsequently frustrate the effective implementation of programmes and strategies, thus impeding the success of many programmes (Business Enterprise, 2015:71; DAFF, 2012:29; DAFF, 2018:6) and non-realisation of the Department's vision of attaining a more prosperous smallholder sector that contributes to economic empowerment, food security, rural development and sustainable livelihoods for all (DAFF, 2013b:4).

(iii) Capacity deficiencies to implement CSPs

There is a limited capacity to reach and offer efficient and sufficient support, limiting their scope to achieve the scale required (DAFF, 2012:46). Capacity problems in the department (Binswanger-Mkhize, 2014:267) together with inefficiencies in the provision of support (Business Enterprise, 2015:73) have been identified as major reasons for the poor performance of agricultural and land reform projects or programmes. The same sentiment is also shared by the Business Enterprise (2015:66), which states that the department does not have adequate human resources with appropriate skills to manage and effectively monitor the implementation of support programmes. In lieu of low capacity, even the best-designed policies and interventions would not succeed, resulting in anemic delivery of critical public programmes (National Planning Commission-NPC, 2020:104). Lack of in-house and/ or institutional capacity, particularly limited finance (DAFF, 2011:18; DAFF, 2013b:2) and appropriate or skilled human resources, may limit the ability to respond to the social and economic service delivery challenges timeously and efficiently (NPC, 2020: 38; Raidimi & Kabit, 2017:50; World Bank, 2015:17). This reflects that capacity is essential to ensure effective implementation of policies and programmes, including efficient use of resources (NPC, 2020:104). Hence, there is a consensus that effective delivery of all agricultural development efforts and initiatives depends on the capacity.

(iv) Lack of skills and expertise to effectively manage and implement CSPs

As confirmed by the Business Enterprise (2015:66) and DAFF (2012:47), a shortage of appropriate skills and expertise remains an inhibiting factor in the development and transformation of the agriculture sector. The negative impact that the lack of skills has on the sector and in the implementation of agricultural support programmes elevates its importance and is, therefore, considered an alarming challenge. For the department to deliver on its mandate, in particular that of supporting smallholder producers (DALRRD, 2020c:52), CSP initiatives must be implemented by well-equipped and skilled technocrats. According to DAFF (2012:47), this aspect is necessary to ensure successful management and execution of programmes; however, it is often overlooked in the implementation of existing DALRRD CSPs programmes. The absence of the relevant and required skills compromises the productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, and competitiveness of the department and the sector in general (DAFF, 2012:47). Furthermore, it inhibits the successful management and implementation of CSPs initiatives. In addition, it is one of the key factors that contributing to the failure of many support programmes (DAFF, 2012:54) and, in turn, results in unsustainable CSP and compromised socio-economic service delivery.

(v) Lack of functional CSPs aimed at socio-economic programme delivery

Although CSPs are increasingly regarded as a solution to the complex and intractable socio-economic development challenges that have defeated single sector interventions (Raidimi & Kabiti, 2017:58; Rhys & Entwistle, 2010:679), most agriculture sector partnerships appear to be dysfunctional. The major causal reasons include partnership under-management, as well as inadequate managerial structures such as insufficient human resources, lack of clear planning, and inadequate managerial processes including poor coordination (van Hille, de Bakker, Ferguson, & Groenewegen, 2020:121) and differing priorities and perspectives (Just Governance Group: 2014:2). van Hille *et al.* (2020:1) expand reasons to include difficulty to align different interests, different cultures, and inequality between organisations, for example unequal share of resources of costs and benefits. According to Raidimi and Kabiti (2017:58), the bureaucratic nature and procedures of the public sector, which is limiting and inflexible in nature, are regarded as the major concerns that negatively affect the effectiveness of the partnerships. This unfavorable public sector environment led DALRRD to sparingly utilise cross-sector collaboration despite its importance to create innovative and sustainable solutions to the severe socio-economic service delivery problems (Battilana, Mair, Marquis & Seelos, 2018:1). However, without the CSP, the department would likely continue to experience slow progress in addressing socio-economic service delivery challenges.

1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

This study aims to investigate the use of social innovation in DALRRDs CSP to implement the Job Funds Programme. This aim was achieved through the following research objectives:

- i) To conceptually demarcate the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. This objective is addressed in Chapter 2.
- ii) To evaluate Public Administration theories influencing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. This objective is addressed in Chapter 2.
- iii) To investigate the role of CSPs in advancing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. This objective is addressed in chapters 3 and 4.
- iv) To investigate the use of social innovation by CSPs in public sector programme delivery. This objective is addressed in chapters 3 and 4.
- v) To identify challenges hindering the use of social innovation in CSPs. This objective will be addressed in chapters 3 and 4.
- vi) To determine the nature of DALRRD CSPs towards stimulating the use of social innovation for improved public sector programme delivery. This objective is addressed in Chapters 3 and 4.
- vii) To present a strategy for DALRRD to use social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery. This objective is addressed in chapters 4 and 5.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions for this study are:

- i) How do CSPs use social innovation for improved public sector programme delivery by DALRRD?
This research question is answered in chapters 4 and 5.
- ii) What could be a strategy for DALRRD to use social innovation in CSPs in improving its programme delivery? This research question is answered in chapters 4 and 5.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section presents the research methodology for this study.

1.6.1 Qualitative Research Approach and Design

Through an interpretivism paradigm, the qualitative research approach was applied to this study. A qualitative research approach allows the researcher to describe the phenomenon under investigation in detail through novel information and understandings, as well as critical or key issues (Strauss & Corbin, 1998:7,11; Forman et al., 2008:766). For this study, the selection of a qualitative approach is underpinned by three reasons. The first reason relates to the nature of the research problem. The second reason relates to the study aim, which was to investigate the use of SIs in DALRRDs CSPs by presenting a strategy for DALRRD CSPs to use SI towards improved public sector service delivery. In this regard, concerning both the research problem and aim, the development of such a strategy has not been undertaken. Thirdly, the selection of a qualitative research approach is supported by limited research on this phenomenon and the researcher gaining greater understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Maree, Creswell, Ebersohn, Eloff, Ferreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Plano Clark, 2022:59). Thus, through a process of inquiry the researcher sought to explore, understand, investigate, analyse, and explore the phenomenon under investigation (Maree et al., 2022:61).

Given the exploratory nature of this research, which is embedded in an emerging theoretical framework, this study applied an exploratory research design. This design allows the researcher to gain, develop and build a new understanding of the phenomenon by identifying key and critical issues (Maree et al., 2022:61). Application of an exploratory research design through a document analysis is supported by three reasons. The first reason is premised on the lack of research regarding the phenomenon which is SIs use in DALRRDs CSPs for which an exploratory design is deemed appropriate. The second reason relates to the researcher identifying key issues that would aid in gaining greater as well as a new understanding about the

research phenomenon. The third reason relates to the exploratory nature of the study which contributes to an emerging theoretical framework of the phenomenon through a conceptual framework (Maree et al., 2022:61; Maxwell, 2013). Hence the study, in Chapter 2 has as its foundation in Social innovation Theory and from this conceptually demarcates SIs use in public sector service delivery through the development of a conceptual framework. Further, in Chapter 3, a conceptual framework for CSPs to use SI in public sector service delivery is presented.

1.6.2 Data Collection and Analysis

A qualitative research approach uses qualitative methods to collect and analyse data (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003:50; Creswell, 2013:163) and document analysis is an example. Grounded in an exploratory research design, document analysis is used to achieve the study's aim, research objectives, and questions. Documents or textual data allow the researcher to consult all types of written communication whether printed or digital that could shed light on the phenomenon under investigation (Maree et al., 2022:100). For this study, these included documents that were available in the public domain, and this is considered important to obtain a holistic understanding and perspective of the research phenomena (Bowen, 2009:33). As rich sources of information, these documents are evaluated to confirm perspectives, interpretations, findings, and conclusions as well as to corroborate evidence across sources, concerning the research phenomenon (Moe & Karppinen, 2012:3).

Using document analysis as an analytical method to review and analyse print and digital documents, data are interpreted and examined to gain understanding, produce meaning towards producing empirical knowledge, and construct themes regarding the research phenomenon (Armstrong, n.d:1; Fischer, 2006; Moe & Karppinen, 2012:15). By applying content analysis, documents are systematically analysed through a literature review and analysis, and the identification of emerging patterns concerning the research phenomenon for thematic analysis (Bowen, 2009:32; Tummers and Karsten, 2012). Thematic analysis encompasses recognising patterns or themes that formed the basis of the analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Against this background, the execution of data collection and analysis in this study comprises 4 steps, namely (i) literature search (ii) literature analysis, (iii) literature review, and (iv) content analysis.

Step 1: Literature Search

A literature search comprises a planned, organised, or systematic search to obtain relevant literature for a research topic (Grewal, Kataria and Dhawan, 2016). For this study, the literature search was conducted by phrasing search terms as informed by the research objectives and research questions. These search terms

which were used to search for literature relevant to the research phenomenon were adjusted during the search to avoid the exclusion of other suitable relevant sources. This literature search was completed through electronic search engines such as the University of the Free State library electronic resources, Google and Google Scholar, the databases of accredited journals and publishers. The consulted documents include published research, peer-reviewed journal articles, policy documents, legislation, official government publications and documents, annual reports, peer-reviewed journal articles, printed and online public documents, doctoral thesis, master's thesis. All these data sources and databases that formed part of the literature search are available in the public domain.

Step 2: Literature analysis

The literature search executed during step 1 results in the literature analysis in step 2 (Grewal et al., 2016; Cooper, Booth, Varley-Campbell, Britten, and Garside, 2018). A literature analysis involves excluding irrelevant documents through the application of specific criteria (Grewal et al., 2016; Cooper et al., 2018). The first criterion includes not merely regarding documents produced through the literature search as complete, precise, or accurate. (Armstrong, n.d; Bowen, 2009:33). The relevance of documents would rather be evaluated by considering its contribution to the phenomenon under investigation as well as the study's theoretical and conceptual frameworks (second criterion) (Patton, 1990; Armstrong, n. d.). This includes the use of keywords in titles, abstracts, as well as literature or texts, to categorise literature according to the research phenomenon. Once categorisation is completed, irrelevant literature is excluded (Creswell, 2012:26 and Creswell, 2018a:70). Thirdly, upon satisfying the second criterion, the accuracy, authenticity, credibility, and representativeness of the selected documents are determined (third criterion). Finally, if the document satisfied all the criteria it was considered.

Step 3: Literature Review

A Literature review is exhaustive and undertaken to obtain a holistic overview of current and past sufficiently relevant research as well as seminal work about the research phenomenon (Maree et al., 2022:28). To this extent, a literature review provides the status quo of the research phenomenon, contextual issues and weaknesses, assists in identifying research and methodological gaps, and directs future research prospects (Paul & Criado, 2020; Maree et al., 2022:28). This study applies the literature review as an exhaustive iterative process of step 1 (literature search) and step 2 (literature analysis).

Step 4: Content analysis

This study applied content analysis of qualitative data, which encompassed gathering data within the framework of certain themes and interpreting these themes in an understandable way for the reader

(Creswell, 2012:16). Content analysis enables the researcher to draw reproducible and reliable inferences from texts (or other relevant information) to the settings in which they are used (Bengtsson, 2016). From the preceding steps 1 to 3, emerging patterns concerning the phenomenon were identified through a thematic analysis that includes recognising themes or patterns to become the basis of the analysis (Armstrong, 2020:3). Themes are described as subtle and abstract expressions, patterns, or processes that describe the phenomenon in question (Mishra & Dey, 2022). Content analysis is where similar data are gathered within the framework of certain concepts and themes and then interpreted in a way that the reader can understand (Creswell, 2012:163).

1.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Qualitative research is renowned for using strategies to enhance the credibility of the research design and analysis (Maree et al., 2022:61). In a qualitative study, validity is defined as the degree to which data, theoretical rationale, and methodologies support the suitability and appropriateness of the steps taken and the interpretations derived (Leung, 2015:325). Validity enables the readers to determine the soundness of the research questions, methodology used, sampling procedure, data processing procedure, and research conclusions (Thakur & Chetty, 2020). When content analysis is applied, the researcher can strive to give credibility by triangulating data (Armstrong, 2020:5). This can be achieved by reviewing collected data through several methodologies to confirm findings across data sets, thus reducing the influence of any biases that may be present in a single study (Armstrong, 2020:5). In this study, triangulation was achieved by analysing data from a variety of theoretical views and published research about the research phenomenon.

The reliability of research findings is concerned with the credibility of the findings. However, due to the human character of researchers, coding mistakes can never be eliminated, but just minimised. Hence, the researcher limited the influence of potential biases in this study by scrutinising the diverse sources of data that were consulted during data collection and content analysis to enhance triangulation (Morgan, 2022). Document analysis and content analysis were therefore used as complementary methods to enhance triangulation (Thakur & Chetty, 2020).

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

The significance of this study lies in four domains, namely the (i) Public Administration discipline, (ii) the South African policy agenda, (iii) using social innovation in public sector programme delivery and (iv) DALRRD use of CSPs. These domains and contributions in respect of the significance of this study are outlined in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Significance of the study

DOMAIN	CONTRIBUTION
Public Administration	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• To contribute to the discourse about the relevance of using social innovation in CSPs during public sector programme delivery.
South African policy agenda	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• To undertake research that contribute to the policy agenda regarding the use of social innovation for public sector programme delivery by DALRRD.
Social innovation in public sector programme delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• To contribute to the debate about the role and nature of CSPs towards stimulating the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery.• To contribute to the discourse on the significance of using social innovation in public sector programme delivery.• To present a conceptual framework for using social innovation in public sector programme delivery.
DALRRD	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• To present a conceptual framework for CSPs use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery.• To present a strategy for DALRRD to use social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery.

(Author: Own)

1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This section outlines the study according to the chapter outline.

Chapter 1: Overview and demarcation of the study

This chapter consists of an introduction (section 1.1), background and rationale (section 1.2), research problem (section 1.3), research aim and objectives (section 1.4), research questions (section 1.5), research methodology (section 1.6), reliability and validity (section 1.7), significance of study (section 1.8), chapter outline (section 1.9), and conclusion (section 1.10).

Chapter 2: A conceptual demarcation for the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery

This chapter commences with an introduction (section 2.1), followed by section 2.2 which evaluates Public Administration theories influencing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery.

Section 2.3 provides a conceptualisation of social innovation and section 2.4 provides a conceptual framework for using social innovation in public sector programme delivery. This chapter is concluded in section 2.5.

Chapter 3: Perspectives on CSPs and the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery

This chapter starts with an introduction (section 3.1). Section 3.2 conceptualises the concept of CSP by defining CSPs (3.2.1), reflecting on its attributes (section 3.2.2), contextualising conditions for CSPs (section 3.2.3), identifying the success factors of CSPs (section 3.2.4) and determining the consequences of using CSPs (3.2.5). Section 3.3 probes CSPs and the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery, commencing by discussing the nexus between CSPs and public sector programme delivery (section 3.3.1), the role of CSPs in advancing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery (section 3.3.2), and challenges hampering the use of social innovation in CSPs (section 3.3.3). Section 3.4 offers a conceptual framework for CSPs to use social innovation in public sector programme delivery. Section 3.5 concludes this chapter.

Chapter 4: Case of the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development and Cross-Sector Partnerships in the implementation of jobs fund programme

This chapter commences with the introduction in Section 4.1, followed by the case of DALRRD regarding CSPs use of social innovation in the Jobs Fund Programme (section 4.2). Next, the use of SI in CSPs in the case of the Jobs Fund Programme in DALRRD is evaluated (Section 4.3). Section 4.3 evaluates SI's use in CSPs in implementing the Jobs Funds Programme by DALRRD. In Section 4.4 CPS' stimulation of SI's use for improved public sector service delivery programmes by DALRRD is discussed. Next, a strategy is presented for DALRRD to use of social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery (section 4.5). This chapter is concluded in Section 4.6.

Chapter 5: Concluding Chapter

This chapter comprises an introduction (section 5.1) and reflects on the achievements of the study's aim, objectives, and research questions (section 5.2). Subsequently, lessons learnt for practice and future research (section 5.3) are followed by Section 5.4, which presents recommendations. In section 5.5, the chapter and mini dissertation are concluded.

1.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview and demarcation of the study by introducing the study in section 1.1. Next, the focus of the study was presented outlining the case of DALRRD in section 1.2 which provided

the background and rationale, the research problem (section 1.3), aim and objectives (1.4), and the research questions (section 1.5). In section 1.6, the research methodology was described which was followed by a discussion of how reliability and validity was ensured in this study (Section 1.7). Subsequently, Section 1.8 presented the significance of the study in respect of its contribution to four domains, namely (i) public administration, (ii) South African policy agenda, (iii) use of SI in public sector programme delivery, and (iv) DALRRD use of CSPs to advance the use of SI to improve public sector programme delivery. Subsequently, Section 1.9 provided the chapter outline and Section 1.10 concluded the chapter. Next, Chapter 2 provides a conceptual demarcation for SI use in public sector programme delivery.

CHAPTER 2: A CONCEPTUAL DEMARCATION FOR THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Today's public sector organisations appear to be incapable of dealing with both current and future problems (Sossna, 2014:11). This is in part attributed to conventional approaches to public sector service delivery, which are considered irrelevant (Biljohn, 2018:28) and ineffective (Pedersen & Johannsen, 2018:5). Moreover, these traditional approaches are unable to cope with the fast pace of 21st-century public sector service delivery. Among other things needed to meet the challenges of the 21st century, are rapid and transformative changes in societal behavior (Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1; Sossna, 2014:11). This calls for innovation in public sector service delivery for radical transformation, and SI is found relevant in expressing those changes (Gordon, Becerra & Fressoli, 2017:1). SIs have recently been gaining momentum and has captured the attention of policymakers and researchers (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Li, Sadick, Musah & Mustapha, 2018:4; Marques, Morgan & Richardson, 2017:385; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:11). The growing attention and the importance of the SI concept is mainly driven by the new understanding of development.

In the account of financial and economic predicaments, SIs are becoming increasingly recognised, as they relate to radical change in social practices considering these turbulent economic and social environments (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:2). Borzaga and Bodini (2014:413) also confirm that since the onset of the economic crisis, SI became a prominent feature of the policy debate (Tarnawska & Ćwiklicki, 2012:242) pointed out that the delivery of public sector services through SI is imperative, especially in lieu of social, economic, and financial turmoil coupled with demographic, population growth and environmental challenges. According to Li *et al.* (2018:11), infusing SIs in the activities of organisations to resolve social issues may help in finding enhanced solutions to societal problems or meeting the needs of society and the public.

Against this background, the chapter provides a conceptual demarcation for SI use in public sector programme delivery. The commences with an introduction (Section 2.1), followed by Section 2.2 which evaluates Public Administration theories influencing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. Section 2.3 provides a conceptualisation of social innovation and Section 2.4 provides a conceptual framework for using social innovation in public sector programme delivery. This chapter is concluded in Section 2.5.

2.2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION THEORIES INFLUENCING THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY

Since the 1970s, public administration has undergone unavoidable changes (Reinholde, 2017:150). The major driving force behind such changes is globalisation and the pluralisation of service provision (Liddle, 2018:985) which led to the adoption of modern reforms known as the “NPM” (Xu, Sun & Si *et al.*, 2015:12; Vignieri, 2020:7). This was an attempt to re-engineer public administration, which has long been criticised for being inefficient at solving societal problems, leading to a more bureaucratised government, with decision-making that is stuck in inflexible hierarchies and excessive internal control (Pedersen & Johannsen, 2018:5). NPM evolved in the 1980s (Katsamunskas, 2012:78; Kempe, 2001: 119; Strokosch, 2018:14) as an approach focusing on the use of market or private mechanisms as a substitute for centralised delivery systems and strict conformity to regulations (Duren, Goldstein, Landøy, Repanovici & Saarti, 2019:343; Fatemi & Behmanesh, 2012:42; Katsamunskas, 2012:78). The key goal of this reform is to “mobilise and effectively use all sorts of institutional and external environmental resources and opportunities to implement changes that would ensure reaching strategic state and regional goals and objectives as well as helping to meet the legitimate expectations, needs, and interests of society” (Patapas, Raipa & Smalskys, 2014:25).

The NPM reforms already contributed significantly to the transformation of the public sector (Ibrahim, 2012:2; Islam, 2015:142), in particular for its substantial improvements in public sector efficiency and responsiveness. However, as time evolves, it became impossible for the NPM to solve the rising new and grave challenges including the ongoing process of globalisation, dire fiscal constraints, the increasing number of wicked problems and the need for innovative solutions to break policy deadlocks and heighten the quality of public services (Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:6). Moreover, it was criticised for not being an excellent public administration reform, especially by focusing less on the social aspects of innovation due to its capitalist entrepreneurial spirit (Liddle, 2018:982; Reinholde, Guogis, Smalskys, Žičkienė, & Klimovsky, 2020:8), its lack of efficiency (Pedersen & Johannsen, 2018:5; Petrescu, Popescu, Barbu & Dinescu, 2010:413), and its narrow intra-organisational focus which disregards the complex network of actors involved within public sector service delivery (Rhodes, 1996 as cited by Jooste, 2008:6). Henceforward, as an attempt to mitigate the pitfalls and limitations of the NPM, the NPG emerged as a holistic approach needed to address societal issues (Reinholde *et al.*, 2020:6; Vignieri, 2020:11) and persisting challenges faced by the governments. The NPG as one of the PA theories on which this study is premised is discussed in the next section.

2.2.1 New Public Governance Theory

The NPG administration made its start in the late 1970s, and without fully disappearing, became more prominent in the early 1980s (Brudney & England 1983; Whitaker, 1980 cited by Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:354). Then since the 21st century, many public administration academics have paid more attention to the NPG theory, which transcends the Traditional Public Administration (TPA) and NPM (Xu *et al.*, 2015:11). The NPG refers to a set of doctrines and approaches intended to promote the greater common good and integrate public values across the political system (Liddle, 2018:968). It is an administration approach comprising a pluralistic governance body, which includes the government, the private sector, third sector, and social groups, consults and negotiates to acclimatise to the changing societal matters (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:112; Xu *et al.*, 2015:14; Sapparojattana, 2020:177). Pereira and Ckagnazaroff (2020:112) subsequently expanded their definition of NPG as referring to the relationship between those who are governing and those being governed associated with the co-production of development, mainly with a more inclusive democracy to enable the citizen to develop, coordinate and assess public policies. Reinholde *et al.* (2020:11) regard the NPG as a human caring administration reform in which social-economic safety, social cohesion and social empowerment are the most essential components.

The “NPG” evolved as a theory adapted to contemporary public administration. It was developed in response to the criticisms of the NPM approach in the 1980s, which, in a nutshell, promoted business-model in the delivery of public sector services (Xu *et al.*, 2015:11; Vinokur-Kaplan, 2018:447). According to Jooster (2008:10), this view has emerged in response to the general blurring of boundaries between public and private sectors, needing a mechanism that would ensure that the power and authority do not only rest with the government. It aims to handle complex issues better than bureaucracies (Steurer, 2007:10), to solve problems of complex and fragmented public policy and public policy-making (Fierlbeck, Gardner, & Levy, 2018:45; Patapas *et al.*, 2014:28), and to solve assortment dilemmas of public service delivery (Patapas *et al.*, 2014:28; Vinokur-Kaplan, 2018:447) in the new era. Thus, this discourse is both an outcome and a response to the increasingly complex, challenging, plural, and fragmented nature of public policy implementation and service delivery in the 21st century (Osborne, 2010:9).

Different scholars view the NPG as focusing on various issues. For instance, according to Jooster (2008:19), the NPG focuses on reforming public sector organisations internally, through aspects such as decentralisation, competition, and accountability. The view of Strokosch (2018:12) is that the NPG is concerned more with humanistic and democratic administration; issues of politics and matters of justice and fairness; institution building and professional competence, while the view of Vinokur-Kaplan (2018:445) is that the NPG seeks to increase the overall effectiveness and efficiency of public services.

According to Xu *et al.* (2015:13), it focuses on the organisation's operation mechanism and set more attention to the efficiency of the public administration and participation of citizens in governance issues. According to Patapas *et al.* (2014:25), the principal objective of the NPG is to mobilise and effectively use resources and opportunities to implement transformative changes that would guarantee the attainment of strategic goals and objectives as well as meeting the needs of society. This reform is aimed at outcomes related to innovative policies and services produced through crosscutting multi-actor collaboration (Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:7), and emphasises effective, efficient, and well-functioning collaborations and networks among service providers (Vinokur-Kaplan, 2018:445).

As a reform of public service delivery, the NPG is firmly embedded within institutional and network theory (Osborne, 2010:9; Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:860). Banking on this theory, "the NPG posits both a plural state, where multiple interdependent actors contribute to the delivery of public services, and a pluralist state, where multiple processes inform the policy-making system" (Almog-Bar, 2018:344; Osborne, 2010:9). The NPG is attentive to the institutional and external environmental forces that can either enable or constrain the implementation of public policy and the delivery of public services under such a plural and pluralist system (Osborne, 2010:9). As a network theory, the NPG intends to address assorted issues that would make public administration more effective and efficient. From the theoretical connotation of the NPG, the following eight characteristics of the NPG were discovered:

- a) **First**, the principles of the NPG are concerned with the development of social welfare, social quality, social responsibility, and social justice (Reinholde *et al.*, 2020:11).
- b) **Secondly**, the NPG is associated with flexible and responsive rules that require the government to listen and effectively respond to citizens' concerns and preferences searching the solutions to societal problems (Pedersen & Johannsen, 2018:20). The NPG advocates a more flexible and participatory public administration to achieve higher efficiency and increased legitimacy (Pedersen & Johannsen, 2018:2).
- c) **Thirdly**, the principles of the NPG are oriented towards the participation of citizens (Reinholde *et al.*, 2020:11). The NPG emphasises the dispersion of power (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14), therefore citizens are involved in the production of public services (Lystbaek, Holmgren & Friis, 2021:9). Previously, the government has ignored the right of public or private organisations to participate in public affairs, which made the government fail to properly address public problems (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14). It is for this reason that this public administration discourse values community participation in

public affairs management and in solving public problems. As raised by Pereira and Ckagnazaroff (2020:114), citizen participation in the public service cycle strengthens the realisation of public goals, and it is therefore regarded as an effective alternative for modern administration.

- d) **Fourthly**, the NPG emphasises the government to be a coordinator or facilitator. Historically, the government was regarded as the centre of public administration, from policy formulation to implementation. The NPG seeks to move the government from paternalism to a coordinator and from national government to local government and coordinate social needs and interests, establish a dialogue platform in which the administrators and the public negotiate and reach a consensus. In this regard, the government ought to continuously enhance its coordinating role to solve complex social problems. (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14)

- e) **Fifthly**, the formation of complex networks is another remarkable trait of the NPG (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:115; Steurer, 2007:9). The administrative governing process underpinning the NPG is characterised by collaboration (Hartley, Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:828). Unlike the NPM which enhances the “silo-character” of public administration (Steurer, 2007:9), the NPG promotes networks and collaborations (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:115). Networks in this regard refer to a kind of social collaboration by which the interaction between the participants makes the network relatively stable and satisfy different interest subject (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14). Commonly the networks are comprised of government, public organisations, social organisations, society, market and individual citizens (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14). These networks have progressively become relevant, considering that they are a way to manage policies and projects that involve multifaceted problems, limited resources, various actors, and the interaction of public and private agents (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:115). The network approach of governance is commonly assumed to effectively deal with complex and cross-sectoral issues (Steurer, 2007:9).

- f) **Lastly**, the NPG values the role of social public organisations. According to the NPG, the crux of public service is pursuing public interests and serving citizens. In this view, social public organisations provide public goods and services not to generate profit but to solve social problems in a voluntary partnership arrangement. (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14)

As the new approach of public administration, it provided a new mode of practice for modern public sector administration in which the government is no longer viewed as a single force to develop and implement public policy (UNDP, 2015:2). NPG’s emphasis on a move of public administration from centralisation to

pluralism seems to discard the monopoly of government in public administration and make it possible for citizen networks and corporations to share power and authority with the government in various ways (Xu *et al.*, 2015:15). Another contribution denoted by Biljohn (2018:32) is that the interdependent and pluralistic relationships between government and citizens result in a citizen-centred approach. According to Biljohn, this approach is well aligned with inclusiveness, and its adoption may lead to appropriate solutions to societal problems. Involving citizens in the public policy decision-making processes, may contribute to developing strategies that meet citizens' needs, which has not been in practice with other existing PA reforms (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:111). The NPG is considered an effective PA reform as it creates the balance between democracy and efficiency to meet the ever-changing needs faced by society (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:119; Xu, *et al.*, 2015:20).

In general, the principles of the NPG could lead to governments achieving a better and more stable democratic development and minimising the negative impact of the NPM in various spheres of public sector reforms (Reinholde *et al.*, 2020:1). The network governance model rooted within the NPG guarantees the mobilisation of resources and expertise to solve difficult problems (Fierlbeck *et al.*, 2018:48), and as such this benefits its participants with abundant social resource exchange and information (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14; Vinokur-Kaplan, 2018:447). In this way, it promotes the mechanism for sharing in public management to fulfill the diverse needs of citizens and interest subjects (Xu *et al.*, 2015:14). The complementarity of the resources amongst the actors then makes it possible for public administration to be more effective and responsive (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:118).

Due to the NPG's great contribution to the public administration and government management, this theory is becoming the most desired and admired PA reform directed towards the pitfalls of the NPM, with its qualities of pluralism, democracy, openness, transparency, social responsibility, social quality, social justice, anti-corruption and more active third sector as well as public access to information as compared to other PA theories (Reinholde *et al.*, 2020:12). These are values desperately required to overcome the side effects and externalities of modernisation (Reinholde *et al.*, 2020:1). Hence, nowadays, the NPG reforms are widely embraced across the world as they are often regarded to have huge potential to increase and improve the effectiveness of and increase resource availability for public service delivery (Bovaird, Flemig, Loeffler & Osborne, 2010:230; Osborne, Radnor & Strokosch, 2015:644; Reinholde *et al.*, 2020:12). This is supported by Fierlbeck *et al.*, (2018:45) and Vinokur-Kaplan (2018:447) that the NPG has become the prime and dominant reform of public policy implementation and public services delivery, with more effort centered on the development of sustainable public policies and public services, and the governance of inter-organisational relationships.

Despite its valuable contribution, the NPG shift seems to be criticised by various scholars. This is affirmed by Torfing and Triantafillou (2013:17) that notwithstanding the NPG's potential to improve policymaking and service production, it is no universal remedy and therefore, it poses numerous critical challenges to public administration. For instance, according to Liddle (2018:986), while the NPG approaches offer useful correctives in public management by focusing on inter-organisations' networks and citizen engagement, it does not offer a comprehensive solution to public service efficiency and effectiveness problems. Pedersen and Johannsen (2018:20) slightly share the same sentiment that the increasing societal complexity and diversified portfolio tasks in public administration added a challenge of ensuring a balance between responsiveness, effectiveness, and accountability. Because the NPG approach is founded on flexibility and responsiveness, and expects the government to listen and respectively respond to the needs and preferences of citizens, the NPG is on the verge between responsiveness and the risk that flexibility in pursuit of particularistic interests impedes objectivity and accountability (Pedersen & Johannsen, 2018:20).

Another critique observed is that the NPG separates the planning and design of service stages, which appears to be counterproductive to service delivery (Biljohn, 2018:33). Again, considering that the NPG entails collaborative interaction between different organisations within and outside the public sector actors, the collaboration process may be dominated, determined, and controlled by the more resourceful and powerful public organisations (Torfing & Triantafillou, 2013:18). Moreover, even though the NPG suggests a citizen-oriented and participative society, only a few studies indicate its implementation methods (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:119). Liddle (2018:978) and Reinholde *et al.* (2020:12) similarly caution that regardless of the theoretical attractiveness of the NPG, this reform still lacks concrete and practical implementation methods and tools. However, the important view presented by Fierlbeck *et al.* (2018:60) is that despite the limitations of the applicability or implementability of the NPG, there is a greater opportunity for the application of its principles of collaborative and cooperative governance.

Considering that wicked problems facing the public sector and civil societies cannot be solved by a single organisation effort (Bason, 2010:88), in the NPG approach, public services are delivered by multiple, interdependent agencies (Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:356; Liddle, 2018: 969). NPG stresses that network collaboration may overcome the limitations and/or compensate for deficiencies of hierarchies and market competition; networks are assumed to overhaul fragmented services because of TPA and NPM and to advance partnerships across sectors (McGuire & Agranoff, 2011: 279; Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:845). The NPG emphasises the importance of employing a collaborative approach in the provision of public services,

working together with partners/actors within and across the public, non-profit organisations, and private sectors (Morgan & Shinn, 2015:3; Sapparajpattana, 2020:177).

The NPG asserts that collaboration, coordination, and integration are as important to the policy as to competition (Fierlbeck *et al.*, 2018:47). The NPG emphasises pluralism, in that way values the importance of the links between internal and external organisations and emphasises organisational governance (Osborne, 2010:2; Sapparajpattana, 2020:177; Xu, *et al.*, 2015:12). The NPG places more emphasis on the relationship between government and the market while putting more attention on the public administration networks established by government, and public and private groups. The immediate goal of such collaboration is to pool and exchange public and private resources and expertise to enhance effective and democratic governance, while a further goal is to build shared ownership of new and innovative solutions as well as to facilitate mutual and transformative learning (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:828; Torfing & Triantafillou, 2013:15).

The emphasis on collaboration is because the NPG views governance as a collaborative process, requiring a wide spectrum of actors to enable the pursuit of innovative solutions to the most pressing public problems. Collaboration is intended to heighten the exchange of knowledge, ideas and resources to boost the innovative capacity to produce outcomes that are deemed valuable by actors (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:828; Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:861). It is believed that bringing a range of stakeholders from all sectors, including the users and citizens themselves, improves understanding of the problem or challenge at hand and facilitates the cross-fertilisation of ideas and innovative solutions (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:828; Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:112). This can enable the creation of much smarter, ‘holistic’ interventions that would ensure that the needs of users or citizens are fully considered, and help identify the most innovative solutions for future interventions (Bason, 2010:153). This view has led to increasing consensus that multi-actor collaboration in networks, partnerships, and inter-organisational can induce public innovation (Sørensen & Torfing, 2015:164). Because the NPG co-exists with odds and ends of past public administration reforms by just putting a new layer of institutional practice into current systems, the co-existence of various governing paradigms would give rise to the innovative capacity of the public sector, and this would help improve public policies and services for present and future challenges (Sørensen & Torfing, 2015:164). Furthermore, this would induce diverse types of public sector innovation, including SI, which is recently gaining mass attention in public service delivery.

SI is a process that aims to provide new solutions to unresolved societal problems (Lévesque, 2012:15). It is an outcome of joint governance or interaction of multi-actors (Hulgård & Ferreira, nd:28). SI in the public

sector is regarded as part of the NPG, by which autonomous but independent actors endeavor to shape the content and outcomes of policy initiatives (Logue, 2019: no page). Hence, the NPG regards SI as emerging from collaborative and participatory processes in society (Hulgård & Ferreira, nd:28). SI demonstrates that public, private and nonprofit sectors can form networks and partnerships to co-produce innovative initiatives, which have an outcome of improving socio-economic development (Albertson, Fox, O’Leary & Painter, 2020:9; Bevilacqua, Ou, Pizzimenti & Minervino, 2019:2; Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:4; Xu *et al.*, 2015:13). Noting that the NPG is aimed at outcomes related to innovative policies and services and such outcomes are produced through crosscutting multi-actor collaboration (Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:7), so it is the SI. According to Bevilacqua *et al.* (2019:2), the networks and collaboration governance model embedded within the NPG are capable of driving and promoting SI. This is because the NPG emphasises complex relationships aimed at reinforcing partnerships, collaborations and network-based SI across various sectors (Hulgård & Ferreira, nd:28). This makes it perfectly relevant to this study as it seeks to investigate how CSPs can advance SI for improved socio-economic public sector service delivery. The next section deliberates on the SI as another PA theory relevant in this study.

2.2.2 Social Innovation Theory

SI emerged as an essential concept in the areas of public administration, science and politics since its origin in Ancient Greece (Hulgård, nd:25; Sossna, 2014:4). SI is not a new concept, as it has taken place (Mulgan, 2012:52) since the second half of the 19th century (Marques *et al.*, 2017:497). Its notion can even be traced back as far as Max Weber (1930) and Emile Durkheim (1983) times (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014:411; 385; Croitoru, 2012:138). It can further be traced back to the origins of innovation research that was founded by Joseph Schumpeter, born in 1883, who in his academic career specialised in law and economics at the University of Vienna (Sossna, 2014:4).

The Schumpeterian approach to development was built in such a way as to recognise a necessary symbiosis between economic, social, historical, and political elements because his viewpoint is that economic phenomena are not the only means for development or solving problems (Croitoru, 2012:138). Hence, there is a worldwide consensus that problems cannot be solved by finance and economic growth only whereas today’s problems are more and more on a social dimension (Croitoru, 2012:138; Sossna, 2014:23). Addressing today’s problems needs a transformative change in societal behavior and SIs are believed to be the driving forces to bring about those changes (Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1; Sossna, 2014:11). SI is classified as a social theory, in which it is interpreted as a phenomenon that results in new forms of cooperation, participation and action built on already existing resources and structures (Sossna, 2014:18) to meet unmet needs to improve people’s lives.

SI is an umbrella term to creatively and positively solving social challenges by identifying and providing new services and products (European Commission, 2013:6; Moeenian, Khamseh, & Ghazavi, 2022:2), and new processes (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014:415) to improve the livelihood of the people. It is a new way of tackling unsolved social problems and needs as well as deeply rooted development issues, which have not been successfully solved by government or private sectors (Noya, 2011:21; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). SI encompasses new practices, processes, methods, and regulations that are developed and adopted to meet and cope with social demands and to resolve societal problems in an improved way better than is possible by using existing practices (Howaldt, 2017:124; Pue, Vandergeest, & Breznitz, 2015:10; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2). It is a tool that promotes social change by enhancing the lives of people and addressing the needs of the underprivileged who are not able or have limited access to products and services due to their economic background (European Commission, 2013:6; Li *et al.*, 2018:11).

The main aim of SI is to tackle complex societal challenges by providing novel solutions (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:3; Noya, 2011:21; TEPSIE, 2015:6) and to enhance the living standards of the poor, while also making economic returns (Li *et al.*, 2018:5). Its goal is a systemic change to achieve a social goal and create value beyond existing processes (Dhondt, Oeij, & Schröder, 2017:46; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). SI is concerned with improving the quality of life and welfare for all, which is achieved through new employment opportunities and new forms of participation and collaboration to be able to provide novel solutions to problems facing individuals and communities (Li *et al.*, 2018:11; Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:3). Importantly, the purpose of SI is not merely to develop new ideas and processes, but to also ensure those new solutions are workable in practice, are sustainable and lead to systematic change once scaled-up into public policy processes (Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:3). Hence the growing importance of SI (Li *et al.*, 2018:5; Tarnawska & Ćwiklicki, 2012:237; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:205).

The significance of SI for effectively addressing the social, economic, political and environmental challenges of the 21st century has been recognised globally (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:1). Its prosperity is demonstrated by its growing importance in public debates as well as its theoretical potential for solving current and future challenges (i.e., economic and financial crises, poverty, unemployment and inequalities) and the growing number of public programmes supporting Sis in the local, district, national and global levels (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:1). According to Noya (2011:22), SI solves several challenges and has positive impacts. Importantly, SI does not only provide solutions to persistent social needs, but the process of SI itself is beneficial to transformative change, rather than just improvements in products and services

(Didero et al. 2008 cited by Albertson, *et al.* 2020:6). Its other remarkable contribution is the modernisation of public services (Noya, 2011:22) and the substantial role it played in the current development and expansion of the public innovation agenda (Sørensen & Torfing, 2015:150). It also shapes new processes and services in a more tailored approach to enable increased public sector efficiency (Noya, 2011:22).

Fundamentally, the SI approach opens new viewpoints on recognised challenges and opportunities, thus simultaneously unlocking possibilities for new practices, particularly in the midst of basic paradoxes and misunderstandings reflected in existing innovation policy (Howaldt, 2017:131). The notion of SI has helped to make a new focus on policy and service innovation in the public sector, and has revealed how collaboration can drive public sector innovation (Sørensen & Torfing, 2015:164). SI is capable of mobilising and integrating various stakeholders to jointly tackle problems, through new means of working together, involving users (European Commission, 2013:15).

Based on its contribution to addressing wicked problems (Grimm, Fox, Baines & Albertson, 2013:450) and the efficient role it plays in society (Li *et al.*, 2018:5), as well as its evident potential in the public sector (European Commission, 2013:10), SI has recently been embraced by several organisations and various scholars including socio-economic scholars from diverse disciplines regard it as a way to the future (European Commission, 2013:10; Grimm *et al.*, 2013:439; Li *et al.*, 2018:5; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:205). The idea of SI is particularly appealing in light of the difficulties facing traditional welfare systems that find it increasingly difficult to meet the diversified and growing needs of society (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014:411). From the public policy point of view, SI is considered significant as old hierarchical governance systems have proven ineffective in addressing policy problems especially poverty and social exclusion aspects (Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:3). Hence, many developed and developing countries have been using SI for delivery and improving public services. Already SI is evidently used much in success in European and Asian countries as well as the United States of America for public service delivery (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:70). In SA, SI is already addressed in many policy documents such as the 1994 White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, 1996 White Paper on Science and Technology, NDP Vision 2030, and 2021 White Paper on the Social and Solidarity Economy. However, SI use for improving service delivery appears to receive little attention from policymakers and the concept is still not adequately integrated into the National innovation system (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:70).

Although SI is recognised as an important tool for fighting social problems and reengineering public service delivery, the concept appears to be receiving less attention (Li *et al.*, 2018:4). Of this reason, to date, SI is still theoretically difficult to define (Mulgan, 2012:61), and lacking theoretical grounding and the evidence

to justify its effectiveness in addressing socio-economic challenges (Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:6). It is concurred that the concept of SI is under-theorised (Grimm *et al.*, 2013:447) and as such still lacks formal knowledge and vast experience (Mulgan, 2012:45). According to Grimm *et al.* (2013:446), the field of SI remains fragmented and there is a need for more developed networks required to nurture and scale-up Sis. However, Dhondt *et al.* (2017:51) and TEPSIE (2014:4) highlight that the development and growth of SI are hindered by aspects such as limited access to finances, poorly developed networks, and limited skills and support structures. However, the view of Krlev, Anheier, and Mildemberger (2019:19) is that SI typically takes longer to evolve and sustain due to its high degree of grass-roots and bottom-up involvement.

Furthermore, at its inception, SI is usually marked by a high level of uncertainty, simply because it has never been implemented before (Howaldt, 2017:128; TEPSIE, 2015:6). Due to this uncertainty, it becomes impossible to indicate at the onset whether SI is good, better, or more effective than other existing alternatives. Given the limited proof of whether SI can or has already delivered on some of its promises, therefore, without such evidence, it becomes difficult to judge to what extent SI can help develop sustainable responses to the most burning social challenges of the 21st century (Grimm *et al.*, 2013:451)

Moreover, with their orientation towards solutions to social and economic challenges that cannot be adequately dealt with through traditional ways of government and economic activities, Sis turn to challenge existing practices and organisations in various ways (Howaldt, 2017:128). Among other challenges is that even though SI's success is dependent on various actors, to some extent, it may not equally benefit all actors or stakeholders, to some it may create negative effects (Nicholls, Simon & Gabriel, 2015:13). Despite these criticisms, SI is increasingly being perceived as a viable solution to socio-economic public policy problems (Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:6). Hence, worldwide the concept of SI has been receiving attention from governments' institutions, international organisations, and NGOs as well as socio-economic scholars in guiding public policies (Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1; Grimm *et al.*, 2013:450). The increased importance of Sis is noticed in terms of research efforts and policymaking practices that emphasise collaborations and partnerships in the provision of services (Grimm *et al.*, 2013:450; Tarnawska & Ćwiklicki, 2012:239).

The emphasis on collaboration and partnerships is due to the fact that SI is an inter-disciplinary approach that cuts across all sectors of society: public, private and civil society (Harayama & Nitta, 2011:16; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:13; TEPSIE, 2014:38). It is important to highlight that SI initiatives and SI's success are deeply reliant on collaboration and the capacity to combine the thinking, ideas, expertise and resources of inter-disciplinary actors (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:18; Rehfeld, Scharinger, Weber & Romberg, 2017:84; TEPSIE, 2014:38). That is why collaborative partnerships in the

field of SI are increasing, with public and private organisations, and civil society playing a role in those partnerships (European Commission, 2013:15; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; Rehfeld, *et al.*, 2017:84). In its nature, SI is not one sector’s monopoly hence it can as well be absorbed by a sector different (also known as a cross-sector) from the one in which they were formed (Noya, 2011:23). SI is the result of joint effort, creativeness and a collective vision. Therefore, for SI to thrive, cross-pollination/ collaborative partnerships are necessary to extend and upscale Sis (Noya, 2011:23).

The collaborative partnerships are the most fruitful source and fertile ground for SI to take place (European Commission, 2013:15) as they provide a platform for sharing experiences, knowledge and mutual learning from best practices in a local, regional, national and international spheres (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52; TEPSIE, 2014:38). Collaboration creates a conducive environment for SI to actively promotes networks and inclusive relationships among individuals, especially the previously marginalised and neglected by previous economic, social, political and cultural processes (Marques *et al.*, 2017:500). In support of this, the literature on SI also tends to emphasise the collaborative aspect (Sørensen & Torfing, 2015:163) and CSPs aspect of innovation processes. Hence SI theory is generally associated with collective creation and partnerships (Howaldt, 2017:124; Sossna, 2014:18), which is relevant to this study as it investigates the synergy between SI and CSPs. Having discussed both the NGP and SI as the PA theories on which this study is based, it is then necessary to reflect on their similarities. Table 2.1 summarises the commonalities of the two conceptual theories:

Table 2.1: Commonalities between the NPG and SI

Perspective	NPG	SI
Theoretical roots	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integrity theory, collectivism/ Institutional/ network theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social theory, network/co-creation theory
Nature of the state	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Plural and Pluralist 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Plural
Key challenge solved	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Administration failure due to complexity (effectiveness) Growing complexity and wickedness of the problems and challenges facing public service production 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Societal challenges and social needs that are unable to be solved by existing strategies
Guiding principle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Efficiency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social change

Goal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhancement of efficiency, effectiveness and quality of public services through resource mobilisation and innovation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social change and social impact
Strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Citizen-centred, citizen co-creation, participation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Citizen co-creation and co-delivery
Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Democracy and efficiency • Openness and collaboration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Citizen/user involvement and participation • Sustainability, empowerment
Governance model/ mechanism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Networks • Co-operation/collaboration (collaboration through networks and partnerships) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collaboration and cooperation
Role of citizen	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participate in decision making • Equal partners in policy-making and service delivery • Co-producers and co-creators of wellbeing services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Co-producers and co providers of services • Participate in all stages of service delivery
Role of government	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitator 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coordinator

Source: (Lystbaek, *et al.*, 2021:7) (Osborne, 2010:10) (Sørensen & Torfing, 2016:163) (Steurer, 2007:10) (Xu *et al.*, 2015:13)

SI gets its importance in social theory concerning the transformation of the society and improvement of society's capacities to solve unmet problems (Sossna, 2014:19) whereas the importance of the NPG rests within the integrity theory. Furthermore, as pointed out by Osborne (2010:9) and Howaldt and Schröder (2017:4), the NPG and SI are rooted upon the network theory and based on that public sector no longer acts to control and command actors within the hierarchy, but rather focuses relatively on negotiating and persuading to attain optimal outcome from the augmented complexity of relationships within the network (Jooster, 2008:11). Networks and partnerships are the key important factors for driving SI (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4) and NPG. Salamon (2002) cited by Jooste (2008:10) appears to recognise that public problems have become too complex for public organisations to handle on their own. Hence, both NPG and SI highly value the importance of network governance mode in public service delivery. It is against this fact that the elements of the NPG and SI are centered on collaborative and partnership governance to solve the dilemmas and complexities of public policy and service delivery efficiently and effectively.

Furthermore, both NPG and SI emphasise participation in the decision-making process, by including multiple stakeholders: citizens, the voluntary sector, business, and different spheres of government (Xu *et al.*, 2015:13). It is because the NPG and SI recognise plural societies that involve multiple actors who depend on one another in the delivery of public services (Sapparojattana, 2020:177). Because of this, in most countries approaches to the NPG focus on the complex linkages between government and non-government as well as private sector actors to deliver public goods and services (Liddle, 2018:978). Most importantly, for both theories citizens are regarded as partners and active participants rather than consumers of public services. Citizens are required to play the role of partners within the service delivery cycle (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:75). In a nutshell, SI and the NPG share several commonalities. It is for this reason that SI in the public sector is regarded as part of NPG (Logue, 2019: no page), and this makes sense given the high degree of similarities between these two theories. SI and the NPG are founded on the same theoretical roots, governance mechanisms and strategies, and both value collaboration as critical in solving complex societal issues as depicted in Figure 1.1.



Figure 2.1: Process view of NPG and SI (Author: Own)

The process outlined in Figure 1.1 shows that both the NPG and SI respond to the specific societal needs or challenges, considering that today barely none of society’s wicked challenges can be solved through the isolated efforts of a single actor or authority (Bason, 2010:88; Campomoria & Casula, 2022:1; Raidimi & Kabiti, 2017:58), various actors must come together in addressing such challenges or needs or to achieve a specific outcome. In this viewpoint, it is claimed that public sector problems are multidimensional and complex, and to discover and implement solutions to these problems, information, knowledge, skills, and competencies of public and third sector agents, and citizens and community, in general, are essential

(Hulgård,nd:28). Particularly in SI, citizen or service user participation is the core in delivering public service delivery or addressing societal needs or challenges. To gain more insight on SI, the next section conceptualises SI within the public sector service delivery.

2.3 CONCEPTUALISATION OF SOCIAL INNOVATION

Global problems such as poverty, unemployment, and insufficient resources have been threatening the socio-economic development of many nations (Li *et al.*, 2018:4), thus triggering the inquisitiveness to discover new ways of resolving such societal challenges. This burning curiosity in exploring innovative ways led to the discovery of the SI concept (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014:411; 385; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). However, it is important to note that SI is not a new concept at all (European Commission, 2013:5; Mulgan, 2012:52), it only appears to be entering a new phase where it is increasingly viewed as a relevant approach to the most pressing socio-economic challenges (Grimm *et al.*, 2013:437; Marques *et al.*, 2017:385; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:18).

To confirm that SI is an old concept, its existence can be backtracked to the early 19th century (Marques *et al.*, 2017:497), long before technological-economic meanings determined the common understanding of innovation (European Union, 2018:17). It emerged as a concept of debates in British and French between 1960s and 1970s (European Commission, 2010 cited by Sørensen & Torfing, 2015:151). Due to its lack of theoretical foundation, it became unpopular for some time, and only re-emerged in practice in the 1990s (Noya, 2011:5; Sossna, 2014:5). It lacked a theoretical foundation because back then there was no actual attention on Sis (Sossna, 2014:5) and was just conceptualised under different appearances and descriptions (Marques *et al.*, 2017:497). Hence, it lost popularity at some point as compared to the technological innovation.

Historically, innovation has been linked with improvement in technology, for instance, increases productivity, new services and products, which have an impact on the capabilities of organisation and the economy as a whole (Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1). Grimm *et al.* (2013:448) and Biljohn and Lues (2016:71) highlight that innovation is not limited to technology, thence SI today is equally important as technological innovation (Hulgård, nd:25). In line with the above thoughts, the concept of innovation has expanded to refer to novel ways of improving capabilities for meeting social needs, and the SI concept clearly articulates those changes (Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1). On that account, SI has become an eye-catching concept to scholars, policymakers and civil society as a panacea for societal problems (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Li *et al.*, 2018:4; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7 & Moenian *et al.*, 2022:11; Perello, 2020:69; Pisano, Lange & Berger, 2015:3). SIs have a key role to play in overcoming and resolving these challenges given their complexity

and multidisciplinary character (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:26). This led to SI to be faced with enormous expectations to provide solutions to the severe societal problems, especially given that issues such as high unemployment, poverty and inequalities cannot be eradicated without implementing SI (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:2).

Although SI has become highly common among practitioners, policy-makers and academics its meaning still suffers a universal definition while on the contrary, its meaning remains vague and ambiguous (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014:411; Cunha, Benneworth, & Oliveira, 2015:7; Grimm *et al.*, 2013:437; Li *et al.*, 2018:5; Marques *et al.*, 2017:385; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:853). This is probably because the term “SI” is applied in different contexts and perspectives (Cunha *et al.*, 2015:7; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:853) and that its practice is wide and diverse (Perello, 2020:8; van Niekerk, Manderson, & Balabanova, 2021:22), hence the lack of a coherent definition. Thus, the SI concept remains complex and multifaceted, with competing discourses, theorisation, interpretation and definitions (Albertson *et al.*, 2020:6; Marques *et al.*, 2017:497; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:6). In the absence of a universal definition, some researchers attempted to convey some understanding and meaning by integrating it into the field of innovation (Li *et al.*, 2018:5). Following different opinions and understandings of various scholars regarding SI definitions, Table 2.1 captures their definitions.

Table 2.1: Definitions of SI

Author	Definition of SI	Main context
(Bevilacqua <i>et al.</i> , 2019:23; European Commission, 2013:6; OECD, 2014:4; Pisano <i>et al.</i> , 2015:5; Reynolds, Gabriel & Heales, 2016:7; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020: 855; van Niekerk <i>et al.</i> , 2021:3)	The development and practical application of innovative ideas to improve services, products, policies, techniques, strategies, models, concepts and practices that simultaneously meet societal needs and create new collaborations and relationships among a variety of actors.	Improve products and services to meet societal needs, through a collaborative process.
(Grimm <i>et al.</i> , 2013:440; O’Byrne <i>et al.</i> , 2014:53; Sørensen & Torfing, 2015:151)	New methods of governance and hierarchies aimed at improving government functions through policy and service innovation.	Governance innovation

Harayama & Nitta, 2011:13; Perello, 2020:61; Tracey & Stott, 2017:55)	Collection of strategies, ideas and organisational designs aimed at addressing deeply-rooted social, cultural, environmental, and economic challenges to strengthen civil society and pursue public good.	New organisational patterns, new roles and functions, new governance coordinating and mechanisms, and emphasising community empowerment.
Agostini, Vieira, Tondolo & Tondolo, 2017:385; Cukier & Jackson, 2018:223; Moenian et al., 2022:2 ; Pue et al., 2015:10; Sossna, 2014:9)	A novel solution to social and persisting societal problems that is better, fairer, effective, efficient, and sustainable than existing solutions, thus bringing about new or improved solutions to existing societal challenges and unmet needs or envisaged social goal, leading to new or improved capabilities and relationships and better use of assets and resources.	New or improved solutions to societal problems or meet social goal, while promoting effective use of resources.
Li et al. (2018:11)	A tool that promotes social change by improving people’s lives and attending to the needs of the less privileged, who are unable to access services or products due to their unfavorable economic backgrounds or situations.	Social change
(Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:17; OECD, 2011:71)	Innovative responses to unresolved social challenges and needs, that have been unsuccessfully tackled by the market or state.	Solving problems that are resistant to traditional approaches

Table 2.1 illustrates many views on SI definition. Although many scholars are of the view that SI still suffers from a clear and universal definition (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Li *et al.*, 2018:5; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:1), common characteristics can be spotted in the definitions attempted by the above scholars. Those characteristics include that SI: (1) is novel, meaning applying new or improved services and products; (2) is intended to solve societal and wicked problems; (3) is driven by both social and economic motivations; (4) takes various forms; (5) is promoted by different actors, namely private, NGO, public organisations, civil society, individuals; (6) realise a social goal or need; (7) creates positive social impact; (8) creates social change; (9) improves and changes the lives of the people; and (10) is sustainable (European Commission, 2013:7; Li *et al.*, 2018:5; Pue *et al.*, 2015:10; Sossna, 2014:9). Pisano *et al.* (2015:6) expand on the identified core elements that should be present to define SI:

- ✓ Novelty: to some extent, SIs need to be new, or be applied in a new way, and must be potentially more effective than the existing solutions and be financially sustainable over the mid-to long-term;
- ✓ Meet societal needs: one of the distinguishing features of a SI is that it is clearly designed to meet societal needs;
- ✓ Cross-sectoral: SI cut across sectors and can occur in all sectors, between sectors, and at the interfaces between these different sectors;
- ✓ Creates new collaborations, relationships, and roles: SI often includes a wide range of actors and creates new relationships. It empowers beneficiaries by creating new roles and relationships;
- ✓ Co-production: In SI, boundaries between producers and consumers seem to be little and service users are no longer seen as passive recipients of services, but the co-partners;
- ✓ Better utilisation of assets and resources: SI often recognises coordination of assets and resources which would otherwise not have been there, or there but be wasted, under-utilised or not used at all; and
- ✓ Enhances society’s capacity to act: many SIs develop the capacity and empower beneficiaries and social innovators, thus enabling them to meet their needs over the longer term. This means SI should be more creative, effective, and sustainable than existing solutions. Figure 2 summarises the core elements of SI as discussed above:

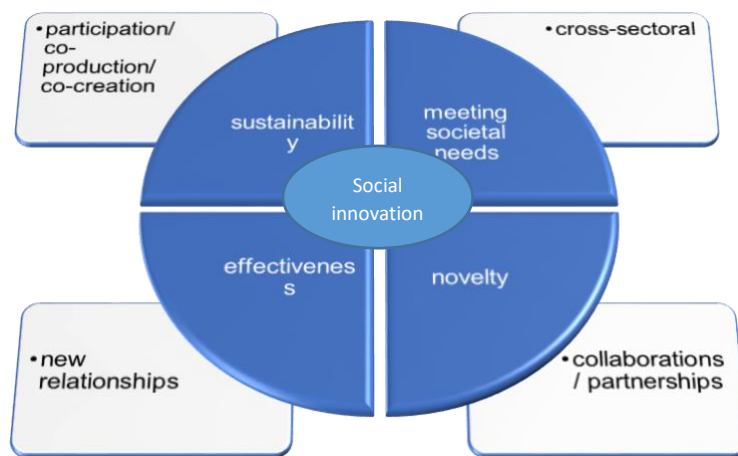


Figure 2.2: Core elements of SI definition (Source: European Commission, 2013:7; Li *et al.*, 2018:5; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6; Pue *et al.*, 2015:10; Sossna, 2014:9)

Albeit the competing views on the definition and theorisation, there is a consensus that SI is about the creation and application of new approaches, driven by specific actors to better manage the societal needs and cope with problems differently from the existing practices (Cukier & Jackson, 2018:224; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:5; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020: 855; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:3). However, some scholars still view it as an umbrella term that covers a wide range of activities (Mason, Barraket, Friel, O'Rourke, & Stenta, 2015:ii117; TEPSIE, 2014:5). Such activities are related to: organisational innovation (new or modified ways of organising activities); services and products innovation (new interventions or new programmes or projects to meet societal needs); new practices (new services which require new roles or relationships); delivery or process innovation (co-production in service delivery, involving service users); policy or governance innovation (new or alternative means to fund and support public service); and conceptual innovation (innovation that introduces new rationales, strategies, and objectives) (Centre for Local Economic Strategies-CLES, 2011:2; OECD, 2011:16; Pinto, Nogueira, Guerreiro & Sampaio, 2021:64; TEPSIE, 2014:36).

Other scholars recognise that SI is an inherently inter-disciplinary concept and can be applied to all purposes (Noya, 2011:8; Perello, 2020:8; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:22; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:26), being it within social, economic, cultural or environmental settings (Perello, 2020:12). Moreover, it can take place everywhere, e.g., within the government, within businesses, or within the non-profit sector or at the intersections among different sectors through collaborations (Harayama & Nitta, 2011:16; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:8; Perello, 2020:61; OECD, 2011:16). This asserts that SIs in nature is multi-disciplinary, cutting across sectors and disciplines (public administration, economics and management studies) (van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:22), hence the struggle to find its universal definition.

Nonetheless, having analysed the conceptualisation of SI, this study adopted the following definition: SI refers to new and innovative approaches (products, services, markets, processes, models, concepts, strategies, programs, activities etc.) that are developed and diffused by actors or organisations, with the aim to address the unmet societal problems (more effectively and efficiently than existing solutions) or improve existing conditions where public and private actors have so far failed (Cukier & Jackson, 2018:224; European Commission, 2013:6; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:17; OECD, 2011:16; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:5; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020: 855). From this definition, it can be spotted that SI transcends sectors, and can be initiated by different types of actors (e.g., public organisations, associations, social enterprises and grassroots initiatives) (Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:17). Thus, this definition of SI supports collaboration and partnerships amongst various actors and stakeholders across sectors (public, private, civil society, and

individuals) through improved networks to find new solutions to most pressing challenges. This makes SI unique as compared to other types of innovations (Noya, 2011:8; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:5).

SIs are distinct from economic and technological innovations, which are largely applicable to private firms with their focus on making profit (Marques *et al.*, 2017:499). SI is not triggered by profit maximisation or commercial gain, but rather to meet societal needs for the general benefit of welfare (Perello, 2020:15). SIs are "social in their means and in their ends" (Albertson *et al.*, 2020:6; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; European Commission, 2013:6; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:4; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:855). In SI, profit is not the main driver (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:46). Unlike other innovations, its primary objective is to meet the new needs that are not satisfied by the market, creating new ways of solving societal problems through co-production (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:63; Li *et al.*, 2018:5; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:4). This shares same sentiment with the school of thought led by Grimm *et al.* (2013:448) and Marques *et al.* (2017:388) that market should not be regarded as the only tool needed to achieve the societal goals.

SI has emerged as an alternative to the logic of the market philosophy (Marques *et al.*, 2017:388). The primary objective of SI is to improve the well-being of individuals and communities, mainly through employment, poverty alleviation, socio-economic development and participation with the purpose to provide answers to individual and community problems (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:63; OECD, 2011:21). The focus is to create social impact and social value (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:46; OECD, 2011:16) while creating economic returns (Li *et al.*, 2018:5). SI is recognised as a framework of four unique areas: social and societal challenges, creativity research, community psychology and local development (Li *et al.*, 2018:5).

Another important aspect that makes SI unique is that it is very context-dependent, recognising that the same solution to the same problem might not work well or might not work at all in a different setting, area, region, city, or country (Perello, 2020:65). Therefore, SI does not apply a blanket approach to identifying and implementing solutions (Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:204), meaning the initiatives that may work well in a particular local context may need to be modified or changed for their replication to a different environment. This probably stems from the fact that societal challenges are complex and multifaceted, requiring unique approaches.

Against the above description of SI, the next section unpacks its attributes as identified by various scholars earlier (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Pue *et al.*, 2015:10; Sossna, 2014:9; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6). This intends to determine the uniqueness of SI as compared to other innovations.

2.3.1 Attributes of SI

Reflecting on various definitions and conceptualisation of SI as briefly discussed in Section 2.3, apart from SIs distinct character to meeting societal and social needs (Krlev *et al.*, 2019:19; Li *et al.*, 2018:5), there are other various aspects that also distinguish SI from other innovations as discussed underneath:

2.3.1.1 Cross-sectoral

SIs are characterised by being cross-sectoral and cross-disciplinary (European Commission, 2013:66; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:13; Perello, 2020:8; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:5). In nature, SI is understood to be a multi-disciplinary and multi-sector process, and not a stagnant, unidimensional phenomenon (European Commission, 2013:66). It is worth noting that the multidimensional and interconnected problems confronting governments and societies today demand the provision of services through a cross-sector arrangement (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62; OECD, 2014:30). Mostly, those challenges cross many boundaries: political, social, economic, technological and ecological, which require cooperation across actors (Cunha *et al.*, 2015:2), hence require cross-sectoral approach. Given that process of SI requires a hybrid of actors and approaches (Butzin, Terstriep, Ecker, Green & Heales, 2017:60; OECD, 2011:22; Perello, 2020:11), cross-sector collaborations becomes inherent to driving SI. This collaboration between public, private and civil institutions, and local communities as well as research institutions allows the development of complementarities and synergies to successfully address these challenges (Butzin *et al.*, 2017:66; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62; Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5).

According to Bevilacqua *et al.* (2019:4), CSPs are most probable to stimulate all-encompassing socio-economic change as compared to isolated intervention by individual organisations. As such it becomes paramount important that the public sector needs to promote multi-sectoral interactions and multi-stakeholder partnerships to drive a more SI-oriented development that would achieve effective service delivery (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:2; Campomoria & Casula, 2022:6).

2.3.1.2 Collaboration (and networks)

The collaboration reflects a fundamental trait of SI. According to Weerakkody, Sivarajah, Irani and Osmani (2014:3), SI is usually a result of collaboration. Collaboration simply means bringing together a wide range of actors (government, civil society, private sector, community etc.) (Biljohn, 2018:38) working jointly to achieve a common goal. Collaboration is regarded as the main mechanism for stimulating (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:23) developing, implementing (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:34) and sustaining SI (Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:9). Citizenry, civil society, public sector, private sector and third sector are identified as the main actors that play important role in driving and sustaining SI (Nasir & Subarib, 2017:14; Vasin *et al.*,

2017:34). Because SI involves a wide range of actors in the process of initiation, implementation and diffusion (OECD, 2011:71), collaboration among these actors is deemed crucial in implementing SI (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:1; European Commission, 2013:72). Hence, the success of SI initiatives are extremely dependent on these actors (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:18; Rehfeld, *et al.*, 2017:84).

There is a consensus that the nature of SIs needs different actors to collaborate to make them successful e.g., for resource acquisition and complementarity, reducing barriers, and scaling up and diffusion (Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; TEPSIE, 2014:38). Besides, wicked problems that SI seeks to address frequently involve multiple and diverse actors, from different fields, across systems with multiple interdependencies (Nasir & Subarib, 2017:14). The societal problems are mostly complex and intertwined, thus requiring combination of unique types of expertise, collaboration among multiple actors and new ideas and approaches (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:1).

The collaborative action and the role of networks emerge as fundamental enablers of new practices that stimulate SIs (Cunha *et al.*, 2015:8; Eckhardt, Kaletka, Krüger, Maldonado-Mariscal, & Schulz, 2021:3; Tsakanika, 2017:12). In SI, collaboration is critical because it can help break out the silo ‘modus operandi’ by muddling boundaries between public, private and civil society sectors (Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227). Subsequently, this can lead to more efficient policy delivery, by eliminating the duplication of effort and services rendered by various organisations (Mcquaid, 2010:133). In addition, collaboration creates a platform for the formation of vibrant organisational patterns of governance underpinned by people-centered and participatory techniques in delivering services and goods to the public (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:1). Collaborative processes and practices also promote information, experience, and knowledge exchange between a multitude of actors (Unceta & Barandiarán, 2019:104). Again, in its nature, it often favors co-production/co-creation of public services as it allows the participation of diverse actors including citizens or service users themselves. Subsequently, this could potentially lead to a scenario where: (I) the public sector taps into the innovative, creative potential of citizens and other actors, and (II) in a process of institutionalisation, the social impact deriving from SIs, gains a bigger scale beyond its initial supporting network of actors (Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7).

Collaboration among these actors could also result in new relationships and build capacities (Perello, 2020:11; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:4), and trigger creativity and innovation. In recognition of the above benefits, the opportunities that collaborations open are important (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:54) and makes it prudent for the public sector to foster collaboration in SI for improved service delivery (Campomoria &

Casula, 2022:6). This would subsequently serve as a platform for feedback from both sides, in particular, feedback from citizens which is necessary to inform what works and what does not work for the community and integrate successful practices (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:74). Such feedback could stem from monitoring and evaluation of SI initiatives, which in turn, could bring about improvements in the delivery of current services and plan for future interventions (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:74). Therefore, it becomes crucial for the public sector organisations to promote and coordinate mixed networks of actors in driving SI (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:6).

2.3.1.3 Participation

Participation is another important distinguishing feature of SI (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:63; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2). At the heart of the SI concept lies the active participation of stakeholders and citizens in the co-production in the provision of goods and services (OECD 2011:21). Considering the service delivery as a multi-actor activity, the occurrence of SI requires participation of various actors and stakeholders (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:63) because SI implies an interlink of processes that involve developers, promoters, agents of change and the service recipients (Sorrentino, Sicilia & Howlett, 2018:284). Participation in SI is considered as a multidimensional, and multi-actor process that aims to involve all people, and most important citizens, to play a role in all stages of service delivery cycle (Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2). It is of this reason that SI emphasises participation broader view of participation is that the citizen as not only a recipient of public services, but also participating in the production, decision making, planning and control of the respective activities (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62). This is in line with the notion that SIs are developed with and by users and not delivered for or to them (Agostini *et al.*, 2017:394). This signifies a major shift from the conventional approaches which focused on top-down approaches, command, and control systems, and centralised planning to a greater focus on citizen participation and interdependencies (OECD, 2014:25). This means that end-users or citizens are no longer playing a passive role, but actively participate in the entire service delivery cycle, namely co-planning, co-design and co-delivery of services (European Union, 2014:6; Biljohn & Lues, 2016:75). van Niekerk *et al.* (2021:2) observe that co-creation, co-production, co-design and co-delivery have become common approaches, used especially by governments, to actively engage citizens in policy and programmes development and implementation. It implies that socially innovative initiatives foster bottom-up approaches (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:7; Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358) and encourage co-production with citizens.

Biljohn (2018:192) points out that citizens' role in the co-production and co-creation of services is deemed necessary for it serves as the correct platform to express their service delivery priorities and preferences, and suggest solutions to service delivery challenges, which can occur through participatory platforms.

Moreover, considering that citizens have problem-related practical knowledge and experience, their participation can help social innovators to better understand challenges from a direct source (Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:112). Biljohn (2019:4) advises that for an SI initiative to have the desired impact in addressing the societal needs and challenges, citizen participation is essential because citizens are the ones having direct experiences, knowledge and understanding of societal needs and problems affecting them. It is concurred that citizen participation provides useful information that can help policy-makers and public managers to identify the cause of the challenges (Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:11) and possible innovative solutions to address them. From this indication, it could be deducted that citizen participation is a vital tool for SI to thrive (CLES, 2011:7; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:49; O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:61; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:3). Citizen participation as an important tool for SI, also surge empowerment, and subsequently, lead to sustainability and societal resilience (Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:11; O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:61).

In overall, participatory process within SI promotes social inclusion and reform of existing relationships among individuals, especially those previously excluded from political, social or economic issues (van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2) and promotes continuous co-creation in public service delivery. It is confirmed that SI as a participatory process, is capable of improving public policies, governance and service delivery to meet societal needs and make new collaborative relationships (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:3; Reynolds *et al.* (2016:13). It may result in collaboration to find innovative solutions to tackle complex societal challenges, of which finding innovative solutions is the main reason of using SI in public service delivery (Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:13).

2.3.1.4 Co-creation

Co-creation is one of the main instruments of SI. In essence, SI initiatives are often the result of a co-creation process (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:2). Co-creation implies the collaboration between the organisations (providing goods or services) and the service users/ citizens in the design, production and delivery of goods and services (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Evans & Sapeha, 2015:250; Voorberg, Bekkers, & Tummers, 2014:22). This is a process in which actors participate to achieve a common goal, and this is in line with the fact that SIs should not be seen as a single actor effort because society’s wicked problems and public service delivery challenges are complex and multidimensional (Bason, 2010:88; Raidimi & Kabiti, 2017:58; Rhys & Entwistle, 2010:679). Therefore, the co-creation process is there to promote collaborative and participatory practices (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3). Of this reason, co-creation has become a major tool for public policy and public services reform and improvement, involving citizens, and other key actors much more directly in the innovation process. Co-creation is viewed as an important tool in SI considering that it creates meaningful interaction and cooperation among all key stakeholders, which in turn guarantees

a multiplicity of information and views for improving public policy and service delivery design (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:9).

However, Voorberg *et al.* (2014:25) pose a different view that it is not clear whether co-creation contributes to outcomes that really address the societal needs or challenges in a robust way, or whether is a game changer in public service delivery. Nonetheless, Osborne *et al.* (2015:643) view co-creation as fundamental to public services as it is capable of producing a broader, effective and viable contribution to society's social, economic and health needs for the present and the future. Due to its importance, it then becomes imperative that for SI to thrive in public service delivery, co-creation should be regarded as the key (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:10), and thus, should be applied in all stages: co-initiation, co-design, and co-implementation, because it is considered a key factor for thriving SI.

2.3.1.5 Co-production

Co-production is one of the keystones of public policy reform (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:641), an essential component of service delivery and a driver of innovation in public service (Sorrentino, *et al.*, 2018:278). Co-production refers to the interaction of public service users and service providers/ professionals in matters relating to public services (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:640; Tsakanika, 2017:30; Voorberg *et al.*, 2014:22). The concept of co-production in the public sector is regarded to outline models of public service delivery in which citizenry/ civil society /non-government actors collaborate with the government in planning, designing, producing and delivering of public services (Sorrentino *et al.*, 2018:281; Tsakanika, 2017:30). This indicates that public sector is no longer seen as the sole actor in public services, but a stimulator, organiser, enabler, and facilitator (Nasir & Subarib, 2017:14; OECD, 2014:25; OECD, 2011:71), wherein service users participate in the entire service delivery cycle. In co-production, citizens participate in the entire service delivery cycle, meaning from planning until delivery as well as evaluation (Voorberg *et al.*, 2014:23). This supports the general belief that for government interventions to create value and make an impact, active participation of recipients is critical in the production and delivery of public services. Therefore, co-production appears to be one of the numerous mechanisms used to improve service delivery and to increase the involvement and influence of citizens in the services that are delivered to them (Pestoff & Brandsen, 2010:227; Tsakanika, 2017:30).

In the public sector, the importance of co-production is well documented. Foremost, the multifaceted nature of co-production is confirmed to bring together a wide range of activities, and actors including service users (civil and community groups) to generate valuable public services in diverse policy domains (Sorrentino *et al.*, 2018:278) and the co-productive roles played by different individuals can enhance and positively impact

the process of public service delivery (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:647). Osborne *et al.* (2015:639) further consider co-creation as a valuable means to the delivery of effective public services, a route to lever in additional resources, and a route to active citizenship and communities. Other scholars perceive it to improve multi-sectoral governance, a remedy for the progressive decline of citizenship, and a means for improving public value creation (Sicilia, Sancino, Nabatchi, & Guarini, 2019:2). As expanded by Osborne *et al.* (2015:647), it is also a way to create capacity within public service delivery systems. Moreover, the importance of co-production does not only stem from its role in contributing to the impact and effectiveness of public delivery, but also from its potential to facilitate the development and capacity of individuals and communities to respond independently and effectively to societal needs even in the future (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:643). Furthermore, the co-production process empowers participants and service users because it gives them opportunities to: (1) exercise decision-making skills, (2) co-create innovative solutions, (3) manage resources, and (4) collaborate to deliver services (Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Sorrentino *et al.*, 2018:281). Considering the critical outcomes reflected above, it implies that lack of co-production may lead to ineffective service delivery (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:648), hence is deemed necessary in public service delivery process.

2.3.1.6 Partnerships

SIs requires extensive networks and partners for developing impactful solutions (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45). It is of this reason that the partnership approach has become increasingly popular in SI particularly when dealing with societal problems because such problems are normally complex and multi-dimensional in nature, thus requiring efforts from various stakeholders involved in delivering on social, economic, and human development (Mcquaid, 2010:130). These partnerships occur when public organisations collaborate with other sectors such as NGOs, NPO, civic society, public-interest organisations, and citizens to achieve a common goal (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:59). As a result, partnerships have become common for delivering public sector services (OECD, 2014:25). They are also used to enhance public sector administration (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:58) and create innovative approaches aimed at improving service delivery for better response to societal needs (OECD, 2014:34).

Partnerships in service delivery are important because they may increase cooperation amongst partners, and consequently lead to the pooling of extra resources, the introduction of new and more effective and efficient ways of tackling issues, and of sharing benefits as well as risks (Mcquaid, 2010:131). Given that in partnerships, stakeholders come together from a range of different policy perspectives, can produce greater vigor through the sharing of ideas, resources, expertise, and experience, thus even containing the associated risks (Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5). Bringing together resources, especially funding, augments the

government purse, thus helping meet the financial needs (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:75). It is without doubt that the opportunities that partnerships and collaboration create to share each other's assets and resources are important in many government departments, particularly those that are burdened by extreme budget deficits among other resource constraints (O'Byrne *et al.*, 2014:54). With limited revenue streams, pooling each other's resources and expertise is crucial (O'Byrne *et al.*, 2014:54) to ensure effective and sustainable service delivery. In addition, partnerships arguably have greater scope to find new and innovative approaches (Mcquaid, 2010:131). By engaging with various stakeholders with expertise in specific areas of service delivery, the public sector can expand the reach, scope, diversity and quality of services (Mcquaid, 2010:131). Hence, partnerships have become a staple strategy to promote SI (Hughes, 2010:98) in the public sector. Therefore, the importance of partnerships to successfully address societal challenges is something that should be taken advantage of (OECD, 2011:71). In conclusion, even though SI is premised on its important features as detailed in Section 2.3.1, there are conditions that should also be considered for SI to occur as discussed in the next section.

2.3.2 Conditions for SI

Many scholars recognise that SI needs the appropriate conditions to emerge and flourish (Perello, 2020:61). SIs require specific conditions due to their goal of stimulating, fostering and exploiting the full innovation potential of the entire society (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:3). Below are some of the conditions for SI use as discovered by various scholars:

2.3.2.1 Motivation for using SI

There are motivations for public organisations to actually consider, plan, design and implement an SI initiative or programme or project (O'Byrne *et al.*, 2014:56). Generally, the key stimulus to SI lies in response to a societal challenge or needs (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:51; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). SI often originates from spotting a societal need and/ or problem which have not yet been addressed or adequately solved by the formal system (either state or the market), and that can be met by innovative approaches (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:51; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:19; Tsakanika, 2017:5). SIs are basically triggered by a need to address a particular issue that has been unable to be addressed through the existing approaches. Usually socially innovative actions, strategies, practices, and processes arise whenever problems (especially wicked problems i.e., poverty, unemployment, inequalities, exclusion, segregation, and deprivation or opportunities for improving living conditions) cannot find satisfactory solutions from public or private actions. Hence, governments are implementing SIs to address their main weaknesses including centralisation, inefficient service delivery, lack of transparency and accountability

and low competitiveness (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:56), thus effectively responding well to such problems (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:1).

2.3.2.2 SI Initiators

SIs are stimulated and initiated by actors (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:23), meaning behind every SI initiative there is an initiator. Actors (as individuals or collectives), play a key role in the SI strategies and processes (Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57). van Niekerk *et al.* (2021:20) concur that actors play a huge role especially engaging in initiatives from the localised level to the macro level as well as scaling-up and diffusing SI initiatives. Four actor groups participating in SI are commonly identified, namely individuals (citizens); government organisations, non-governmental entities and private organisations (Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:5). Although there are various actors identified as key to the initiation process, SIs can be established by a single actor or collective and be scaled-up by other actors.

2.3.2.3 Resources

The use of SI relies on the availability of resources (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:75). The development of SIs is dependent on access to resources, and the capacity to deal with constraints and capabilities. As pointed out by Biljohn and Lues (2016:75), the process of SI requires the use of innovative resources in complementing already existing resources e.g., capital, human and expertise. Crucial to the process of SI, is also the availability of funding or financial resources, that mainly determine a successful start-up and subsequently, the success, sustainability or scaling up of SI initiative (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:42). In contrast, without sufficient funds, SIs often fade or end after a while (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:42). However, Howaldt and Schröder (2017:3) caution that the development and success of SIs are not only centered on appropriate funding but also on the availability of human resources. Considering that SIs are driven by individuals, networks and groups, human resources constitute a major resource (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:42). In SI, appropriate resources are essential to stimulate and scale-up SIs, foster new social practices, and better cope with societal problems and social needs than before (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45). Besides better coping with the societal needs, there are other outcomes associated with the use of SI as discussed in the next section.

2.3.3 The Consequences of Using SI

When SI is used as an approach to public service delivery would result in certain consequences or outcomes. Among other outcomes, SI creates social change, economic change, satisfaction of needs, and empowerment through improved quality of life, especially for the marginalised groups of the society (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; Pue *et al.*, 2016:26; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57). Successful and sustainable SIs also create public value, which is regarded as the achievement of the desired

outcomes or end results (Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:7; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:3). In SI use, social change and public value are achieved through diffusion, the processes that involve producers and users in the creation and production of new services and products (Tsakanika, 2017:12). It can also be achieved through partnerships, particularly through the increasing involvement of users in the design and delivery of these services (Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:12). In turn, social changes may lead to a shift from top-down to bottom-up approaches wherein citizens are involved rather than just being a receiver or passive participants (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4).

Another important effect of SI is empowerment (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:2). SI can result in the empowerment of innovators, beneficiaries, societal actors, and communities (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64). Pue *et al.* (2016:33) agree that through the mobilisation that happens in emergence and adoption, SI may result in empowerment, and thus generating sustainable societal actions. In this way, SI ideally makes a lasting change in social practices in a way that it reshapes society (Pue *et al.*, 2016:33). Worth noting is that the role played by SI is not only centred on the empowerment of people, but also contributes to economic drive and, therefore, driving social change (Cunha *et al.*, 2015:7; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:56). Beyond the evident contribution of SI to social change, empowerment, sustainability and development, through its specific objectives particularly its process, SI may turn out as a pathway for economic change (Perello, 2020:15; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57).

Having discussed the attributes, motivations and consequences of SI, Figure 3 provides a summation of the SI process. The use of SI is distinguished by its motivations and its unique attributes (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; European Union, 2014:5) as captured in Figure 2.3 below:

Motivation	Attributes	Consequences
-------------------	-------------------	---------------------

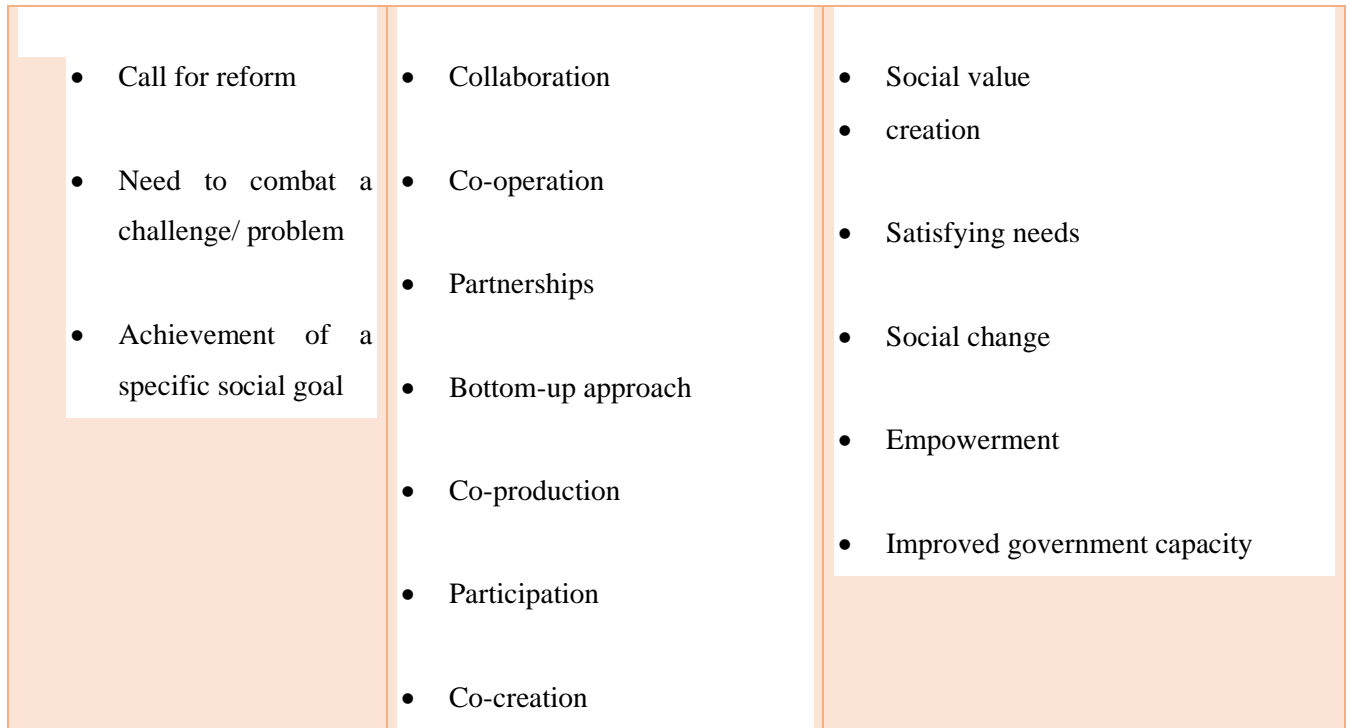


Figure 2.3: SI motivations, attributes and consequences (Source: Adopted from Biljohn, 2018:38; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:9; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; European Union, 2014:5; Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45)

Foremost, the main motivation for public organisations to use SI is a need to reform or respond to societal needs or challenges (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:56; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). As depicted in Figure 3, the attributes of SI include collaboration, cooperation, partnerships, participation, co-production and co-creation. The attributes of collaboration, a bottom-up approach, participants’ co-producing of goods, a common goal, are characteristics of SI’s use (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:9). These characteristics can also be present in the public programmes or projects outcomes that are established using SI (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:9). The attributes of SI are interconnected and considered necessary to achieve the consequences. To drive a more SI-oriented development (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:2), the process that is undertaken by the government in collaborations and partnerships with other stakeholders should be underpinned by these attributes to achieve the intended consequences. The SI consequences are necessary and can, in turn, benefit the public sector. The next section narrates SI within the public sector service delivery.

2.3.4 SI in Public Sector programme Delivery

Public sector organisations have always been in search of new ways to accomplish their public mission. This trend reflects the respect that some of the traditional approaches are irrelevant and may not provide solutions to addressing public policy challenges and other complex challenges confronting governments today (OECD, 2014:2). Traditional approaches to delivering public sector services are resistant, and now proving difficult for the government to afford due to economic and socio-political challenges faced by society (Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:2). These public service delivery challenges are often related to unsustainability and ineffectiveness of responding to societal needs; inefficiency of poverty eradication strategies; food insecurity, sky rocketing rates of unemployment and deepening social inequalities. Mostly, those challenges cross many boundaries, and thus require cooperation among actors (Cunha *et al.*, 2015:2).

This nature of public sector problems- complex and unsolvable by traditional approaches and tools emphasises the importance of building the capacity of the public sector to innovate and invent solutions to the complex and persistent socio-economic problems faced by society today (OECD, 2014:2). Addressing these challenges requires innovative approaches, innovative actors, and new forms of co-operation among them, thus bringing together diverse resources, expertise, skills and assets (Noya, 2011:21). Chomane and Biljohn (2021:2) confirmed that the prevalent socio-economic challenges necessitate public-sector organisations to adopt inclusive approaches to dealing with them (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2). It is in this perspective that public sector organisations have begun to explore new models which shift from traditional approaches. According to OECD (2014:30), this involves:

- Widening of sources into decision-making processes, including inputs from service-users and citizens and interaction across organisational barriers;
- Focusing on outcomes – starting with a need to improve services or to achieve social outcomes and ensure a change through the entire delivery system and align processes to meet these new needs;
- Working across boundaries -collaboration as a means of interaction (co-design, co-production, co-delivery) within and across organisations and even across sectors.
- The development of new sets of policy approaches, service delivery, funding mechanisms and partnerships to assist in looking for novel solutions to most difficult challenges.

Accordingly, this process of exploring innovative and inclusive approaches has driven public sector organisations to increase cognizance of the issue of SI (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:26). SI approach has been increasingly used by the governments in the delivery of public services, since the encounter of more complex societal challenges which require the efforts from multi-actor (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:1;

Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:4). SIs have a key role to play in overcoming and resolving these challenges (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:26). SI in public sector is therefore aimed at addressing public policy challenges, and a successful public sector innovation is one that responds effectively to the societal needs and challenges (OECD, 2014:4). In support of the use of SI, today countless governments including SA, have established policies for SI, often with the specified aim of encouraging creative solutions to difficult challenges (Pue *et al.*, 2016:6). Although the use of SI is still latent in South African public service delivery (Biljohn, 2017:53), South Africa's post-1994 innovation policies, frameworks and strategies clearly support the establishment and strengthening of policies that yield social outcomes (Human Science Research Council, 2014:1). Besides the sluggishness in the implementation of SI, the South African public sector also supports the notion of SI. This could probably be because of the many potential benefits SI holds in public service delivery as discussed in the below section.

2.3.5 Benefits of SI in Public Sector programme Delivery

In the public sector, SI has many benefits, and it positively responds to several challenges (Perello, 2020:15; OECD, 2011:22; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:27). One of the most significant changes resulting from SI is the contribution towards public services modernisation (OECD, 2011:2; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:5), improved service delivery and financial returns (Biljohn & Lues, 2020b:2). These benefits could be achieved through collaboration and partnerships among multi-sectors, which jointly co-create, co-produce and co-deliver new, enhanced, or tailor-made services. Collaboration encouraged through SI helps find alternative and innovative ways of service delivery. In this context, SI plays an important role as it encourages civil society, private, public and third sector organisations to work together to find alternative ways of delivering services (OECD, 2011:71; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:2). This in turn results in improved services and delivery strategies, thus leading to improved public sector efficiency (Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:5). According to Pinto *et al.* (2012:73), SI can also provide remarkable contributions to public policies and new approaches to combat societal challenges, an outcome that is direly required. This is aligned with Li *et al.* (2018:5) viewpoint that the ultimate benefits of SI are geared towards improving the standards of living of marginalised societies or satisfaction of unmet important needs of people. Therefore, SI is critical in helping deprived societies increase social and economic competencies (Sadabadi & Rahimi Rad, 2021:3).

The benefits of SI may also include an increase in the level of trust in the government, improvements in decision-making processes, and eventually, the emergence of new social norms, standards, values, and practices (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:27). It shows that SI can serve both as an alternative approach to developing, maintaining, and sustaining public services, while promoting the participation and inclusion of social and other actors in its process and effectively empowering them (Pinto *et al.*, 2012:73). Considering that SI

involves a higher degree of bottom-up (TEPSIE, 2015:6) and grass-roots involvement, it can make its impact broad and more sustainable (Krlev *et al.*, 2019:19). To sum up, SI as an important tool can help achieve the following (European Commission, 2013:9; UNDP, 2014:29):

- It can provide new and more efficient responses to meet increasing societal needs;
- It can provide answers to complex societal challenges through mobilising diverse actors;
- It can incorporate various stakeholders to tackle issues jointly, through new ways of working together and involving service users. It encourages collaboration; thus, the wisdom of crowds and the power of co-developing solutions may lead to improved outcomes;
- Greater cost-effectiveness through collaborative and cross-sectoral approaches; and
- Improved public institutions due to greater involvement of citizens as partners in designing, developing, and delivering public sector services. This would result in a more dynamic society.

It is against this background that SI is regarded as an opportunity for the public sector to improve its product and services (CLES, 2011:7; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64) to resolve deeply-rooted developmental issues in ways that were not attempted before (Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:205). It is also an opportunity to respond to multifaceted social, economic and environmental challenges confronting societies across the world (Pisano *et al.*, 2015:3), particularly in areas where private and existing public sector organisations have failed (Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:4). It is of this reason that besides its countless descriptions and ambiguity around its conceptualisation, SI has been considered an effective tool for achieving effective service delivery, given that it provides new, more effective solutions to the up-surging social needs, and answers to complex societal challenges, including those that are of economic nature (Biljohn & Lues, 2020:2; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:1). Therefore, infusing SIs in the activities of organisations or businesses aimed at resolving societal issues assists in finding new or improved solutions to addressing societal problems or to better satisfying the societal aspirations and the public (Li *et al.*, 2018:11; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64). Subsequently, these new solutions may lead to improved capabilities, new forms of collaboration, and better use of resources (Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:854). It is unquestionable that efficient use of resources (in particular finance) in the public sector is critical considering that most public sector organisations are financially deficient in funding their public services, thus making it difficult to achieve socio-economic development (Li *et al.*, 2018:4). Thus, SI is of rescue given that if correctly applied, it can deliver with less resources, particularly at a time of constrained public finances and shrinking private funds (European Commission, 2013:9).

Due to SI's contribution and potential to improve products and services and address wicked problems, the concept has consequently been largely embraced by socio-economic scholars (Grimm *et al.*, 2013:439; OECD, 2014:2). These commendable contributions led to the SI concept being widely recognised by businesses and government as the key driver of productivity and key catalyst for driving organisations, creating new products and markets, proving efficiency, growing economic productivity, delivering benefits to individuals and society in general and customers as well as firms (CLES, 2011:1). Its contributions have also led to widespread recognition that SI is required to cope with the significant challenges that societies are facing now and into the future (Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:4). While in the same boat, it is important to note that even though the use of SI is well recognised, its implementation in the public sector has its own obstacles and hindrances as discussed in the next section.

2.3.6 Barriers and Challenges of Using SI in the Public Sector programme Delivery

Although many academics and scholars commend the use of SI in public service delivery, it also does not imply that all SIs are successful or always have positive outcomes (Pinto *et al.*, 2012:64; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:7). Just like any other innovation, SIs too are in principle uncertain in their effects, and consequently, new social practices may not automatically be the “right” response to the major societal problems, instead, they may open up alternatives for the establishment of new social practices while challenging existing ones (Howaldt, 2017:128). As compared to economic and technological innovations, SIs have similar but a bit different, with more challenging things (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:56). Biljohn and Lues (2016:75) notes that there are several factors that could be seen as prospective obstacles to the effective use of SI for improved service delivery.

In the public sector, the significant barriers include (i) poor coordination; (ii) insufficient cooperation between stakeholders; (iii) fragmented knowledge transfer policies; (iv) insufficient expertise (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:56); (v) resource constraints particularly human resource and limited funding; and (vi) changing political context (van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:20). Governments have had difficulties in coordinating their activities, and this has further been exacerbated by the reforms of the past several decades (Peters, 2010:42). The absence of effective coordination in the public sector usually reduces the efficiency and effectiveness of public programmes/ initiatives, which in turn exacerbates the common public perception of the incompetence of government (Peters, 2010:42).

Apart from effective coordination, Dhondt *et al.* (2017:56) also observed that lack of human resources and adequate expertise, and limited funding are key barriers to upscaling SI. This being the case, most failed SIs are associated with the lack of competencies and appropriate knowledge or experiences of actors or

promoters right from the initial phase (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:49) because SI rely on the inventiveness of citizens, civil society organisations, and businesses and public organisations (Pinto *et al.*, 2012:66). Furthermore, it is well-known that public sector organisations are governed and regulated by a complex web of frameworks, laws, rules, and procedures. While these regulations are established for good reasons (ensuring efficient use of resources, promoting accountability, and creating standard operating procedures), their design may unintentionally inhibit the occurrence of innovation (OECD, 2014:22).

For instance, the bureaucratic and risk-averse nature of government, with too much attention to strict rules, policies, and regulation, mainly due to the accountability; tight control and command systems and limited contact between policy and practice (CLES, 2011:8) may constrain or inhibit co-operation across organisations or partnerships with other sectors (OECD, 2014:22). There is a consensus that scaling-up of SIs require collaboration among various actors to leverage resources and diverse competencies (Lettice and Parekh, 2010 cited by Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014), and for that reason, the importance of partnerships and stakeholders cannot be overlooked (OECD, 2011:71). All these barriers may result in governance inefficiency and coordination inefficiency, and uncertainties, lack of motivations to invest in SIs, which may hamper the development and diffusion of SI (OECD, 2011:15). In a nutshell, these barriers may lead to unsuccessful SI initiatives and skepticism to initiate SIs. The above can be linked to the reason SI tends to receive minimal or less attention and advances at a snail-moving pace as compared to technological innovation (Li *et al.*, 2018:4; OECD, 2014:2). Against the background of SI conceptualisation, analysis in the form of a conceptual framework is presented in the next section.

2.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR USING SI

Having defined and conceptualised the SI, this section proposes a framework to provide an overview to better understand SI within the public sector service delivery context. This takes into consideration the motivations, conditions, attributes, and consequences of SI as deliberated by various scholars in Section 2.3.

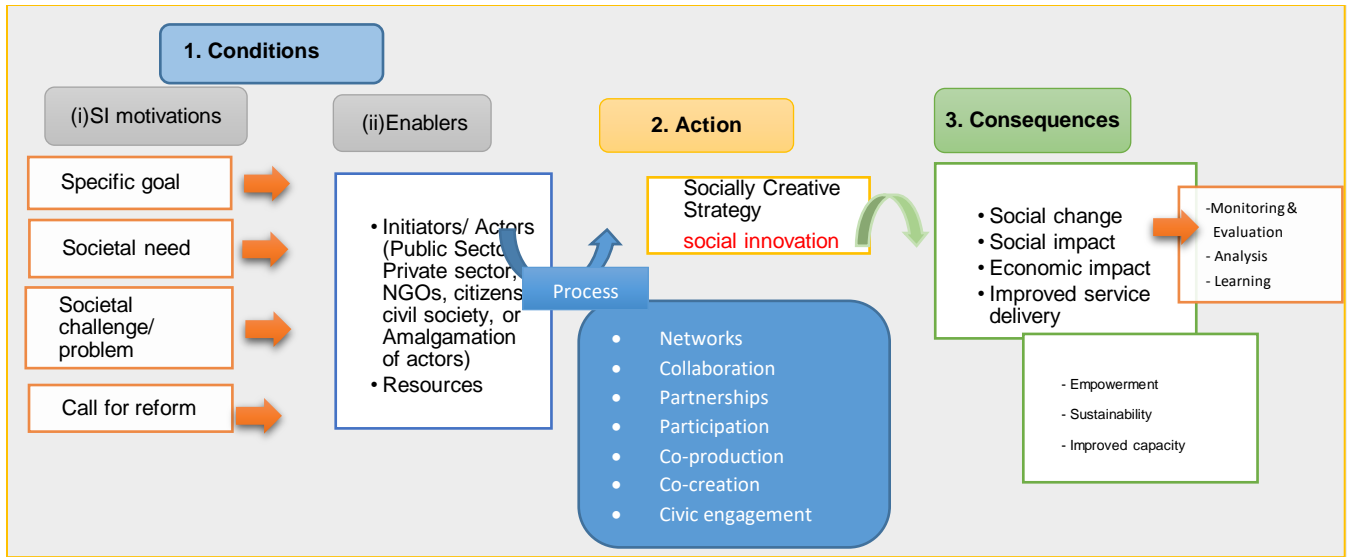


Figure 2.4: A conceptual framework for an SI blueprint in public sector programme delivery

Adopted from: Biljohn (2019:14); Eckhardt *et al.* (2021:2); Howaldt and Schröder (2017:3); van Niekerk *et al.* (2021:5); O’Byrne *et al.* (2014:62)

There are variables (Figure 2.4) that are considered fundamental in the conceptualisation framework for using SI in public sector programme delivery. To begin with, the use of SI depends on specific conditions unpacked here:

1. Conditions

SI conditions include (i) motivations that serve as the ultimate goals of SI use in service delivery (Biljohn, 2019:14), and (ii) initiators that will facilitate the SI process. It shows that organisations or individuals do not just embark on SI initiatives, instead there as plenty of reasons behind their use of SI. These are referred to as motivations for using SI.

(i) Motivations

Although there are various motivations and reasons for using SI, it is widely accepted that commonly SIs are predominantly formulated and implemented to solve and provide immediate responses the societal challenges or needs, or a need to reform (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:51; Millard, Holtgrewe, & Hochgerner, 2017:35; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). The trigger and the main motivation for initiating, starting, initiating and implementing an SI is not to make profit as observed in other types of innovations (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:46; Perello, 2020:15), but to provide answers to the most severe societal problems or a local societal need or demand (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:30 in a more better and sustainable manner than the existing strategies (Moenian *et al.*, 2022:2; TEPSIE, 2014:14). It means SI approaches,

practices and processes surge whenever challenges and wicked problems such as exclusion, inequalities, poverty, food insecurity, and unemployment, cannot find satisfactory solutions from both the government and the market.

Hence, in the public sector, the main motivation for using SI is predominantly a need to reform or respond to societal needs or challenges (O'Byrne *et al.*, 2014:56; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). Considering that there has long been a need to transform public sector service delivery, SI is seen as practices, approaches, and activities that help public sector organisations as well as communities and societies to achieve effective and efficient service delivery and respectively meet the desired goals or unrealised needs (Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2). In this aspect, SIs are mainly driven by a sense of urgency to push the public and political agenda to respond to the societal needs and demands that are not yet covered or addressed by the formal system (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:52; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:19; Tsakanika, 2017:5) or adequately addressed by the existing approaches. In this regard, SI comes to rescue as it provides an alternative and sometimes a more efficient and effective response to the needs that have not been addressed otherwise (Novikova, 2022:3). However, for an SI to find joy, its existence depends on specific enablers as detailed in the next section.

(ii) Enablers

• Initiators

SI is prompted by certain actors (being either individual persons, groups, or networks), in a deliberately targeted manner with the aim of better satisfying or responding to societal needs and problems than the existing practices (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:11). These actors SIs are considered the main and utmost important forces for driving and sustaining SIs (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4; Nasir & Subarib, 2017:14; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:34) as they play a critical role in developing and diffusing SI initiatives (Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:20). This implies that the SI initiatives and their sustainability are highly dependent on these actors (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4; Rehfeld, *et al.*, 2017:84).

Public and private organisations, NGOs, NPOs, and individuals (citizens), as well as communities, are the most known actor groups participating in SI (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:23; Nasir & Subarib, 2017:14; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:5). Howaldt and Schröder (2017:42) also confirm that SI usually starts with individual citizens or public or private organisations that are trying to develop new practices and social change. These people establish SI to respond to a particular societal challenge or find a solution for societal needs, wanting to bring about social change (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:42). Although SI can be established by a single

actor, it can also be initiated by an amalgamation of actors from various sectors or organisations or be initiated by a single actor but be scaled-up by other actors (Noya, 2011:23). SI is not a single sector's monopoly as it can be initiated by single sector but be absorbed by a different sector (Noya, 2011:23). Therefore, it is not always the case that an actor who establishes an SI initiative would be the only one to scale it up.

- **Resources**

The potential development and success of SIs is dependent on their access to resources (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:75), and their dealing with constraints and capabilities (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:42). Appropriate resources are necessary to stimulate new inventions but also for the diffusion of SIs, to foster new practices and social changes, and better coping with societal challenges and demands than before (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:45). The most determines critical resources are financial and human resources and they are key determinants to undertaking an SI initiative (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:42). According to Howaldt and Schröder (2017:42), human resources are the first and most important resource is certainly human resources, i.e., the collaboration and cooperation of people, because nothing would happen at all without them. He expanded further that successful SIs are based on people, or networks of people, who succeed in gaining the support of significant other role players, such as civil society, volunteers, professionals and policy agents. This indicates that SIs require substantial human resources (various actors from different sectors and with relevant knowledge), unlocking the potential of society as a whole for specific solutions.

Another critical interconnected resource is the availability of funding, which largely determines successful start-up and subsequently, a successful scaling-up and sustainability of SI initiative (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:42; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:56). Without sufficient funding, SIs often disappear after a while (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:42; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:42). Therefore, diverse funding and support possibilities are necessary to succeed in the implementation and impact of an SI initiative (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:47). Funding would enable the initiators to stimulate SI initiatives. This confirms that the availability of both financial and human resources is crucial to initiating, scaling up and sustaining an SI. However, the successful SI is not solely dependent on resources, but there are key actions and processes that must be considered.

2. Actions

As already articulated that SIs seek to find new ways to address societal challenges by identifying and providing new services that improve the well-being of people (Moenian *et al.*, 2022:2), there are certain actions that must take place for the creation of socially innovative strategies. These actions include the

processes to be undertaken by the involved actors. The processes underpinning SI motivation in Figure 4, include networks, collaborations, participation, co-design, and co-productions that are undertaken by societal actors i.e., citizens, government, businesses, and NGOs, to find novel solutions to address societal challenges (Biljohn, 2019:1). These processes are necessary conditions to create innovative public services that actually address the unnerving societal challenges and the needs of citizens (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:2; Voorberg *et al.*, 2014:22). The positive about these processes is that they promote collaborations, and thus eliminate the blurry boundaries between service providers and service users, wherein service users are part or co-partners in the service delivery process not just passive recipients (Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6). Hence, cooperation, collaboration, partnerships, co-production, and co-creation between different actors are important (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52; Mcquaid, 2010:130).

These processes, particularly collaborations and networks are premised on the notion that expertise from these diverse actors and allowing participation in service delivery generally create capacity within public service delivery systems and improve the design and delivery of public service (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:647). Generally, the networks and collaboration platforms are designed to involve more actors in processes of service delivery (Peters, 2010:41). These platforms are regarded as the main mechanism for stimulating, developing and sustaining SI (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:23; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:34; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:9). In addition, they are perceived to have the potential to stimulate the participation of multi-actors with each contributing to addressing the problem, expanding CSPs, encouraging collaborations, and encouraging the intensive involvement of citizens and communities. It is for of this reason that SI advocates collaboration and cooperation between actors and cut across all sectors of society, namely citizens, public, private and civil society (Perello, 2020:8; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:5) to achieve its ultimate goal (the creation of social and economic value and the introduction of systemic changes) (European Commission, 2013:73). This is well aligned with the fact that SI is cross-sectoral in nature, and thus public sector is no longer viewed as a single actor in service delivery but as a stimulator, facilitator enabler (Nasir & Subarib, 2017:14; OECD, 2014:25) in which other sectors have a critical role to play while boosting the innovative capacity.

It shows that the success of SIs is centered not only on the availability of resources (e.g. Finance and human capital), but also on collaborations, partnerships, participation and user involvement, co-creation and co-production, empowerment and human resources development (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:3) because these processes are key to delivering SI (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:5; European Union, 2014:5; OECD, 2011:23), scaling and diffusion of successful SIs (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45) as well as inducing sustainability

to find lasting solutions to the severe societal challenges (Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; European Commission, 2013:72). When these processes are successful, SI would lead to specific consequences.

3. Consequences

SI provides many benefits to its initiators, actors and users. To begin with, within the context of public sector service delivery, it contributes meaningfully to transformation and effectiveness of service delivery, which is one of the key significant contributions towards meeting the ever-changing societal needs and addressing persistent societal challenges (Biljohn & Lues, 2020b:2; Noya, 2011:22; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:5). SI use in the public sector help organisations to achieve improved product and services (CLES, 2011:7; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64) to resolve deeply-rooted developmental challenges better than the existing solutions (Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:205).

SIs is orientated towards solutions to socio-economic challenges that couldn't find joy through the traditional systems and related activities (Howaldt, 2017:128), and thus is deemed a valuable opportunity to answer to multifaceted social, economic, and environmental challenges facing modern societies (Biljohn & Lues, 2020:2; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:1). Its improvements to the decision-making processes apart from improved public sector services, and it may also lead to emergence of new societal values and practices (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:27) given that it promotes finding of new or improved approaches to resolve the societal problems and better satisfying the societal needs (European Commission, 2013:9; Li *et al.*, 2018:11; UNDP, 2014:29), thus making the public sector very efficient (Noya, 2011:22).

The mobilisation of diverse actors and their joint or collaborative work as well as their production in tackling issues is advantageous to achieving more improved and positive outcomes (European Commission, 2013:9; UNDP, 2014:29). Moreover, Collaborations and partnerships, can produce greater vigor through the sharing of resources, expertise and experience (Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5) and can also create greater scope for innovative approaches aimed at enhancing service delivery (OECD, 2014:34), while helping the public sector to meet its financial needs (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:75), thus expanding its reach and scope (Mcquaid, 2010:131).

Furthermore, the nature of the SI process (collaborations, networks, partnerships, participation, co-production, co-creation, and co-service delivery) may result in improved service delivery, social change and economic change (Biljohn, 2018:38; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358). SI highly promotes participation, collaboration and co-production with different stakeholders including citizens in the service delivery process (OECD 2011:21). The multi-sector collaborations and other processes underpinning the use of SI,

create new relationships and builds capacities and trigger SI (Perello, 2020:11; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:4; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:22). This indicates that the process and consequences of the SI is not the same for technological or other innovation which are mainly characterised by silo operations with a more focus on economic value creation whereas SI, in contrast, are collaboration, participation and co-creation designed with a more focus on social impact and social value (new inclusive social practices), while profit being not the main driver (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:46). Meeting societal needs is the key distinguishing feature of a SI (Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6).

As confirmed by various scholars, SI has an impact on social change and public value as well as economic development and growth (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:14; Pue *et al.*, 2016:26; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:7; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; Sicilia, Sancino *et al.*, 2019:2; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:3). SI is the core generative mechanism for social change, driven by new and configuration of societal practices (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:124). In addition to the positive social change outcomes and improved service delivery, SI also serves as a pathway for economic change and financial returns (Biljohn & Lues, 2020b:2; Perello, 2020:15; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:56).

In addition, the novel solutions generated through SI use may also lead to the effective use of resources, especially finance which is regarded as a very scarce commodity in the public sector (Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:854). It has always been a known case that public sector organisations have been in a dire situation to ensure efficient use of resources owing to the constrained or ever-shrinking public purse, which makes it almost impossible for many public sector organisation to effectively achieve their missions and visions of service delivery (Li *et al.*, 2018:4). In this context, SI becomes useful in terms of ensuring cost-effectiveness because if appropriately implemented, it can deliver with fewer resources, and thus relieve the financial pressures faced by both government and business sectors (European Commission, 2013:9). SI encourages better utilisation of resources that would have been under or over-utilised or not used appropriately (Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6). Moreover, the complementarity of resources through collaborations in SI, may also expand the purse to enable organisations to reach far in achieving their service delivery goals and mandates.

Therefore, collaboration and partnerships are deemed to provide a conducive environment for SI to thrive (European Commission, 2013:15) due to their ability to promote the sharing of knowledge, experiences and cross-pollination of best practices (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52). Furthermore, they also have a potential to stimulate new approaches to addressing developmental issues by promoting information, experience, and knowledge exchange as well as complementarities of resources among multiple actors (Butzin *et al.*, 2017:66; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62; Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Tsakanika, 2017:12; Unceta & Barandiarán,

2019:104). Moreover, because collaboration encourages co-production and co-creation of public services by involving the participation of diverse actors, the public sector could tap into the innovative practices of other sectors (Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7). Co-creation process promotes collaborative and participatory practices and guarantees a range of information for improving public service delivery (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:9; (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3). Hence, co-creation and co-production are regarded as fundamental to public service delivery due to their effectiveness in responding to societal needs for now and future (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:643).

Another important outcome is that SI produces social change with lasting and appropriate results for society to face challenges, making a valuable contribution to the dimensions of empowerment and sustainability (Patias, Liszbinski, Gomes, Brizolla, & Baggio, 2021:58). SI, by providing novel responses to unmet needs of the society, and by reconfiguring practices of actors, contributes to sustainable SI, sustainable societal actions and empowerment of the local actors and communities (Novikova, 2022:4; Pinto *et al.*, 2012:73). Empowerment as an important result and a driver is not only for the innovators and beneficiaries, but also for the involved societal actors including communities (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:56). This empowerment derives from the mobilisation process involved in the SI emergence and adoption (Pue *et al.*, 2016:33) and the integration of diverse expertise of different partners/ actors as well as participation of civil society, users and beneficiaries (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:47; Moenian *et al.*, 2022:11; O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:61) and development of new roles and responsibilities (Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6).

The expertise from these diverse actors, their collaborations and participation in service delivery, improve the design and delivery of public service and create capacity within public service delivery systems and capacity of society and individuals to respond effectively to their needs even (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:647). The collaborative service delivery through the co-production and co-creation process would lead not only to public sector efficiency and effectiveness but would indeed also empower and capacitate service users and even service providers or other actors (Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Sorrentino *et al.*, 2018:281; Tsakanika, 2017:12) because all are key participants in decision-making process and design delivery of services. In this regard, the participation encouraged through the SI process, surges empowerment, which in turn lead to societal resilience, through which society would become a social system (Moenian *et al.*, 2022:2). Empowerment is also continuously developed by mutual learning of all actors involved within the SI process, thus leading to capacity building and new capabilities (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:56; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6). Essentially, mutual learning and empowerment are highly relevant to develop the SI initiatives further and to attain sustainability (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:49; Patias *et al.*, 2021:58).

In conclusion, it is worth noting that the use of SI in the public sector is not only about implementing new things to improve efficiency in service delivery and empower people, but also about creating impact and value for society (Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; OECD, 2014:4; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). Owing to this fact, it becomes necessary to monitor and evaluate the SI initiatives (at both project and programme implementation and closeout level) and measuring its impact (European Commission, 2013:17; Biljohn & Lues, 2016:74). This may serve as a room for learning and improvement to ensure that SI initiatives achieve its objectives and create impact. Monitoring, evaluation, analysis, and learning could bring about improvements in the current service delivery approaches and improvement in future interventions (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:74) and promote continuous development (CLES, 2011:6).

Moreover, monitoring and evaluation help to determine which policies, strategies and approaches work best to improving public service delivery. Hence, authors like Pinto *et al.* (2012:73), also confirm the remarkable contribution of SI in improving public policies. Improvement in public policies may result in direct and appropriate approaches in dealing with societal challenges because SI in its nature fosters the use of new approaches, instruments and coping strategies (Brandsen, Cattacin, Evers, & Zimmer, 2016:305) to better tackle public sector service delivery issues. The improvement aspect in service delivery is an essential goal and outcome desired by every public sector organisation. It is, therefore, deemed important because improvement in public service delivery may further lead to improved capabilities and new forms of collaboration (Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:854). The more the newer forms of collaboration, the more the opportunity for creating novel solutions that are relevant, effective, and sustainable.

2.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided a conceptual demarcation for SI use in public sector programme delivery. The chapter was introduced in section 2.1. Section 2.2 evaluated Public Administration theories influencing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. The section reflected two theories New Public Governance Theory (section 2.2.1) and SI Theory (section 2.2.2), which were evaluated in respect of their theoretical roots, focus, contribution, and shortcomings. This includes Table 2 which highlighted the commonalities between these two public administration theories and Figure 1 which illustrated their process view. Section 2.3 conceptualised SI (defining SI and explaining its objectives), which include sections 2.3.1, 2.3.2, 2.3.3, 2.3.4, 2.3.5 and 2.3.6. Section 2.3.1 explained attributes of SI (2.3.1.1 cross-sectoral, 2.3.1.2 collaboration and networks, 2.3.1.3 participation, 2.3.1.4 co-creation, 2.3.1.5 co-production and 2.3.1.6 partnerships) while Section 2.3.2 discussed the conditions for SI (2.3.2.1 motivation to use SI, 2.3.2.2 SI Initiators, and 2.3.2.3 resources). First, section 2.3.3 outlined the consequences/ outcomes of using SI. This section concluded by summarising SI motivations, attributes and consequences as illustrated

in Figure 3. Sections 2.3.4 and 2.3.5 discussed the SI in public sector programme delivery and the benefits of using SI in public sector programme delivery respectively. Lastly, section 2.3.6 discussed the challenges and barriers of using SI in public sector programme delivery.

Section 2.4 presented the conceptual framework for using SI as illustrated in Figure 2.4. This framework was constructed based on the SI information and processes outlined in the entire Chapter 2. Section 2.5, which is the last section of this chapter, provided the closing remarks. Chapter 3, which follows next, provides perspectives on cross-sector partnerships and the use of SI in public sector programme delivery with the intention to investigate the use of SI in cross-sector partnerships.

CHAPTER 3: PERSPECTIVES ON CSPs AND THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The complexity of the socio-economic challenges we face are beyond the ability of any single sector, discipline, or sphere to manage or resolve sufficiently (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:727; Cloete, 2015:5; Lange, 2015:2; Yan, Lin & Clarke, 2018:1). This is because no single organisation has the capacity, and all the resources or expertise necessary to solve persistent problems that require going beyond normal routine or business as usual (Cloete, 2015:5; Lange, 2015:2). Thus, to cope with these dynamic and complex problems that involve interdependent societal variables necessitates transformative approaches including CSPs (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2). Yan *et al.* (2018:1) add that the scale and complexity of these issues prompt broader collaboration across different sectors to explore innovative solutions that effectively address these problems. Hence the growing consensus among actors from different sectors that addressing societal challenges commands joint effort through CSPs (Arslan, Golgeci, Khan, Al-Tabbaa, & Hurmelinna-Laukkanen, 2020:3; Cloete, 2015:5; Lange, 2015:2). The central belief is that CSPs can potentially play a significant role to address these problems by merging the diverse vision, knowledge, experience, expertise, and resources of different sectors (Kindornay, Tissot, & Sheiban, 2014:13; Quayle, Grosvold, & Chapple, 2019:665), thus finding new and innovative ways to effectively address them. CSPs are evident in practice and reflected in the academic literature as a means of solving organisational problems, reducing organisational burdens, acquiring resources, and augmenting capacity (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:119; Cloete, 2015:5; Ihenacho, 2018:27) and creating great remedies for pressing societal issues (Weber, Weidner, Kroeger & Wallace, 2017:932).

According to Pittz and Intindola (2021:2), CSPs have demonstrated effectiveness in addressing intractable societal problems as they afford organisations to tackle issues from different perspectives and create unique and innovative solutions. CSPs are considered an effective tool for service delivery and solving socio-economic issues (Clarke & Crane, 2018:309; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4; Vogel, Göbel, Grewe-Salfeld, Herbert, Matsuo, & Weber, 2021:17). However, this can be challenged, given that a little research has systematically addressed the question of whether effectiveness, efficiency, and equity are realised through CSPs (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680; Weber *et al.*, 2017:947). Nonetheless, to address the emergent wicked problems of the modern world economy, unique, new, and innovative ways of collaboration between the private, public, and third sectors have spawned through various industries to solve some of the world's most persistent societal problems (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2). Accounting to this rationale, CSPs have become a vibrant

topic in management research (Vogel *et al.*, 2021:17) and contemporary public administration (Krishnan, Geyskens, & Steenkamp, 2016:2536; Nweke, 2016:96).

It is against this background that this chapter investigates CSP and SI's use in public sector programme delivery. Section 3.2 conceptualises the concept of CSP by defining CSPs (3.2.1), reflecting on its attributes (3.2.2), contextualising conditions for CSPs (3.2.3), identifying the success factors of CSPs (3.2.4), determining the consequences of using CSPs (3.2.5) and determining the challenges confronting CSPs. Section 3.3 probes CSPs and the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. As such, Section 3.3.1 discusses the nexus between CSPs and public sector programme delivery, Section 3.3.2 discusses the role of CSPs in advancing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery, and section 3.3.3 determines the challenges hampering the use of social innovation in CSPs. Section 3.4 offers a conceptual framework for CSPs to use social innovation in public sector programme delivery. Section 3.5 concludes this chapter.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISING CSPs

The CSPs are evolving as an important and highly recommended approach for solving complex societal problems (Nweke, 2016:94; Vogel *et al.*, 2021:17) given the common understanding that the societal problems are cross-cutting, and that their scale and complexity are beyond a single sector's capacity to address them (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:727; Yan *et al.*, 2018:1). The growth of CSPs is witnessed locally, regionally, nationally, and internationally (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2). Due to its growth in popularity as observed in the past few decades, CSPs are attracting greater attention from theorists, policy and decision-makers, the business and the community sectors (Krishnan *et al.*, 2016:2536; Nweke, 2016:96). This has resulted in several attempts to conceptualise the CSP as reflected in a couple of pieces of academic literature.

Therefore, Section 3.2 provides an overview of the conceptualisation of CSP. The conceptualisation starts by defining CSP in Section 3.2.1, followed by Section 3.2.2 which investigates the attributes of CSPs. The conceptualisation further investigates the pre-conditions for CSPs in Section 3.2.3, CSP success factors in Section 3.2.4, consequences of using CSP in Section 3.2.5, and lastly, challenges confronting CSPs in 3.2.6.

3.2.1 Defining CSPs

Although CSP has gained popularity due to its increased use as demonstrated in almost all disciplines and sectors i.e. business, economic, social, politics, and society (Weber *et al.*, 2017:929), its definition remains diverse as reflected by various scholars. Therefore, it is important to define CSP because it can wrongly be

associated with other things. As a kick-start, CSPs are regarded as a common ground where multiple sectors converge to provide for the basic needs of society (Ihenacho 2018:27). Such convergence on service delivery and on common objectives create grounds for collaboration, cooperation and partnerships among organisations from the different sectors, in the form of CSPs (Ihenacho 2018:27). According to Clarke and Crane (2018:303) and Ihenacho (2018:51) CSP refers to a form of organisations partnership involving two or more organisations belonging to different sectors of the economy such as the public (government), the private (for-profit organisations), and the third sector (nonprofits). This is slightly different from Weber *et al.* (2017:931) definition which refers to CSP as a working relationship between two or more organisations to help each other to meet common objectives, and not necessarily from different societal sectors. This assumes that collaborations can occur between organisations of the same societal sector but with different sectoral mandates. For instance, partnership between the DALRRD and the Department of either Social Development, Education, or Health. This constitutes different sectors of the same societal sector.

Again as reflected by other scholars, CSP refers to a collaboration involving actors from a range of organisations i.e. government, businesses government, and /or civil society (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3; Clarke & Crane, 2018:303; Just Governance Group, 2014:1), with the objective to jointly address economic, social and environmental challenges (Clarke & Crane, 2018:303; Voegel *et al.*, 2021:17). CSP is a voluntary collaboration of organisations from different sectors that jointly work together to identify and describe problems that concern public responsibilities and work towards their solutions while ensuring equality in sharing resources, risks, benefits and accountability (NASCA, 2017:4; Wyrwa, 2018:126). This encompasses an array of activities involving joint working between multiple sectors and includes “agreements of stakeholders working in new ways to address complex social and economic challenges” (NASCA, 2017:4). This is complemented by the definition assumed by Barth, Ferreira, and Miguel (2018:3) and Cloete (2015:1) which regard CSP as a series of strategies for addressing most of the difficult public challenges in current society such poverty, unemployment, and other societal problems. They regard CSP as a unique way of connecting public, private, non-profit, philanthropic, civil society, labour and knowledge institutions to fight the plethora of socio-economic storms.

Another view is that CSP is a process in which organisations collaborate to share information, resources, capabilities and activities (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:24; Conroy, Anderson, Mastri, Benton & Lehman, 2021:1; Kindornay *et al.*, 2014: iv; Partnership Resource Centre, 2012:1; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24; Ritvala, Salmi, & Andersson, 2014:5; Wyrwa, 2018:126), and exploring how they can be productively joined to achieve outcome (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5). This intends to help organisations to better coordinate issues and build capacity, thus making them more efficient at using scarce resources, and reduce

the burden on human resources, and eventually improving outcomes (Conroy *et al.*, 2021:1; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24). Hence, CSPs are generally viewed as a strategy that organisations undertake to create greater value and build capacity by leveraging resources and competencies of individual organisation (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:138; Just Governance Group, 2014:1; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24). Against this background and from different perspectives, Table 3.1 summarises various definitions of CSP as captured by scholars.

Table 3.1: Definitions of CSP

Perspective	Definition
Voluntary collaboration	CSP is a voluntary collaboration of organisations from different sectors working together to tackle problems that concern public responsibilities and work towards their solutions while ensuring equality in sharing resources, risks, benefits, and accountability (Just Governance Group, 2014:1; NASCA, 2017:4; Wyrwa, 2018:126).
The partnership between two or more sectors or organisations	Partnership or collaboration established between two or more actors from different sectors i.e., government, businesses government, and /or civil society aimed at addressing a specific challenge or achieving a particular goal (Arslan <i>et al.</i> , 2020:3; Clarke & Crane, 2018:303; Ihenach, 2018:51; Just Governance Group, 2014:1; Matibane, 2010:20).
Complementarity of resources	CSP is a collaborative effort in which partners from different societal sectors pool resources to provide solutions to common problems (Ihenacho, 2018:27; Kindornay <i>et al.</i> , 2014:13; Partnership Resource Centre, 2012:1; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24; Ritvala <i>et al.</i> , 2014:10).
Addressing societal challenges	CSPs are seen as means to tackle the complex social, economic, and environmental challenges faced by the world (Clarke & Crane, 2018:309; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Vogel <i>et al.</i> , 2021:17).
Interdependency to achieving a mutual goal	CSPs are interdependent partners working closely together, bringing different abilities and exploring how they can be creatively and effectively joined and assuming joint risks and responsibilities for the mutual outcome (Ihenacho, 2018:17; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5)
Collaborative actions or joint activities	CSP refers to all types of undertakings, programmes, projects, and initiatives that are jointly planned, developed, implemented and pursued in an efficient and sustainable way using innovative approaches, focused on the socio-economic

	environment (Barth <i>et al.</i> , 2018:3; Cloete, 2015:1; NASCA, 2017:4; Wyrwa, 2018:129).
--	---

Source: Adapted from Arslan *et al.* (2020:3); Clarke and Crane (2018:303); Cloete (2015:1); Danish Red Cross (2016:4); Ihenach (2018:51); Kindornay *et al.* (2014:13); NASCA (2017:4); Ridwan and Bokosi (2020:24); Vogel *et al.* (2021:17); Wyrwa (2018:129)

Although different scholars describe CSP differently as discussed, there are some commonalities observed in these definitions. First, CSP is a collaboration between two or more organisations or sectors. Secondly, these collaborations occur to achieve a common goal, for instance tackling a specific societal issue, achieving a specific developmental goal, etc. It essentially involves pursuing an outcome that one sector or organisation could not achieve in isolation or individually. Lastly, the CSP entails leveraging resources among the actors involved (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:24; Conroy *et al.*, 2021:1). As highlighted in many pieces of academic literature, CSP is a means of solving organisational problems, reducing organisational burdens, acquiring resources and augmenting capacity and skills (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:119; Ritvala *et al.*, 2014:10).

Given the plentiful definitions of CSP, the study adopts the definition by Arslan *et al.* (2020:3); Clarke and Crane (2018:303); Just Governance Group (2014:1); Voegel *et al.* (2021:17) and Weber *et al.* (2017:931), wherein CSP is regarded as a collaboration between different organisations aimed at achieving a common goal or addressing a development or societal issue (Just Governance Group, 2014:1). Bryson, Crosby, and Stone, (2015:648) highlight that the term “collaborations” is commonly used interchangeably with “partnerships” due to the prevalence of the latter term in the literature (Bryson *et al.*, 2015:648).

The term “partnership” covers various concepts and practices. McQuaid (2000:2) points out that partnership is used to describe a wide range of relationships in many circumstances and locations. This includes a wide range of models, from simple once-off collaborations to deep and embedded partnerships that last for decades in which partners also share the risk and reward (NASCA, 2017:4). Generally, as compared to a mere collaboration, partnership is well structured and binding, and within the partnership, actors collaborate. Hence the partnership is described as a joint working arrangement where the partners, who are independent bodies agree to cooperate to achieve a common goal and create a new organisational structure and the process to collaboratively achieve this goal separate from their own organisations (Cumbria Country Council, nd: 3; Krishnan, 2014:3; UN, 2022:7). Partnership involves both the development and delivery of strategies or projects or operations (McQuaid, 2000:2). In partnership, actors plan and implement jointly

agreed activities or initiatives, often with joint resources, and share risks and rewards. CSPs in this regard is recognised as all types of undertakings, programmes, projects, and initiatives that are jointly planned, developed, implemented, and pursued in an efficient and sustainable way using innovative approaches, focused on the socio-economic environment (Wyrwa, 2018:129). The next section describes the attributes of CSP.

3.2.2 Attributes of CSPs

CSP, as one of the partnership arrangements considered by many organisations around the world, is marked by its unique attributes. CSPs have distinct characteristics as captured in Figure 3.1 and discussed in the rest of this section. This section focuses on distinguishing attributes underpinning the use of CSPs. These are the attributes described as those characteristics that define the CSP concept. The attributes include cross-sectoral organisations, collaboration, networks, common goal, and innovative structures and processes.

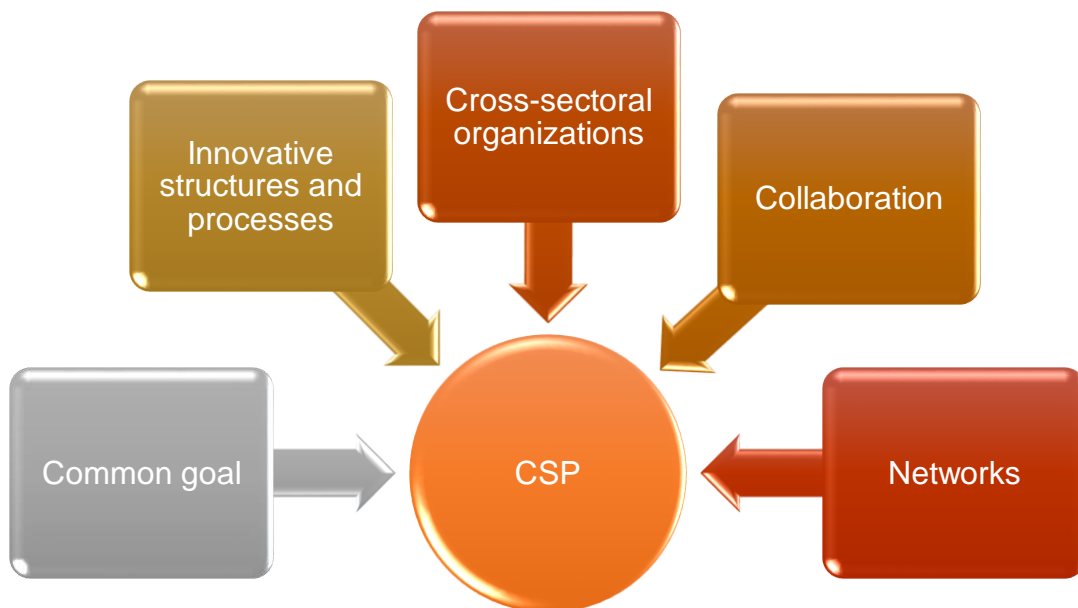


Figure 3.1: Characteristic elements of CSPs (Author: own)

a) Cross-sectoral organisations

CSPs are established between sectors, organisations, community groups, and individuals (Grudinschi, Kaljunen, Hokkanen, Hallikas, Sintonen, & Puustinen, 2013:6; Wyrwa, 2018:122). CSPs encompass undertakings, programmes, and projects where cross-sectors collaborate in various ways i.e., financially, operationally, etc., with the aim of working towards common objectives and multidimensional outcomes

(Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; NASCA, 2017:4). CSPs are completely different from out-sourcing or any other type of partnership (Cloete, 2015:4), as it is about different sectors working in collaboratively. CSP can occur between two or more organisations, termed as bi-sector partnerships and tri-sector partnerships respectively (Wang, nd:9; Wyrwa, 2018:128). The tri-sector involves only two organisations and tri-sector happens between more than two organisations (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3). Figure 3.2 illustrates CSP connections.

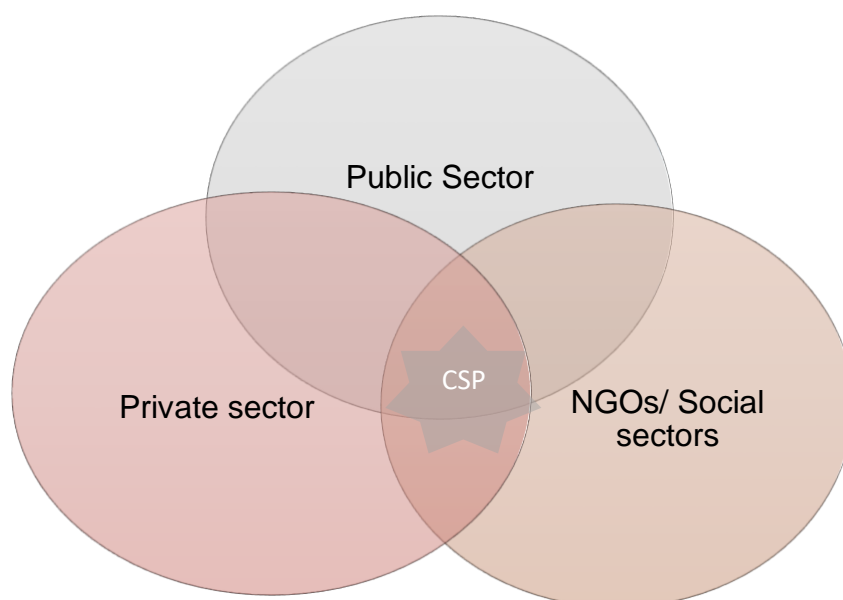


Figure 3.2: CSP connections (Source: Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3; Clarke & Crane, 2018:303; Ihenach, 2018:51; Just Governance Group, 2014:1)

There are many existing CSPs categories, ranging from (i)Public-Public Partnership, (ii)Public-Private Partnerships (PPP) to (iii)Public-NGO partnerships or simultaneously between all these sectors (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:682; Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:9; Matibane, 2010:20).

(i)Public-Public Partnerships

Public-Public partnerships refer to a case where public organisations collaborate or partner with another public organisation with the aim to achieve effective service delivery outcomes or mutual objectives. The main rationale behind Public-Public Partnerships is to tackle cross-cutting issues through a joint-up arrangement. Other frequent reasons include tapping into the competencies of other public sector organisations, harnessing strengths and expertise, and extending the reach. To this end, Public-Public

partnership is considered to enhance the attainment of outcomes that are typically used to measure public service effectiveness. The Public-Public partnership has a positive impact on the effectiveness of delivering government programmes. (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:682; Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:9)

(ii)Public-Private Partnerships

PPPs involve collaboration between a government and private-sector organisations for the implementation of large-scale projects such as public infrastructure, assets, and services using the resources and expertise of the private sector (Raman, 2014:5). PPP generally aims to exploit resource complementarities between public and private organisations to generate innovative solutions and apply them in an organisational environment that is not burdened by the restrictive rules, laws and regulations usually found in the public sector (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:826). Where the public sector is lacking resources and requires more efficient services, PPP can fill the gap and help foster new solutions and bring financial capital. Despite their advantages, PPPs are often criticised for blurring the lines between legitimate public purposes and profit for the private sector (Raman, 2014:5). The criticism stems from the fact that these two sectors are driven by different goals. The private sector is driven by profit while the public sector is driven by the public service delivery mandate.

(iii)Public-NGO Partnerships/ Social Sector Partnerships

NGOs offer a way to connect to civil society. Connecting with civil society would limit public sector organisations to providing one-size fit all-services because NGOs can better provide niche segments of the target population to address specialised needs (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:684). One of the key contributions from civil society is their practical experience which contributes to creativity and finding of new solutions to problems (Matibane, 2010:30). NGOs play a supportive role to both public and private sectors, which have the potential for innovation (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47). The benefits are apparent to respond to the actual needs of society, which translate to equity (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:684).

These different partnerships as narrated above can occur either formal or informal. The formal CSPs are generally characterised by clear commitments stipulated in binding legal agreements/contracts whereas informal ones are characterised by engagements, negotiation, and non-binding agreements (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3).

b) Collaboration

CSP is marked by a unique form of working together often referred to as collaboration which is characterised by strong and interdependent relationships and exchanges, greater levels of cohesion, and requiring new ways of working (Keast & Mandell, 2014:9; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5). Collaboration is understood to be cooperation between individuals, organisations, sectors, and social groups working together towards a common goal or objective through the implementation of the functions, programmes (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Weber *et al.*, 2017:931; Wyrwa, 2018:119). Collaboration is no longer limited to just one sector, but increasingly often involves CSPs (Domański & Kitzman, 2016:56 cited by Wyrwa, 2018:119).

CSPs are intended to share, exchange, or co-develop, core-design and co-produce services, products, systems, and solutions (Cloete, 2015:5; Krishnan *et al.*, 2016:2536), which in turn, lead to the synergy of scattered resources, and cost-effectiveness in implementation of projects and technologies (Wyrwa, 2018:133). CSPs support the creation of joint strategies and coordination of activities between actors (Wyrwa, 2018:127). The joint-up action break-up the boundaries among organisations and helps avoid duplication of efforts (Wyrwa, 2018:133) by bringing all players on board to achieve a common goal (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:682; Curnin & O'Hara, 2019:3; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Vopni, 2020: 1; Wyrwa, 2018:120).

c) New Networks

The CSP approach enables the creation of a new network of connections and cooperation (Flieger, 2016:116 cited by Wyrwa, 2018:132). Observation of current practice indicates that organisations working together, and pursuing common goals often gain the ability to develop new structures and networks (Wyrwa, 2018:120). The development of CSP networks means that organisations become less constrained (Wang, nd:9) and more efficient (Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4) due to the co-existence of organisations from various sectors (Wang, nd:9). Organisations acting jointly often gain the ability to create new structures because of collaboration. These new structures can generate more positive results than each organisation would separately. The network allows for the sharing and exchange of resources that would otherwise not be available when an organisation operates individually. These benefits stem mainly from the general advantages of collaborative action, which also include economies of scale (multiplicity of actors results in an increased level of production), synergy (collaboration achieves better results than individual organisation) and achieving critical mass (due to high accessibility of diverse skills, knowledge, financial resources, etc.). (Wyrwa, 2018:133)

d) Achieving of a common goal

Organisations enter CSPs, to pursue a common goal, vision, mission, and interests (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:681; Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Wyrwa, 2018:123) or to jointly undertake a set of actions or deliverables (Cloete, 2015:4). According to Wyrwa (2018:131), CSPs are formed primarily to solve societal problems that cannot be solved by a single organisation alone. This is based on the belief that collaboration between different sectors or actors is at the heart of integrated efforts to solve the multidimensional challenges facing society and communities (Lange, 2015:2) particularly social issues, economic growth, and sustainable environment (Clarke & Crane, 2018:303; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4). In addition, as organisations are faced enormous service delivery challenges, CSPs are employed as a strategy to improve services and products (Bayne *et al.*, 2017:135; Lu, Zhang, & Meng, 2010:1012; Meyer & Meyer 2016:157; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4). Thus, when organisations partner, they aim to achieve a common goal i.e., responding to a specific challenge, needs or improving services.

e) Innovation

CSPs are characterised by innovative processes and approaches (Wyrwa, 2018:132). By combining diverse resources and expertise (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Villani *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020) and drawing the core competencies of various actors (Ihenacho, 2018:16), the hybridity approach stimulates innovation (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Wyrwa, 2018:127) given the increased capacities, knowledge, and competencies as opposed to isolation acts. Barth *et al.* (2018:3) also confirm that operating in collaboration induces innovative thinking and approaches as partners learn from each other. This process may lead to appropriate identification, and in turn, appropriate solutions to societal issues appearing in public spaces (Wyrwa, 2018:121). As noted by Wyrwa (2018:121) this is considered an SI, which contributes to accomplishing goals more than the current way of operations.

3.2.3 Pre-conditions for CSPs

Like any other partnership, CSPs are not a straight-line kind of arrangement. They are rooted in specific pre-conditions that must be taken into consideration when embarking on a CSP (Gazley, 2017:3; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). According to Bryson *et al.* (2015:653); Grudinschi *et al.* (2013:10) and Network for Business Sustainability (2013:11), the starting point is to identify the strengths and capabilities of the potential partner and assess how well it complements yours. This element seems to be critical drawing from the ideology that the core objective of CSP is to build capacity through the complementarity of resources and capabilities (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3). Different authors further identified other different pre-conditions that are critical for an effective CSP as unpacked in the rest of this section.

(i) Openness and transparency regarding motivations

The issue of transparency is another important aspect of the partnership. The success of an initiative often rests on the ability of each partner to be open, clear, and transparent in the negotiations of objectives, goals, and consequences (Just Governance Group, 2014:2). CSPs require all partners to understand the motivations, different cultures, and structure of the others (NASCA, 2017:15). This is also regarded as a CSP success factor. It then becomes crucial that before an initiative is undertaken, both partners' motivations should be clear to maximise impact (Just Governance Group, 2014:2). Where there is no transparency, suspicions, uncertainties, and tensions are likely to occur because at this stage parties do not know each other (Matibane, 2010:28). To avoid or limit suspicions and mistrust, there should be a degree of transparency among parties. When partners are transparent with each other, trust and strong relationships are built (Nweke, 2016:99).

(ii) Building trust and relationship

The key component for successful CSPs is the importance of developing trusting and strong relationships, including with the general public (Allen, Samuel-Jakubos, & Waidmann, 2021:11; Bryson *et al.*, 2015:653; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:5; NASCA, 2017:14; Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:2; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:13). Therefore, collaboration through CSPs requires the building of trust and strong relationships (Curnin & O'Hara, 2019:23). This would result in openness on challenges and potential conflict (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14). In addition, trust itself can increase the commitment from partners as well as increase information sharing (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:439). Due to the dynamic nature of CSPs and networks, information sharing is crucial.

Efficient information exchange is a key component of CSPs to address the ever-changing societal needs (Allen *et al.*, 2021:ii) because it helps ensure better utilisation of resources, minimisation of costs, and development of effective solutions (Allen *et al.*, 2021:ii). Lack or inadequate information sharing would pose a risk to the collaborations and the performance of the partnership itself (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:441) because of wrong decision-making. According to Public Sector Research Centre (2007:441), information sharing has a significant influence on the performance of the partnership. Information sharing also has an influence on the development of appropriate and enhanced solutions. As suggested by Barth *et al.* (2018:24), before entering a partnership, it is crucial to build a relationship between all parties and build a case for collaboration. This would foster commitment and encourage information sharing among partners.

(iii) Formal Agreement

Successful CSPs require initial conditions, drivers, and linking mechanisms such as formal partnership agreements to guide the processes and foster shared goals (Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). An official agreement is crucial to stipulate obligations of the partnership inclusive of ownership arrangements, roles and responsibilities, power distribution, risk management and operational system (Alawamleh & Popplewell 2012:433; Danish Red Cross, 2016:14). Formal agreement includes documents such as Memorandum of Agreement (MoA) or Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14). These formal agreements are paramount in collaborations, given that lack of agreements may result in misunderstandings, thus increasing the likelihood of collaboration failure (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:433).

(iv) Alignment of organisational priorities and goals

Alignment of priorities, goals, and resources is one of the critical steps to foster and sustain CSPs (Nweke, 2016:98). To gain the benefits of CSPs opportunities, it is imperative that the partnering organisations align their work (Nweke, 2016:99) given that CSP involves multiple organisations with differing agendas in which various interests, agendas, and objectives of various actors may clash with each other. Based on this reason, the design and implementation of cross-sector initiatives or projects require great alignment. Alignment is achieved through transparency concerning motivations or incentives, the definition of roles and responsibilities, the definition of outcomes to be achieved, and great mutual trust and synergy. It is very important that motivations and objectives are well aligned to allow for effective and smooth cooperation.

Barth *et al.* (2018:24) recommend that from the onset, partners clearly define the objectives and agree on operational modus operandi (Barth *et al.*, 2018:24). Varying methods of operation may impede direct and smooth operations between institutions. As such, a baseline alignment of organisational culture is necessary for effective collaboration (Good Governance Learning Network-GGLN 2017:14). Nweke (2016:99) added that partners need to actively learn each other's business operations, values, and culture to identify areas of synergy and shared goals. Shared goals and targeted efforts are key ingredients for successful CSPs (Lu *et al.*, 2010:1013; Nweke, 2016:99). Shared goals are general antecedent conditions for CSP (Matibane, 2010:27; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:27). To create and sustain a successful partnership, collaborators must share complementary goals, even though they are not necessarily the same. Organisations may have different individual goals, but the vision can integrate these goals, and without compromising their organisational goals and mandate (Danish Red Cross, 2016:4).

(v) Risk assessment

Risks linked with CSPs are different and plentiful. Commonly, partnerships carry an aspect of risk in it for the parties involved. It is therefore becoming crucial to understand the potential risks and how these are distributed among partners (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:8). It is always necessary to embark on the risk assessment process and determine mitigation strategies (Danish Red Cross, 2016:16). Effective risk management may lead to better decision-making and project planning, improved partners' relationships and trust and increased likelihood for the project to achieve its objectives as well as improved efficiency and effectiveness (Danish Red Cross, 2016:16). The partnership agreement should clearly outline risk management (Alawamleh & Popplewell 2012:433) to ensure a healthier bottom line for the success of a CSP.

(vi) Partnership governance structure

The governance structure is an important factor in CSPs, given that its lack may compromise the success of the partnership (Clarke & Crane, 2018:134). Every partnership must establish its governance process. However, it is worth noting that there is no one-size-fits-all or universal governance structure for all partnerships. Therefore, partnering organisations must create and design the governance structure to fit their partnership (Cairns & Harris, 2010:8; Danish Red Cross, 2016:13). In the CSP initiation phase, it is essential that partnering organisations invest much time in exploring appropriate governance arrangements that work best.

Depending on the nature and complexity of the partnership, the suggested organisational structure comprises of 2-3 levels, thus a) level 1-strategic, b) level 2- tactical, and c) level 3- implementing (Danish Red Cross, 2016:13). Level 1 is a strategic function or steering committee comprising representatives from all partners involved (World Meteorological Organization, 2018:6). The primary function of the strategic level is to oversee the MoU / Partnership Agreement document to help achieve the objectives of the partnerships (Sharma & Vankateswaran, 2020:4397; World Meteorological Organization, 2018:6). This level also has the mandate to play a central role in their organisation and make high-level or strategic decisions in the partnership (Sharma & Vankateswaran, 2020:4397). Level 2, the tactic team, is responsible for managing the project plan and feeds level 1 (Victorian Council of Social Science, 2018:5). This level should ideally comprise a project manager from each organisation (Danish Red Cross, 2016:13). The tactic team agree on a 'modus operandi' with fixed and regular meeting intervals. They act and make day-to-day decisions. The last level, the implementation, comprises representatives from all partners (Danish Red Cross, 2016:13). This is an operational arm responsible for the implementation of joint work, and to monitor progress (Braun, 2015:10; Victorian Council of Social Science, 2018:5). Its purpose is to chart out a roadmap to achieve partnership goals and ensure the execution of different activities and deliverables as

specified in the project plan (Braun, 2015:10). At this level, each partner implements their respective activities agreed upon and feeds the tactic level.

(vii) **Clear Roles and Responsibilities**

In CSPs, partners share responsibilities (Wyrwa, 2018:123). It is significant to ensure that the roles and responsibilities of each partner are clear, and each partner must accordingly be accountable for their responsibilities in the partnership (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14; Dempsey, Burton, & Duncan, 2016:6; Lu *et al.*, 2010:1016; Matibane, 2010:32; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:6). Not establishing roles and responsibilities among partners might compromise the efficiencies of the partnership (Clarke & Crane, 2018:134). Therefore, the partnership agreement document i.e., MoA must clearly stipulate who does what. However, given the complexity of CSPs, it is often difficult to identify and allocate responsibilities in a partnership (Clarke & Crane, 2018:134). Considering that human resources assigned to the project may change at any given time, the availability of strong governance is critical to enable others to take over where necessary (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14). In this regard, a strong governance structure, indicating clear roles and responsibilities of each actor is of utmost importance (Clarke & Crane, 2018:134).

All CSP conditions are necessary for the success of initiatives because overlooking the pre-conditions, as observed by Lu *et al.* (2010:1010) may lead to partnership failure. This means abiding by the preconditions of CSP could lessen the related challenges, thus increasing the chances of CSP success (Bryson *et al.*, 2015:653). Over and above entering a MoA or MoU, it is important to identify partners' core capabilities and resources as it is necessary for determining how it can compensate for the weaknesses and for finding innovative solutions to different sorts of challenges (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:10; Reid & Rein, 2008:20). A partner's capabilities should complement yours (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:11). This aspect serves as one of the ingredients for successful CSPs (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:10). The below section outlines the CSP success factors.

3.2.4 CSPs Success Factors

CSP is not necessarily a win-win proposition. Its success is dependent on various factors (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:2; Wyrwa, 2018:122). It is prudent to determine such factors to provide an understanding of what cross-sector partners should consider for successful collaborations. This study discovered six factors that are deemed significant as well articulated in many studies. These factors such as availability of resources, appropriate skills, mutual commitment, project communication, project Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E), and flexibility in the relationship are discussed in the rest of this section.

a) Availability of Resources

CSP success depends on various types of co i.e., in-kind, finance, human resources, assets, data, hard work, and patience (Cairns & Harris, 2010:6; Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Gazley, 2017:3). The diversity of resources (assets, skills, expertise, financial resources and abilities) should be assessed at the outset (Reid & Rein, 2008:20) to determine if they add complementary value. It is prudent to find out what resources the partner organisation brings to the table and establish if they add complementary value. It is also important to understand what resources are necessary to meet your objective (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:11). In solidifying the common understanding that organisations enter CSPs to leverage resources (both financial and non-financial) to increase their capacities (Cloete, 2015:5; Matibane, 2010:29; Rao-Nicholson et al., 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3; Wyrwa, 2018:126), organisations intending to partner must demonstrate commitment to contribute resources rather than expecting contribution only from the potential partner (Oregon Health Authority, 2017:20). This reflects that availability of resources is the key for the CPS take-off.

b) Appropriate skills

In the CSPs, funding alone is seldom sufficient to bring about change (Barth *et al.*, 2018:20; Cairns & Harris, 2010:6). Allen *et al.* (2021:10) consider the right skilled people as the CSPs' most essential asset for driving change and establishing reciprocal relationships that enable effective collaborations. Further alluded to by Danish Red Cross (2016:14), the success of CSPs heavily relies upon a range of important people skills among partners. Most of the skills and capacities required are similar to those that are generally considered as being critical for organisational effectiveness, however, there are also some that are particularly appropriate to CSPs. Among the skills and capacities critical in CSPs are technical knowledge and managerial skills (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:2). As per their elaboration, technical skills relate to the design and implementation of the partnership. For instance, this may relate to specific thematic knowledge pertinent to the objectives of the partnership (e.g., agriculture, construction, etc.), and legal knowledge (e.g., complex contractual requirements of the formal CSPs). Managerial skills mainly relate to the effectiveness and accountability of the partnership.

Furthermore, a CSP may be regarded as a new organisation itself, with its own requirements to effectively achieve its objectives and maintain accountability to its partner organisations and its stakeholders (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:2). This needs a particular skill to ensure a continuous balance between effectiveness and accountability, which is necessary to tracks inputs, processes, and outcomes (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:1; Lu *et al.*, 2010:1016; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:4;

Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:48). This is referred to as relationship management which also constitute an important sub-set of the managerial skills (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14; Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:2). In addition, trust building, networking skills, facilitation and coordination, the ability to share perspectives, communication, and conflict resolution are also marked critical managerial skills (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14) required to run a successful CSP. It is therefore deemed necessary to consider these skills when embarking on a CSP (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14), because the lack of appropriate skills is probable to result in unsuccessful CSP initiatives and projects.

c) Mutual Commitment

The mutual commitment of partners is perceived to be the most important factor for CSP success (Findlay-Brooks, Visser, & Wright, 2007:6). CSP needs shared commitment from both partnering organisations to achieve a specific outcome. Therefore, when prioritising it is important to consider the degree to which they are committed and interested to see the problem solved and seeing the partnership successful (Reid & Rein, 2008:20). In a partnership, the involved parties should be willing and committed to taking on the necessary responsibilities to achieve the intended objectives and outcomes of their partnership (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:6). It is imperative to prioritise committed partners who bring something critical to the table. A clear and strategic direction helps people commit to the partnership (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:12). A balanced commitment and investment from each partner would result in a partnership that drives impact, innovation, and sustainability over the long term, whereas the opposite may lead to the CSP failure (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:440). Hence it is critical that this aspect is given enormous attention for the success of the CSPs.

d) Project communication

Effective and efficient communication with and between internal and external stakeholders is of utmost importance (Danish Red Cross, 2016:19). Therefore, it is important that partners develop a clear communication plan to reach out to all partners involved (Danish Red Cross, 2016:19; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:49). Communication strategy is also important for the partnership to support the achievement of the overall objectives of the partnership (Danish Red Cross, 2016:19). Without effective communication, there would be problems with coordination and the management of task interdependencies, which may in turn lead to fragmented implementation of activities.

e) Project M&E

M&E is an integral part of the successful partnership, as it strengthens the basis for monitoring the usage of resources, assess and evaluate progress, results and risks, promote learning, and supports the accountability of the project (van Tulder, Seitanidi, Crane, & Brammer, 2016:2). It allows for continuously documenting factual results, processes, and estimated impact, which serves as a basis for future decision-making and learning (Danish Red Cross, 2016:26). As summarised by Danish Red Cross (2016:26), M&E may (i) ensure learning and identify areas of improvement for future activities and practices, (ii) ensure that the project is on track and in accordance with the project plan and set target, (iii) ensure informed decisions for now and future, (iv) capture learnings that can improve the relationships of the partners, (v) provide learnings that would strengthen the partnership and activities moving forward, and (vi) warrant accountability of the resources used and the results achieved and impact made.

Therefore, it is important that partners design an M&E framework that details the key performance indicators, targets, and modes of verification to guide the process of M&E. The M&E processes should be embedded in CSPs from the initial stage of planning (Reid & Rein, 2008:23). As an important process within the partnership, M&E is usually conducted periodically and as well as at the end of the project or partnership to capture important learnings, which can strengthen future activities and the relationship between partners (Danish Red Cross, 2016:26; Reid & Rein, 2008:22)

f) Flexibility in the relationship

At the heart of a successful collaboration lies the flexibility or the ability to adapt to change, both in terms of the partnership agreement and the activities that must be executed (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:49). Flexibility is required in response to changing circumstances and priorities (Just Governance Group, 2014:2). It is generally recognised that tackling entrenched societal challenges demands great flexibility to learn and adjust along the way (Barth *et al.*, 2018:34).

As such, partners must be open to adapting to changing conditions and demands of the environment, and projects (Just Governance Group, 2014:2). This calls for CSP contracts or agreements to anticipate the likelihood of change (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:46). For long-term partnerships, stringent adherence to the contract clauses may act as a barrier to the successful implementation of CSPs because of not considering changes in circumstances (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:49). It then prompts CSP to be designed in such a way that when the circumstances change, it is flexible for adjustment. Flexibility is critical to achieving the greatest outcomes of CSP (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:14). The next section briefly highlights the consequences of using CSP.

3.2.5 Consequences of Using CSPs

CSPs are undertaken to achieve a specific outcome. The literature identifies numerous consequences of CSPs. According to Just Governance Group (2014:1), the process of collaboration generates many benefits, both tangible and intangible. These include complementarity of skills and resources, capacity generation, improved coordination of joint activities, inducing new and innovative approaches, and value creation (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Danish Red Cross, 2016:13; Just Governance Group, 2014:1; Lange, 2015:5; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Ritvala *et al.*, 2014:10; Vopni, 2020:5; Weber *et al.*, 2017:946; Wyrwa, 2018:127; Yan *et al.*, 2018:13) as detailed herein:

(i) Complementarity of skills and resources

CSPs primarily emphasise the provision, exchange, and combination of complementary resources as the main aim (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:24; Lange, 2015:5; Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5; Weber *et al.*, 2017:946). Within the CSP, usually, actors from different sectors commit various resources (i.e., funding and technology) (Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24), and work cooperatively towards a common goal (Wang, nd:9). CSP as an important tool for organisations to access each other's scarce resources (Clarke & Crane, 2018:139; Weber *et al.*, 2017:934), is deemed effective for their ability to conjoin complementary resources, competencies, and capabilities from different actors (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:729; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:6; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Just Governance Group, 2014:1; Vopni, 2020:5).

Collaboration enables bringing together complementary resources and skills from various actors to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery through joint actions (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; GGLN 2017:12; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5). The greater the resource complementarity, the more the mobilisation of distinctive competencies, and the greater organisational compatibility between the partners, the greater the potential for value creation (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:729). Again, by creating access to more resources, the collaboration also provides performance benefits (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680). However, Weber *et al.* (2017:947) argue that the benefits resulting from complementary resources in CSPs do not indicate any significant effect. Krishnan *et al.* (2016:2536) oppose this view pointing out that CSP is the key inter-organisational approach that allows organisations to pool resources to gain greater efficiency in the use of existing resources and create value as well as create opportunities to generate new resources, services, and products.

Sharing of different resources and expertise enables cross-sector partners to enrich one another and to learn from each other (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:21; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Vopni, 2020:5). Conjoined actions or co-

creation may also produce new services and activities (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:730; Barth *et al.*, 2018:3). CSPs enable access to various resources and skills, promote innovation, improve the competitiveness of partnering organisations, and increase knowledge about the local or societal needs (Wyrwa, 2018:127; Krishnan, 2016:2536). Flieger, 2016:116 cited by Wyrwa (2018:132) elaborates further that complementarity reduces operational costs while eliminating competition such that instead of competition, organisations complement each other.

Owing to the benefits of complementarity alluded to above, sharing of resources, knowledge and best practice is an important aspect of the CSP. Consequently, the complementarity of resources serves as the core success factor of CSPs (Weber *et al.*, 2017:946) because such partnerships can transform resource-scarce or resource-poor, or financially unsustainable organisations to resource-rich organisations (Just Governance Group, 2014:1; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:20), thus enabling far-reach and triggering impact at large scale (Barth *et al.*, 2018:35; Mcquaid, 2010:131; OECD, 2014:34). This becomes an advantage to the partnering organisations because they can reach far and make a huge impact, unlike individual organisations that would only achieve sizable outcomes.

(ii) Increased Capacity

Through CSPs, partners can augment their capacity by mobilising their shared resources, capabilities, expertise, and experience (Ritvala *et al.*, 2014:10; Weber *et al.*, 2017:932) which is a necessity to deliver novel and effective solutions for societal problems (Yan *et al.*, 2018:13). The capacity generated through CSP can even trigger powerful and effective solutions to the most pressing problems (Weber *et al.*, 2017:932). For instance, organisations are unable to fully execute their mandates or intended goals owing to capacity deficits (Lange, 2015:5), particularly with respect to finance and human resources. In other instances, individual sectors may have enough human resources, but no appropriate expertise, and this constitutes a challenge because this can contribute to ineffective and unsustainable services, projects and programmes. In addition, financial incapacities may also obstruct many organisations from effectively delivering their services and products. Therefore, partnerships are believed to enable actors to fill gaps that are crucial to achieving a common goal (Lange, 2015:5).

(iii) Increased outreach

CSPs widen the scope and enable a much more cohesive response to the challenges (Barth *et al.*, 2018:35; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6; Matibane, 2010:30). Collaborative action can potentially exceed the scale or scope of a single organisation. Through leveraging shared resources, organisations increase their services, thus reaching more people and amplifying impact and results (Barth *et al.*, 2018:35; Gazley,

2017:3). Andrews and Entwistle (2010:682) highlight that organisations collaborate with the purpose of harnessing their strengths, capacities, and expertise, and extending their reach. Considering this as the main purpose, when partners pool resources together and co-deliver services, the capacity becomes immense. The greater the capacity, the more improved outreach (Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Gazley, 2017:3).

(iv) New and innovative approaches

CSP work triggers new techniques and approaches (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3), and inspires creativity and learning (Vopni, 2020:5). CSPs also act as change advocates, promoting SI (Yan *et al.*, 2018:13). By integrating the skills and resources of different actors, and tapping into new opportunities, CSPs induce innovation and implementation of new services that deliver great societal outcomes (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:9; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:48; Vopni, 2020:5).

In addition, CSP generates innovative solutions to complex societal problems by combining diverse yet complementary contributions that each actor brings to the partnership (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Villani *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020). This is because CSPs encourage the cross-fertilisation of views and afford organisations an opportunity to share knowledge and innovate in new or various ways that have not been entirely explored (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2). In turn, hybridity fosters innovation (Wyrwa, 2018:127). Barth *et al.* (2018:3) confirm that operating as a collective stimulate multidimensional innovative approaches that may lead to multidimensional outcomes, whereas operating in silos, often limit the scope which obstructs the ability to fully achieve multidimensional outcomes. Therefore, CSP eliminates these boundaries or silo operations and enables actors from different sectors to cooperate towards common goals and desired outcomes.

Apart from creating multidimensional approaches as observed by Weber *et al.* (2017:932), cross-sector partners create unique collective capacity by joining their diverse resources and experiences which can yield innovative and great remedies for pressing societal issues such as poverty alleviation, job creation, and sustainable development. As added by Pittz and Intindola (2021:4), by combining the best ideas of non-governmental, business, and governmental leaders, CSPs have the potential to intensely impact these 21st century challenges. Moreover, as organisations are faced with different challenges when they try to tackle complex societal challenges (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:24), the shortcomings of these individual sectors (state, market, civil society) necessitate concerted and collaborative action by organisations across industries and sectors. As such, CSPs enable the incorporation of diverse strengths of different actors while overcoming their difficulties and weaknesses (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:25). The strengths of the different sectors are usually associated with managing costs effectively and responding to diverse human needs (Lu *et al.*, 2010:1016).

It is undoubtful that cost efficiency is a desired goal that any organisation strives to achieve, especially considering the bumpy economic climate that the majority of organisations encounter.

(v) Effectiveness and efficiency

The benefits of CSP are most apparent in the efficiency and effectiveness dimensions (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:683; McQuaid, 2000:15). CSPs increase efficiency and capitalise on networks and multidisciplinary interactions to improve service delivery and outcomes for service users (Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4). By incorporating and unifying the strengths of cross-sector organisations, reduce the chances of sectorial risks or failure associated with a particular sector, thus leading to more effective service delivery (McQuaid, 2000:15; Wang, nd:19). Again, by extending reach through joint action, partnering organisations should be more effective in contrast with the organisations that work independently (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:683). Joint efforts promote the cost-effectiveness of service delivery and enhance service delivery performance (Wyrwa, 2018:127). This would also help sectors to meet new challenges through increased financial capacity (Wang, nd:19).

Shared expertise, knowledge, and skills can stimulate innovation and unlock new opportunities and networks, thus enhancing efficiency and effectiveness (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:692; Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Danish Red Cross, 2016:16; GGLN 2017:12; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:1; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:54). Hence CSP is regarded as one of the most effective ways of solving societal challenges as well as breaking down organisational silos (Curnin & O'Hara, 2019:3; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Vopni, 2020: 1; Wyrwa, 2018:120). Working in silos causes unnecessary duplication of services when different stakeholders work on the same agenda without engaging each other (Matibane, 2010:84; McQuaid, 2000:15). Individual operations may lead to incapacities in implementing interventions whereas attainment of new competencies and capacities through collaborations opens opportunities for organisations to improve their services, and generate impactful and sustainable solutions to problems (Cloete, 2015:4; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Lange, 2015:5).

(vi) Value creation

Partnerships create value for their participants (Lange, 2015:5; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5; Tauté, 2021:1; Wyrwa, 2018:127). Partnerships provide new opportunities for organisations to pursue value creation by aligning objectives, recognising the specific competencies and capacities that each sector brings to the collaboration, and unearthing mechanisms to integrate and streamline these to create a shared value (Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Kindornay *et al.*, 2014:13). The process of working together

produces different values as identified by various scholars (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:731; Cloete, 2015:5; Just Governance Group, 2014:1; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4; Tauté, 2021:1) as discussed below:

- Synergistic value: refers to the benefits created because of a partnership that would have not been achieved by a single actor (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:731; Cloete, 2015:5; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4). This arises when the partners pool distinctive resources to enable them to achieve more as collective as opposed that neither organisation could have created alone (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:731).
- Transferred resource value: this denotes the benefit resultant when the partner receives a resource from the other partner (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:731; Just Governance Group, 2014:1) or accumulating because of resource contribution or leveraged between partners (Cloete, 2015:5). Consequently, when partners leverage their resources could increase their opportunities to access more resources i.e., financial contribution which could assist partners to acquire or pool additional funding (Just Governance Group, 2014:1).
- Interaction value: which refers to intangible benefits deriving from the processes of partners working jointly e.g., value creation through joint problem solving (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:731; Cloete, 2015:5; Just Governance Group, 2014:1). Collaborative work thus, provides partners with opportunities to improve their reputé, acquire relational resources, share knowledge, improve trust between partners, and exercise joint problem-solving (Cloete, 2015:5; Just Governance Group, 2014:1). For instance, a private organisation may pursue a development initiative with the objective to enhance corporate image while a government or NGO seek financial resources to augment their capabilities (Just Governance Group, 2014:1). Their collaboration could address their weaknesses, harness their competencies and qualities, thus creating an opportunity to solve complex societal challenges, while also creating shared value for all or positive-sum gain (Danish Red Cross, 2016:13; Just Governance Group, 2014:1). Leveraging of competencies and resources could also upturns the potential development benefit and sustainability because of the comparative advantages of each sector (Just Governance Group, 2014:1).
- Associational value: this is where a single partner may gain benefits such as improved reliability and good reputation simply from having a collaborative relationship with the other (Cloete, 2015:5; Just Governance Group, 2014:1). This benefit accrues to partners by having a partnership (Cloete, 2015:5) e.g., through partnership, organisations get an opportunity to access each other's resources and other intangible contributions and enable them to reach desired goals in contrast to single-actor interventions.

- Social value: CSP also creates social value (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:2). The social or public value is created through a combination of partners' competencies and utilising each sector's unique strengths while also seeking ways to minimise, overcome, or compensate for each sector's weaknesses (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:10; Lu *et al.*, 2010:1015). Innovative combinations of partners' competencies can help solve societal challenges efficiently, thus again creating social value (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:6). In addition, by combining each sector's unique capabilities and resources, positive social change can be obtained (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:6).

As noted by Danish Red Cross (2016:4), with CSPs, the opportunities are multidimensional and endless. A summary captured by Oregon Health Authority (2017:6) reflects that benefits of CSPs are centred on increased capacity, creating efficiency, decreasing the impact of resource scarcity, increasing outreach, creating opportunities for human resources, expertise, and knowledge sharing, and expanding networking opportunities.

Generally, these benefits can be observed at all levels within partner organisations, and the society and communities they serve (Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4). Though these benefits, businesses and organisations are able to develop society and economies by pursuing wide-ranging value-driven opportunities and outcomes, i.e. sharing resources, attaining new competencies, greater cost-effectiveness, stronger projects impact, improve stakeholder relations and risks mitigation as well access to various opportunities (Cloete, 2015:4; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Lange, 2015:5; McQuaid, 2000:15). Hence, CSPs are increasingly referred to as an effective tool to address many societal problems, especially in under-developed and developing countries, where sectors or organisations lack or have the weak capacity (Curnin & O'Hara, 2019:3; Krishnan *et al.*, 2016:2536; Nweke, 2016:96; Vopni, 2020:1). To organisations, CSP may result in improved inter-organisational relationships, increased productivity, improved outreach, information and knowledge sharing, resource complementarity and increased impact.

Pittz and Intindola (2021:2) and Hamann and Boulogne (2007:3) confirm that CSPs have demonstrated effectiveness in addressing intractable societal problems as they afford organisations to tackle issues (i.e., societal issues) from different perspectives and create a unique environment for organisational learning. When the societal problems are addressed, social and public values are created, which happens when the hybrid organisational form creates positive societal outcomes beyond those generated either by an individual actor working alone or within its own sector (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:729; Caldwell, Roehrich, & George, 2017:907; Ihenacho, 2018:39). For these advantages, various governments across the world praise CSPs as an essential factor in tackling global challenges including socio-economic challenges

(GGLN 2017:12; Krishnan *et al.*, 2016:2536; Nweke, 2016:96). Most organisations recognise an opportunity in leveraging the capabilities of other sectors to co-deliver interventions that can contribute to addressing socio-economic service delivery issues. This supports the observation by Cloete (2015:5) and Lange (2015:2) that addressing societal challenges require joint efforts given that one sector or organisation may find it extremely steep.

CSPs offer organisations a unique opportunity to blend competencies that create an innovative and more effective approach to a persistent societal problem (Just Governance Group, 2014:1). Hence, they are regarded as the organisational vehicle that could help create more value than the single organisation could achieve individually (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:729; Caldwell *et al.*, 2017:907; Ihenacho, 2018:39). Andrews and Entwistle (2010:692) confirm that CSP actions outperform individual sector given value added by different sectors. Hence, the adoption of the CSPs approach is increasing (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:4). However, it is important to highlight that although CSP brings remarkable benefits to its partners and society, its process faces several obstacles (Chicksand, 2015:121; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:11; Lange, 2015:4). However, on the same note, the growth in the number of partnerships introduced constraints (Clarke & Crane, 2018:139). Thus, CSPs are not a smooth sailing process (Danish Red Cross, 2016:4). Like other strategies, CSPs are also plagued with many challenges (Ihenacho, 2018:17) as narrated in the next section.

3.2.6 Challenges Confronting CSPs

Despite the general recognition that CSP yields many benefits to its participants, many scholars identified numerous obstacles that can impede the process of CSPs (Cairns & Harris, 2010:6; Clarke & Crane, 2018:139; Ihenacho, 2018:17; Lange, 2015:4). The challenges of CSPs are many, which vary according to the form of partnership (McQuaid, 2000:18). These challenges have been attributed to factors such as organisational constraints; diversity in organisational goals, power imbalances, barriers in communication, difficulties in developing joint modes of operating, and building trust (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:117; Cairns & Harris, 2010:2; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7), decision-making processes, information-sharing, and the distribution of resources (Cairns & Harris, 2010:2), lack of commitment (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7) and the governance of CSP. According to Clarke & Crane (2018:139), the primary concern is governance, roles, and responsibilities, and the complexity of CSPs forms and structures. However, according to Grudinschi *et al.* (2013:7), CSPs are generally plagued with two major problems: (1) inadequate managerial structures (e.g., lack of clear planning and policy guidelines, insufficient human resources, unclear roles, and responsibilities and lack of information sharing models); and (2) inadequate managerial processes (e.g., insufficient time dedicated to partnership, lack of strategies, poor coordination, lack of communication,

lack of evaluation, insufficient oversight, insufficient training) and competition (Clarke & Crane, 2018:134). Within the managerial structure, poor coordination is the primary concern (Clarke & Crane, 2018:139, Curnin & O'Hara, 2019:16). Grudinschi *et al.* (2013:7) note another set of challenges associated with CSPs as having the differences in organisations' missions and goals, values, procedures, culture, and power. These challenges have the potential to hinder organisations from realising their full collaborative advantage. Therefore, it becomes important to unpack some of these challenges to gain insight as discussed in this section.

(i) The complexity of CSPs

CSPs in nature are dynamic (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:731; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4), troublesome (Cairns & Harris, 2010:2; Ritvala *et al.*, 2014:2) and complex to manage (Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:3). Given that the nature of CSPs involves various sectors, it is complex (Clarke & Crane, 2018:139; Ihenacho, 2018:38). According to the Partnership Resource Centre (2012:1) the CSPs are often complex owing to several reasons: first, they address complex issues, secondly, they are often implemented under uncertain circumstances, and lastly they bring together partners that each have a different culture, different interests, and different strategies. Since they are complex and challenging, they are likely to hamper rather than enhance the potential of partnerships (van Tulder & Keen, 2018: 315). Therefore, different problems rooted in different sectors may render CSPs management very challenging. As such unlocking CSP potential requires strong or effective management (NASCA, 2017:13; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47; Wyrwa, 2018:121), enough capacity, appropriate skills, commitment, and trust between the partnering organisations (Danish Red Cross, 2016:4) as well as time and effort from all actors in the collaboration (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:8).

(ii) Differing missions, priorities, and perspectives

Differing organisational missions and goals (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:137; Caldwell *et al.*, 2017:906) as well as different backgrounds and perspectives (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3; Just Governance Group, 2014:2) are identified as a major challenge as articulated in many pieces of literature (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7). It remains a fact that CSPs involve organisations with different visions, missions, goals (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:137; GGLN 2017:14), organisational structure, priorities, and accountability frameworks (Just Governance Group, 2014:2). Non-alignment of these differing perspectives may cause clashes among actors (GGLN 2017:14), and likely to result in a situation in which each partner pushes its own mission or interests forward as they find it difficult to reach common ground. Lack of shared vision, differing views (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:18) distinct goals, motives, and management practices (Caldwell *et al.*, 2017:906) may also result in a lack of commitment by partners, the ingredient for CSPs' failure.

Moreover, cross-sector organisations operate with different values and institutional arrangements. Cross-sector actors are matted into different institutional arrangements generically termed as government, market, and society (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:119). It means the actions of such partnering actors are thus determined and guided by different rules and principles (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:119). This element makes the management of CSPs more challenging. Moreover, differing values and institutional arrangements lead to difficulties in CSP creating common operational arrangements (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:137). However, Just Governance Group (2014:2) suggests that these differences be channeled into a common objective for partnerships to succeed because the pursuit of different agendas can strain partnerships and limit their success. This requires partnering organisations to negotiate and reach a consensus on how to deal with these different missions, institutional arrangements, and values, as well as their potential incompatibility (Babiak & Thibault, 2009:137) to ensure considerable relevance to each partner's organisational mandate and strategy (Danish Red Cross, 2016:4). However, aligning different backgrounds, values, ideas, goals, and resources is highly challenging (Clarke & Crane, 2018:303; van Tulder & Keen, 2018: 315), considering the very different motivations, different capabilities, and myriad conflicting goals embedded in different sectors (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3).

(iii) Insufficient resources and/ or capacity

CSPs are often constrained by a lack of resources and capacity among partners (Cairns & Harris, 2010:9; Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:2; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). Lack of capacity and lack of resources especially funding and skilled human resources (Cairns & Harris, 2010:2; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6) are observed to be the barriers for the organisations to consider the CSPs (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:18; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7) or barriers to successful CSPs. As recognised widely, resources are considered the success factor for any CSPs (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:729; Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Gazley, 2017:3). Their lack would result in a lack of commitment and poor relationships (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:18), which constitute a recipe for poor CSP. This demonstrates how the availability of resources is essential to build capacity, commitment, and strong relationships, thus executing a successful CSP. The absence of resources renders the establishment of CSP problematic and lengthy to create while posing the risk of poor implementation (Barth *et al.*, 2018:32; Caldwell *et al.*, 2017:906) and consequently, unsuccessful or unsustainable partnerships (Clarke & Crane, 2018:134). Owing to these risks, many organisations still consider working individually and allocating their resources in a fragmented way despite the potential benefits associated with CSPs (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3).

It cannot be overlooked that organisations resort to partnerships simply to augment their capacities through accessing resources, expertise, etc. Therefore, it would be unworthy to engage in partnerships that are not serving a purpose. This is in line with the view of many scholars that the main motive for organisations to enter CSP is to leverage resources, thus supplementing their capacities and improving their service delivery functions (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Cloete, 2015:5; GGLN 2017:12; Lange, 2015:5; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5; Weber *et al.*, 2017:946; Wyrwa, 2018:126). When capacity is enhanced, this process enables far reach, improvement, new services, and innovation to emerge (Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Flieger, 2016:116 cited by Wyrwa, 2018:132; Gazley, 2017:3; Matibane, 2010:30)

(iv) Power imbalances

Power imbalances between partners are a commonly noted problem in CSPs. The power imbalance between partners, particularly those from the private sector and civil society, is a major challenge (Chicksand 2015:121; Just Governance Group, 2014:2) which often results in conflict, and can negatively impact partnership success rates (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47). If some actors do not have the capacity or resources to participate, or to participate on an equal footing with other actors, the partnerships process becomes susceptible to manipulation by stronger actors (Lu *et al.*, 2010:1015; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:11). Mostly power imbalance is attributed to financial contribution (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:19) which renders the party contributing most to have more decision-making powers over the other.

Chicksand (2015:121) highlights that power associated risk does not only lie within resources, but also within how partners trust each other, how they commit, share information, communicate, and resolve issues. Distrust between partners on its own is an additional challenge confronting CSPs. Factors such as the loss of autonomy in decision-making, power, and control may further create challenges and raise uncertainties. Hence, sectors are still resorting to operating in silos (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3) due to distrust between partners (Just Governance Group, 2014:2). It then becomes critical that when choosing a partner, it is best to find a partner who's similarly powerful (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:11) to avoid the risk associated with power imbalance. Again, to counteract this, the partnering organisations must ensure that governance structures and mechanisms are well-capacitated to remedy unequal power differentials and imbalances (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47).

(v) Competition

Competition between the collaborating partners is one of the constraints facing CSPs (Clarke & Crane, 2018:139). Babiak and Thibault (2009:134) concur that focusing on competition more than collaboration has been commonly observable in many CSPs. Although the common purpose for collaborating is to

leverage resources and capacity, most organisations involved in such partnerships turn to compete for resources, power, and legitimacy, resulting in power residing with an organisation that has more resources than the other does (Clarke & Crane, 2018:139). This in turn, leads to tensions and frustrations between partners.

(vi) Lack of effective results measurement and project evaluation

Lack of effective results measurement and project evaluation are two major issues impeding the assessment of CSPs (Just Governance Group, 2014:2; Reid & Rein, 2008:22). Most results measurements only focus on outputs (focusing on accountability) instead of assessing outcomes to measure value. Hence, several research documents emphasise a shift from measuring outputs to measuring outcomes (Just Governance Group, 2014:2).

The absence of a comprehensive evaluation, pose difficulties to conclude that CSPs achieve more sustainable results than single party/sector initiative (Just Governance Group, 2014:2). Hence a huge discrepancy between the increasing recognition of the potential of CSPs and the evidence on implementation and impact on the ground (Lange, 2015:3). Therefore, in this case measuring the results is extremely important to assess the effectiveness and quantify the impact of these CSPs and to measure the extend (Reid & Rein, 2008:22). The inconsistency or lack of the processes for M&E partnership activities is faulted for the obstacle in concern (Reid & Rein, 2008:22). Drawing from this school of thought, M&E should underpin the CSP initiatives.

Although CSPs are burdened with many challenges as articulated by many scholars, it seems there are many benefits and positives that make believe the cross-sector may outperform single actors (Caldwell *et al.*, 2017:907; Ihenacho, 2018:39; Krishnan *et al.*, 2016:2536; Nweke, 2016:96; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4; Pittz and Intindola, 2021:2). Therefore, the challenges outlined above does not necessarily give grounds for arguments and doubts over the benefits accruing from CSPs. CSP remains the effective strategy for addressing the incapacities of organisations as well as entrenched societal issues (Just Governance Group, 2014:1; Weber *et al.*, 2017:932; Yan *et al.*, 2018:13). Considering that the challenges or failure of CSP is mostly associated with overlooking the pre-conditions (Lu *et al.*, 2010:1010; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:48), abiding to the preconditions of CSP as well as considering other critical factors such as availability of relevant resources is essential to lessen the related challenges, thus increasing the chances of smooth CSP process and its success.

3.3 CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS AND THE USE OF SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY

In recent times, public sector organisations are under tremendous pressure to increasingly deliver a broad and complex range of services. As such, governments in many countries across the world including SA, are facing daunting challenges and increasing pressures to render such service (Meyer & Meyer, 2016:151; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47; Tauté, 2021:3), and very often, do not have the ability to respond on their own (NASCA, 2017:3). This is because these challenges are usually complex, requiring different kinds of skills or resources and involving many stakeholders (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:4), making one-size-fits-all public service delivery models irrelevant and making it impossible for a single sector or organisation to solve (Nweke, 2016:97). Public service delivery challenges are further aggravated by budgetary constraints (NASCA, 2017:3; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:4; Ramakrishnan, 2013:3). These challenges force public sector organisations to find new organisational forms to build a competitive advantage (Wyrwa, 2018:134).

3.3.1 CSPs and Public Sector Programme Delivery

In public sector organisations pursuit to improve public administration, governance, and service delivery, governments found themselves in search of collaboration (Meyer & Meyer 2016:157), given the growing acknowledgment that no single sector can take exclusive responsibility to overcome the challenges of entrenched socio-economic issues. According to Hartley *et al.* (2013:625), complex societal problems, in particular, socio-economic problems, are often improved when cross-sector actors with different experiences and perspectives are brought together. Owing to this reason, the public sector is increasingly engaging in CSPs (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:8) given rising citizen demands, dire fiscal constraints, and several "wicked problems", which, because of their complexity, cannot be solved by standard solutions, traditional approaches or by increasing the funding of existing mechanisms (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:821). The public sector engages in CSPs to ensure the provision of public goods and services (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:6) and to strike a balance between conformance and performance, to overcome the challenges they are encountering and to increase their ability and capacity to improve service delivery (Bayne *et al.*, 2017:135). Public sector organisations are also motivated by the need to innovate their services, processes, strategies, and techniques (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:823).

The rise of CSP marks a shift from public sector organisations working in isolation towards governance where governments steer working relationships with other actors from other organisations, including service users (Mathers et al., 2015 cited by Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:2). The motivation for using CSP is based on the belief that collaboration between different sectors or actors is at the heart of integrated efforts to

solve the multidimensional challenges facing the society and communities (Lange, 2015:2; Selsky, 2005 cited by Wang, nd:8). The central goal to using CSPs is to bring together multiple institutional practices under one roof in pursuit of the dual mission of both social and economic sustainability (Wang, nd:8). The recognition of the limitations of traditional public administration systems in light of the growing fragmentation, complexity, and dynamism of modern societies has prompted interactive forms of governance through networks and partnerships. CSP provides many benefits in public sector service delivery, among others as discussed in this section.

(i) Access to additional resources

CSPs enable the government to access external resources and expertise as well as finance to help fund projects and improve service delivery (Just Governance Group, 2014:1; NASCA, 2017:2). CSPs can help the public sector unlock funding by bringing together actors with different goals, particularly in settings that are often marked by resource scarcity (Ritvala *et al.*, 2014:10). As such, CSPs create an enabling environment for complementarity of resources and skills from diverse actors, to improve the responsiveness, efficiency, and effectiveness of public service delivery through joint operations (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3). It helps organisations to develop more cost-effective approaches to public service delivery (NASCA, 2017:17), particularly in the deteriorating government financial position. As the public sector continues to face financial constraints and other challenges that impede the effective achievement of their mandates, CSPs stand to provide more effective and sustainable services (Wang, nd:13).

(ii) Improved service delivery

As recognised by many academics, CSPs are prominent vehicles for effective public service delivery (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). Due to their ability to pool strengths and create mutual benefits or values for partners (Ihenacho, 2018:27), CSPs offer new approaches in service delivery (NASCA, 2017:2). These approaches include new service delivery design, new coordinating mechanisms, efficient use of resources, improved, effective, and sustainable solutions, innovative solutions, new governance (Agostini, *et al.*, 2017:385; Cukier & Jackson, 2018:223; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; Sossna, 2014:9). Thus, they hold much potential for improved service delivery and other important socio-economic development objectives (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47). CSPs are essential to address complex societal challenges and create value for multi-stakeholders (Clarke & Crane, 2018:309; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Vogel, Göbel, Grewe-Salfeld, Herbert, Matsuo, & Weber, 2021:17). Moreover, CSPs enable public service delivery to respond to societal needs in a more effective and cost-effective way (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3), an

answer to the growing pressures for the public sector to be more innovative, flexible and efficient (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:821).

Hence, attaining efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery has been an urgent issue for the government (Lu *et al.*, 2010:1008). To attest to this requirement are many South African legislative frameworks including the Constitution of the Republic of SA 1996 and NDP Vision 2030. Chapter 10, Section 195(1b) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996, prescribe that resources must be used in an efficient, effective, and economical manner, and Section 1c stipulates that public administration must be development-orientated (Republic of South Africa, 1996:99). The reality is that public sector organisations today are no longer only assessed by its effectiveness, but also by its efficiency. Stemming from its multiple benefits in improving service delivery, CSPs are becoming an essential way of achieving overarching public sector service delivery policy goals.

(iii) Innovative strategies

CSPs can help the public sector unlock innovative approaches to public service delivery or management (NASCA, 2017:17). The generation of new and creative solutions results when different ideas are developed, combined, streamlined, challenged, and built on (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:625). Collaborations have the ability to turn differing interests into activities that combine the resources and unique capabilities of each actor to deliver outcomes that surpass those that one sector can achieve in isolation (Kindornay *et al.*, 2014: iv). Such creativity, multi-disciplinary approach, and collaboration wherein efforts from the different sectors are combined is a potential solution to meet the complex needs and challenges of society (GGLN 2017:11; Matibane, 2010:81). As discussed in the next section, CSP holds potential for driving innovation.

There is a growing view that CSPs can contribute to increased service improvements, productivity, and problem-solving capacity in the public sector (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:821). This notion is supported by the belief that joint actions have the potential to avoid failures due to single-sector weakness given that partners leverage each other's comparative advantages and resources (Selsky, 2005 cited by Wang, nd:8) while eliminating unnecessary duplication and improving the use of scarce resources. Attesting to the above, two trends are observable in the modern (i) the public sector departs from repeatability and duplication of efforts, focusing on creativity and efficiency in solving problems, and (ii) the public sector creates partnership relationships not only within the public sector but also with organisations from other sectors (Wyrwa, 2018:134). Thus, integrated and coordinated strategies through CSPs are of fundamental importance since they hold the key to unlocking effectiveness and efficiency as well as innovation in service delivery (Kindornay *et al.*, 2014: iv; NASCA, 2017:17) including SI as discussed in the next section.

3.3.2 The role of CSPs in advancing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery

CSP in the public sector is not only about bringing together actors from different organisations, or about mobilising resources to supplement limited public-sector resources (Cloete, 2015:5), but also becoming an innovation strategy (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:826), a key to the public sector’s ability to continuously deliver on its mandate (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:35). CSPs have the ability to open up innovation processes. A leading example, CSPs are themselves innovations in governance (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7; Wang, nd:9). Establishing successful partnerships is considered a characteristic of good governance (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:58). NASCA (2017:17) confirms that CSPs help the public sector unlock more innovative approaches to public service delivery or management. Owing to cross-sector collaboration, new organisations emerge and transform the way in which individual actors operate by introducing novel practices and sustainable solutions. Sørensen and Torfing (2011:861) believe that cross-sector collaboration may facilitate the co-creation of new ideas and forge joint ownership of those ideas that when implemented in practice and produce outcomes that are desirable and deemed valuable by all actors. At this stage SI often occurs as a key attribute of hybrid organisations (Wang, nd:11). Figure 3.3 depicts the process of CSP in generating SI.

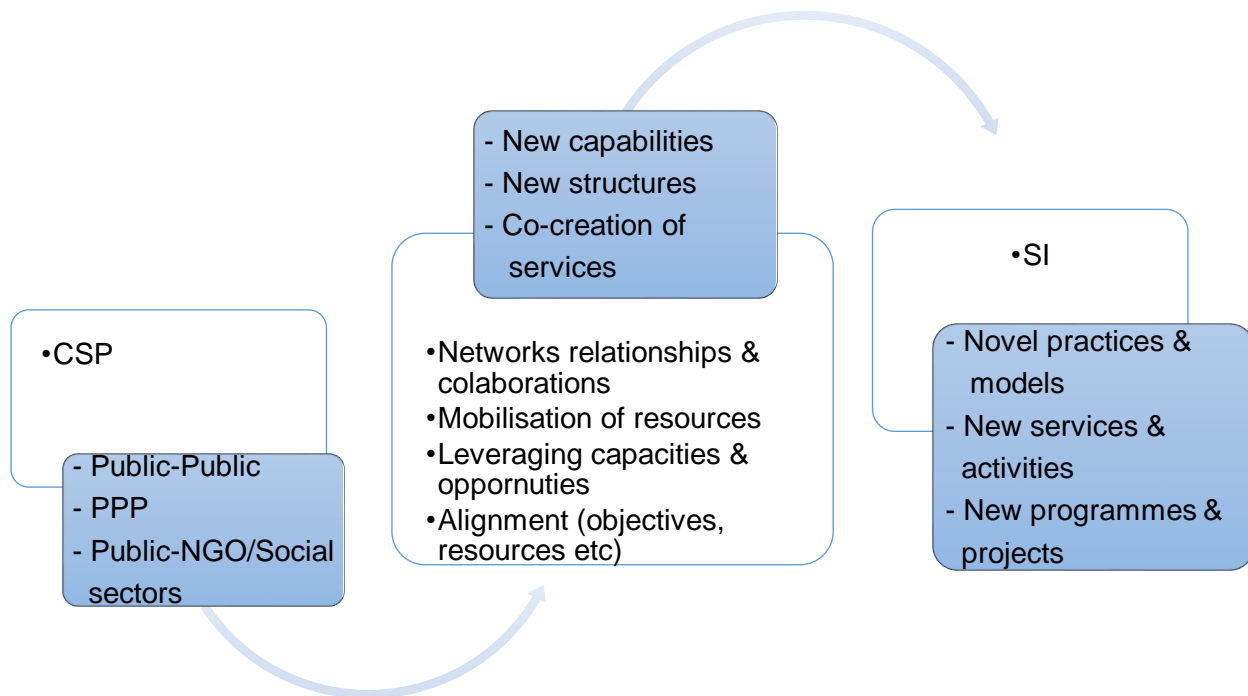


Figure 3.3: SI stimulation through CSP (Source: own- adapted from Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; Cloete, 2015:5; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:6; Hartley *et al.*, 2013:825; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:7; Pue *et al.*, 2016:33; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:845; Vopni, 2020:5; Weber *et al.*, 2017:934)

As depicted in Figure 3.3, CSP can occur between two or more organisations, thus tri-sector or tri-sector (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3; Wyrwa, 2018:128). CSPs may occur as Public-Public Partnerships or PPP or Public-NGO partnerships or between all these sectors (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:9; Matibane, 2010:20). The rationale behind the CSPs is the mobilisation, provision, combination and exchange of complementary resources and capacities to reach a specific goal (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:24; Lange, 2015:5; Weber *et al.*, 2017:946). Other frequent reasons include tapping into the competencies of each other and harnessing each other's strengths and expertise with the general aim of generating novel solutions (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:826). Through the hybridity approach, organisations pool together resources, competencies, and capabilities to improve on service delivery (Clarke & Crane, 2018:139; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Vopni, 2020:5; Weber *et al.*, 2017:934). This helps organisations access each other's scarce assets and resources that are critical for the effective and efficient provision of products and services.

CSPs are also intended to co-develop, core-design, co-create, and co-delivery of services as well as co-implementation of services, programmes, projects, and solutions (Cloete, 2015:5; Krishnan *et al.*, 2016:2536; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64; TEPSIE, 2014:36), thus creating a synergy of limited and scattered resources (Wyrwa, 2018:133). When organisations work collaboratively usually create the ability to produce new structures, new networks, and new capabilities as well as collaborations. The CSP process is underpinned by collaborations and networks (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:828; Xu *et al.*, 2015:14). Collaboration and networks create a conducive atmosphere for SI to emerge (Marques *et al.*, 2017:500).

Thus, SIs occur in an inherently complex ecosystem that includes a variety of actors (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:7). SI takes place when the partners involved in CSPs leverage their unique and core capabilities and opportunities through collaborations and networks (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:6; Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5). It means the networks and collaboration governance model entrenched within the CSPs are capable of inducing, implementing, and sustaining SI (Barth *et al.* 2018:3; Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:23; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:34; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:9). Hence SI is considered a result of collaboration (European Commission, 2013:15; Hartley *et al.*, 2013:825; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:3) and a viable tool to stimulate SI (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Tsakanika, 2017:12). In the flip side, SI requires

extensive networks and partners to establish impactful and sustainable solutions to societal challenges (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45)

The latter part of Figure 7 illustrates the consequences of the use of SI. The SI consequences stem from the general advantages of collaborative action (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:821; Wyrwa, 2018:133) given the increased competencies and capacities particularly because through CSPs, partners can achieve their objectives more effectively and efficiently by means of strategic agreements with others, rather than if they were to work independently. SI generally yields many consequences including new models and practices, new services and activities and new programmes and projects (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014:415; Howaldt, 2017:124; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2) aimed at improving service delivery and the livelihood of the people. These consequences are well aligned with the understanding of Terstriep and Rehfeld (2020: 855); van Niekerk *et al.* (2021:3) that SI is about the creation and application of new practices, new approaches, new interventions, or new programmes to better manage the societal needs than the existing practices.

The consequences of SI use are not only limited to the above-mentioned, but also include satisfaction of needs, value creation, empowerment, social change, and economic change (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; Cunha *et al.*, 2015:7; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; Perello, 2020:15; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:7). Social change and empowerment are achieved through diffusion, the processes that encourage participation and partnerships in the creation and production of services and products (Pue *et al.* (2016:33; Tsakanika, 2017:12; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:12). As further confirmed, SI has often yielded many benefits beyond new services and products, these include promoting stakeholder collaboration to leverage resources for increased capacity to better target and generate sustainable solutions to both existing and new needs and challenges (Biljohn & Lues, 2019b:13; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; Pue *et al.*, 2016:33). SI also contributes to efficient and effective service delivery (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:9; Biljohn & Lues, 2020a:3; Chandra *et al.*, 2021:3).

As discussed in the entire section it shows that there is a strong linkage between CSPs and SI. Hence, CSP is deemed an essential strategy to promote SI in the public sector (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:825; Hughes, 2010:98) and regarded as a policy imperative, and an opportunity that governments, businesses, social partners and communities should capitalise on. By engaging with diverse actors from various disciplines across the service delivery continuum, the public sector can augment its capacity or fill its gaps, and generate innovative solutions, thus improving its services, expanding its scope, and better satisfy the needs of society (Mcquaid, 2010:131). Owing to these, the South African public sector organisations and other social sectors already appear to be increasingly recognising CSPs and SI due to their potential in paving the

way for optimal socio-economic service delivery (NASCA, 2017:2; O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:58; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). Therefore, considering the consequences of SI use, it becomes essential that public sector organisations stimulate, promote and nurture SI through CSPs to find efficient and effective solutions to improving service delivery and address persisting severe societal challenges and scale up SI initiatives (Pue *et al.*, 2016:36). As neither the governments nor the markets are adequately equipped and organised to tackle complex societal issues alone, CSPs are found to be a critical element to discovering solutions and, most significantly, to scaling SIs (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2). Grudinschi *et al.* (2013:1) suggest that the implementation and management of CSPs should focus on SI i.e., Leveraging resources and competencies to find new and improved ways of delivering public services, determining how partners’ resources and capabilities as well as core competencies may be amalgamated in a more efficient way to achieve sustainable solutions to problems.

Although CSP is perceived as an excellent tool to stimulate SI, it is worth highlighting that CSP is still not a cure-all strategy or a perfect option for dealing with complex socio-economic problems (Matibane, 2010:85; Nweke, 2016:95; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:48; Reid & Rein, 2008:25) and does not always lead to SI. The use of CSP as a vehicle for SI is conditioned by several context-bound drivers and barriers that either stimulate or hamper the processes of collaborative innovation (Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:17; Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:860). For instance, when the respective initial conditions are in place, the institutional design is appropriate, and the partnership process is properly managed, the chance for CSP to stimulate SI would increase, leading to increased success of CSP in breaking policy blocks and improving public services (Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:845). Successful CSPs to generate SI require initial conditions, drivers, and linking mechanisms to guide the collaboration process (Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). Pittz and Intindola (2021:4) discovered that motivation, networks, cooperative capability, leadership, and culture are some of the critical aspects to achieving success at initiating and scaling SI.

Despite the commendable benefits of the use of SI in CSPs for socio-economic public sector service delivery, CSPs’ contribution to advancing SI in public policies and services has received less attention, resulting in sluggish SI growth. This may be due to several challenges as discussed in the next section.

3.3.3 Challenges Hindering the Use of SI in CSPs

While the CSP approach for SI has a lot of potential and commendable benefits, there are also numerous constraints, limitations (Ihenacho, 2018:17; Hartley *et al.*, 2013:826), and barriers to innovation in the public sector (European Commission, 2013:16). As emphasised by Ihenacho (2018:17), there are some difficulties associated with the delivery of service through CSPs. Several factors are accountable for these

(Matibane, 2010:1). Notwithstanding that different sectors are confronted by several innovation barriers, there are specific barriers prevalent in the public sector (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:823).

The above indication affirms recognition that there are many existing potential impediments to the public sector environment which could limit both the emergence of CSP and realisation of collective benefits. It, therefore, becomes important to understand such challenges impeding the use of CSPs and SI in the public sector (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7). As discussed by different scholars, such challenges include public sector regulations and bureaucracies, unfavorable conditions, and institutional arrangements, organisational difficulties, limited resources and lack of appropriate skills, lack of capacity and CSP management (European Commission, 2013:16; Cairns & Harris, 2010:9; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7; Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:19; Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:846; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). As discussed in this section, these challenges hold opportunities for positive change.

(i) Public sector regulations and bureaucracies

Public sector laws and regulations are considered the main critique of the public sector not being sufficiently dynamic and innovative (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:824). It is well known that the public sector has legitimacy in law regulation. In sharp contrast to the routine and practices in the private sector, the public sector is commonly associated with regulation-bound, and bureaucratic silos characterised by red tape and stalemate (CLES, 2011:8; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:10; Raidimi & Kabiti, 2017:58), which usually impede or create unfavorable conditions of CSPs (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:10) and SI to emerge or flourish. The bureaucratic silos associated with public sector hierarchies coupled with limited resources tend to stifle innovation (Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:845). Hence, blameworthiness that the strong adherence to legal and bureaucratic rules and the lack of competition tend to suppress public sector innovation (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:824). However, then these problems can be overcome by the CSPs to break organisational boundaries while creating a favorable environment for sharing resources, risks, and benefits (Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:845) to achieve collective interest (GGLN 2017:12).

(ii) Unfavorable conditions and institutional arrangements

Public sector obstacles are strictly different from the private sector. Mostly, scattered competencies and ineffective governance mechanism make policy learning and innovative practices difficult (European Commission, 2013:16). The inflexible nature of public sector policies and procedures do not support the partnerships (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7). This is further exacerbated by the diversity of legal and administrative cultures, resulting in regulatory frameworks that often hamper innovation (European

Commission, 2013:17). In the public sector rules and regulations are often used to maintain the standards, realise an accountable system, and ensure strategic management and standard response to executive administration leaders and elected politicians (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:824). Despite that the regulations are created for a good course, in some specific cases such regulations or policies do not encourage innovation (Grudinski *et al.*, 2013:12). In addition, the administrative laws and the implementation of public sector policies may also limit the participation of other sectors in service delivery (Matibane, 2010:32) especially private sector, which may find it difficult to cope with such legislations and bureaucracies.

The political environment is also another aspect contributing to unfavorable institutional arrangements. Public sector organisations are governed by politicians who must consider multiple stakeholders when initiating innovation while bearing in mind that innovation may be exploited by the political opposition (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:823). The risk-averse political decision-makers, tend to impede innovation in the public sector (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:822). Given such environments, SI tends to be hampered by hierarchical systems, risk-averse leaders, and inflexible rules and routines. This implies that for SI to prosper, the institutional environment and perspective is critical because it draws attention to the organisational as well as cultural conditions that might hamper or drive actors aiming to produce innovative solutions (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:822; Sørensen & Torfing, 2011:860).

(iii) Organisational difficulties

To achieve efficient, effective, and successful partnerships, there must be coordination within the partnership (Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24). However, the main implementation problem in public organisations working together is the organisational difficulties that hinder effective co-ordination of issues, activities, and programmes, and overcoming the concerns of disparate organisations (European Commission, 2013:16). The difficulties faced in the daily operations of governments obstruct public sector organisations from attaining successful partnerships, thus meeting the growing needs and challenges of society (Borzaga & Bodini, 2014:411; European Commission, 2013:20; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:20). For the case in point, poor coordination stands as one of the key difficulties in ensuring successful partnership (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:56). The difficulties to successful coordination are mainly attributed to differing missions, structures, and processes of organisations; regulations, technological capacity, and practice of the organisation; and internal and external political environment (McQuaid, 2000:21). At the same time, public sector organisations are also marked by the inability to master innovation. Most organisations have developed tools, systems, and approaches, and to some extent disseminated them, however, only relatively few have embedded innovation processes as part of their day-to-day organisational practices, or culture (European Commission, 2013:26)

(iv) Limited resources and appropriate skills

There are problems associated with constrained resources (Cairns & Harris, 2010:9; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7), wherein mostly, skills, expertise and time seem to be the uppermost lacking resources than money (Cairns & Harris, 2010:9; Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). There is a general consensus that public sector personnel and management are the most single and critical source of innovation (European Commission, 2013:16). Public sector officials generally may be highly skilled in many fields, but only a few may have skills in creativity and innovation, giving rise to unsuccessful innovation activities (European Commission, 2013:25). In addition to this, is adequate financial resources which heavily impede public sector organisation to innovate and meet public sector service delivery challenges (European Commission, 2013:16; Rao-Nicholson *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3).

Public sector organisations often lack sufficient financial resources to innovate and are rarely allowed to keep the cost-efficiency from innovations (Brown & Osborne 2013 cited by Hartley *et al.*, 2013:823; European Commission, 2013:16). Some of the factors contributing to budgetary constraints are limited, reduced or tightened budgets for investing in public sector service delivery, making it increasingly difficult for many public sector organisations to sufficiently fund their service delivery mandates. Resource constraint environment renders public sector organisation unable to leverage with other sectors for development. This solidifies the understanding that innovation in the public sector does not happen by magic, it requires resources.

(v) Lack of capacity

One of the major factors hampering the use of SI in CSPs is insufficient or lack of capacity within the organisations (Matibane, 2010:1; Rao-Nicholson *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3), which is seen as a major challenge for development and application of innovative strategies and processes. Although CSPs hold much potential for improved service delivery and other important socio-economic development objectives, a crucial obstacle remains the lack of capacity (Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). Furthermore, limited leadership and top management capacity and commitment also increase the risk and chances of failure for the partnership to meet its objectives (European Commission, 2013:15; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:440). It is observed that public sector organisations often do not have sufficient capacity, especially relating to funding, human capital, and expertise (European Commission, 2013:16). In the absence of adequate capacity, diffusion and scaling-up of innovation, practices may be hindered (European Commission, 2013:16). However, enabling factors can

be strengthened i.e., leadership and governance models should be transformed and to focus on innovation, skills, and capacity should be developed (European Commission, 2013:15).

(vi) CSP management

While CSPs are widely used to solve complex and wicked problems of our time, developing and managing them can be extremely challenging (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:19). Due to the complexity of collaboration and the dynamism that it can create, public managers may encounter difficulties in CSP management (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:5). Therefore, managing CSPs requires a deeper understanding of collaboration process and its dimensions, given that it is a complex concept (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:3). There should be good management and clear division over the responsibility of functions to achieve successful coordination (McQuaid, 2000:21). On the contrary, Hartley *et al.* (2013: 824) suggest that managerialism could be spurred as innovation barriers because there has been an insufficient reflection on this aspect.

Although the public sector is confronted by several barriers using CSP and SI, most are predominantly derived from bureaucratic organisational form, and limited resources and capacity (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:823). Barriers also include a lack of opportunity to collaborate (European Commission, 2013:26; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7) which mainly occurs on the account of mistrust, different cultures and mandates, varied goals and misgivings (European Commission, 2013:26). This enhances the myth of private sector superiority in innovation which is based on the apparent propositions that public sector is not profit-driven, as such it is not innovative, or its innovation appears to be completely sustained. The central belief is that profit or competition creates pressures and undeniable incentives for private sector organisations to innovate because failure to do so would eliminate them from the market (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:823). Despite these limitations, CSP for SI is necessary to improve service delivery. Wyrwa (2018:119) points out that although CSP may present many difficulties, in the functioning of any modern public sector organisation, it is a prerequisite for achieving service delivery goals. Section 3.4 discusses the conceptual framework of CSPs to use SI in public sector programme delivery.

3.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR CSPs TO USE SOCIAL INNOVATION IN PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY

This last section of the chapter presents a framework aimed at discussing the CSPs and SI in the context of public sector programme delivery as illustrated in Figure 3.4.

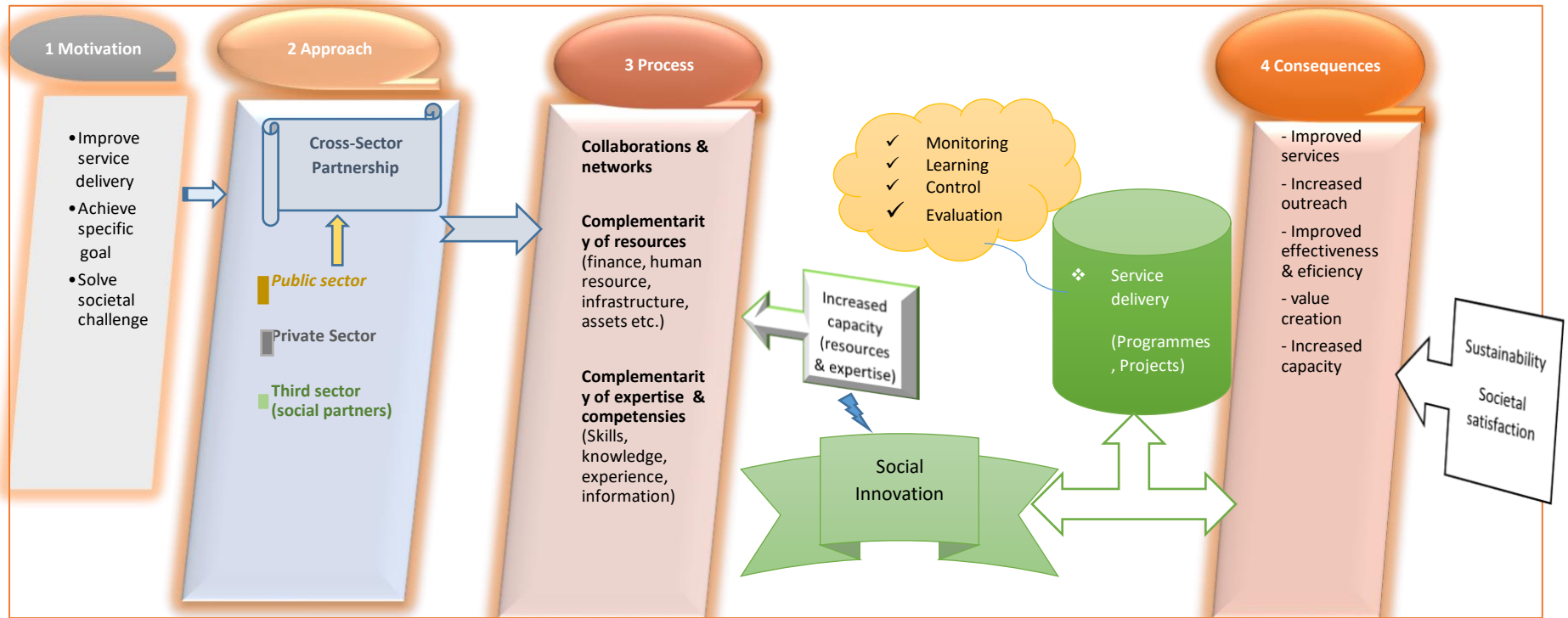


Figure 3.4: The conceptual framework for CSPs to use SI in public sector programme delivery (Adopted from: Arslan et al., 2020:3; Biljohn, 2018:38; Cloete, 2015:5; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7; Raidimi & Kabiti, 2017:50; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24; Weber *et al.*, 2017:932; Wyrwa, 2018:131; van Tulder et al., 2016:2; Vogel *et al.*, 2021:1)

The framework is based on the findings from the discussions deliberated by various scholars, academics, and researchers regarding the conceptualisation of the use of CSP in public sector programme delivery. More insights were discovered from the aspects discussed which include CSP definition, attributes, pre-conditions, success factors, consequences, and its importance in advancing SI. It is against this background that Figure 3.4 illustrates the conceptual framework for SI use in CSP for public service programme delivery. The framework is subdivided into four sections, thus motivation, approach, process, and consequences.

3.4.1 Motivation

Given that public sector organisations are faced with service delivery problems (Bayne *et al.*, 2017:135; Meyer & Meyer 2016:157), CSPs evolved as a strategy to reform, to achieve common goals or to solve a specific problem. CSPs are largely used for solving complex service delivery and severe societal issues (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5; Nweke, 2016:94; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Vogel *et al.*, 2021:17). The central objectives and goals among organisations engaging in CSP is to take advantage of the contributions from all partners (both financial and non-financial), and share responsibility, authority and accountability, (Lange, 2015:2; Matibane, 2010:27), risks and mutual benefits (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:9; Wyrwa, 2018:124). This supports the general belief that CSPs could enable public organisations to effectively tackle societal issues by unlocking the benefits of comparative advantage (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:679). CSPs establishment can also be linked with the need to reduce costs, the need to get access to unique or required resources, the need to increase organisational efficiency, and the need to source external knowledge (Wyrwa, 2018:134). This indicates that organisations collaborate to achieve various things (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:681).

According to Wyrwa (2018:123) there are two basic reasons underlying the promotion of CSPs. First, current challenges, needs and opportunities for both economic and social development, as evident in practice, are too complex for individual organisations to adequately address them. In this perspective, the assumption that complex problems can only be addressed when organisations with complementary abilities actively collaborate, share ideas, competencies, and resources, develop synergies and common objectives, and share risks, opportunities and commitments as well as tasks (Matibane, 2010:27; Wyrwa, 2018:124). Secondly, the ability to adapt to the ever-changing needs and challenges, is not solely depending on the amount of available capital, human or natural resources, but also on the ability to establish SI approaches (Wyrwa, 2018:123). Commonly, SI is a result of collaborative work, hence organisations are pursuing it through CSPs.

From the public sector perspective, being involved in a partnership is a way of supplementing government resources to ensure the provision of public services (Matibane, 2010:35; Public Sector

Research Centre, 2007:6; Wyrwa, 2018:134). In the public sector, the turn to CSP is often seen as the drive to maximise access to and the returns from scarce resources. They are also used to thrive for cost-effective service delivery and supplementing capacity or extending service delivery (Matibane, 2010:35; Wyrwa, 2018:134). Hence, CSPs in public sector have been used in activities aimed at reform (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:3) as well as activities undertaken to manage public sector effectively (Wyrwa, 2018:131).

3.4.2 Approach

Globally, most public sector organisations are faced with challenges in service delivery (Meyer & Meyer, 2016:151). The challenges of overcoming service delivery necessitate the establishment of new mechanisms and decisive approach to implementing programmes and policies (Raidimi & Kabiti, 2017:50). The nature of these service delivery problems is multi-faceted requiring a collaborative reaction from several public and private actors to address them effectively and efficiently. As such, public sector organisations have resorted to using partnerships to improve their administration and governance systems (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:58) and to address complex societal issues (Cloete, 2015:5; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Weber *et al.*, 2017:932; Wyrwa, 2018:131). The rationale behind the CSPs suggests that public, private and non-profit organisations individually provide unique and distinctive advantages that can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public organisations’ efforts to address societal problems (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:679). For example, the public sector may possess certain mandates and powers, which enable them to target wicked problems, private sector is usually attributed with the ability to maximise value for money, and thus deliver outcomes at lower cost, whereas nonprofits hold a greater advantage of engaging with the community as they are closer to them (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680).

According to NASCA (2017:2) and Pătraşcu (2018:32), partnerships such as CSPs, offer a renewed approach to public sector service delivery and as well as an answer to the most pressing societal challenges facing the nations (Klein & Spsychalska-Wojtkiewicz, 2020: 1). The premise of CSP lies in the assumption that it is one of the most effective ways of solving societal problems as well as overcoming organisational divisions and isolation (Wyrwa, 2018:120). This is necessary because there is no single sector or organisation that can in isolation win the battle of service delivery given that service provision is a complex exercise that needs different resources, skills, and strategies (Matibane, 2010:iii). Certainly every single sector or organisation lacks the competencies and capabilities to effectively deal with wicked issues independently (Wang, nd:9). This predicament prompts collaboration of different stakeholders with their different and unique capabilities (Matibane, 2010:iii). Therefore, CSP came in as a relevant strategy for collaboration among various actors (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3; Cloete, 2015:5; Lange, 2015:2).

There are many different forms of CSPs existing (Wyrwa, 2018:125). Collaboration usually occurs “internally” (within the government and/or across different governmental levels) and/or “externally” (with the private sector and/or non-profit sector) (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:9). These different forms are categorised in four “fields”, thus public-public, public-private, public-nonprofit, business-nonprofit, and tri-sector (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:9; Wang, nd:13). Furthermore, the CSP can also occur as formal or informal. However, formal CSPs are crucial to foster shared goals and guiding the CSP operations (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). Formalisation also increases the likelihood of CSP success where all parties involved would be subject to the CSP agreement as opposed to the informal ones. Usually, organisations collaborate through entering MoA/ MoU to formalise their relationships (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14), meaning that CSPs are realised through the collaboration process.

3.4.3 Process

(i) Collaborations and networks

A contemporary approach to the challenges of providing socio-economic services involves collaboration between various organisations (Domański & Kitzman, 2016:56 cited by Wyrwa, 2018:119). Collaborations are intended to mobilise and pool resources (Cloete, 2015:5; Lange, 2015:5) and to co-create solutions (Cloete, 2015:5; Krishnan *et al.*, 2016:2536). Collaboration encourages co-production and co-creation as its process involves diverse actors which could potentially enable the public sector to tap into the innovative practices of other organisations or sectors (Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7). Co-creation and co-production are regarded as critical in socio-economic public sector service delivery due to their effectiveness in responding to societal needs (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:9; Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Osborne *et al.*, 2015:643).

Co-creation entails co-development, co-planning, co-designing, co-producing, and co-delivering of public goods and services. Collaboration through CSPs, includes the realisation of joint and integrated undertakings, with various entities striving to achieve operational efficiency by combining efforts and resources and to achieve a synergistic effect (Wyrwa, 2018:122). Leveraging of resources and co-creation, in turn, result in the synergy of scattered resources, thus ensuring effectiveness and efficiency in the implementation of projects and programmes (Wyrwa, 2018:133). Collaboration among these partners could also result in new relationships and enhanced capacities (Perello, 2020:11; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:4), thus triggering creativity and innovation. Most importantly, collaboration creates a favorable environment for SI to actively encourage networks and inclusive relationships among individuals, especially the previously disadvantaged (Marques *et al.*, 2017:500).

According to Sørensen and Torfing (2011:847), the growing demand for SI in the public sector emanates from three mounting pressures. First, citizens have rising expectations about the quality, availability, and effectiveness of public services, and this demands that governments be responsive. The rise in the demand for tailor-made services and flexible regulations. At the same time, public sector resources are becoming more limited. The combination of rising demands and resource constraints clearly spawns a need for new and innovative solutions that can help to meet new demands without increasing expenditure. Second, professionals, public managers, and elected politicians have grown desires to ensure quality of public governance and its ability to solve social, economic, and environmental problems. As such, governments at different levels aim to deliver a more effective, efficient, responsible, flexible, and targeted form of governance. Then again, society is becoming increasingly difficult to govern due to the growing complexity and fragmentation of social, political, and economic processes. Lastly, there is a consensus among public policy researchers that a growing number of public policies involve “wicked problems” that are difficult to respond to, and that require specialised expertise, are cross-cutting, and carry a high potential for conflicts. This calls for a need for policy instruments that can enhance sustainable development. These wicked problems cannot be solved simply by injecting more funds or standard solutions into them, instead, they require innovative policy solutions.

(ii) Resources and expertise

CSP entails integrating and sharing information, resources, experience, and capabilities of organisations (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:24; Conroy *et al.*, 2021:1; Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5). It is important to note that CSPs rely on the availability of various resources (Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Cairns & Harris, 2010:6; Gazley, 2017:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:20). Hence, through the collaborations, partners commit various resources and work cooperatively toward common goals (Kindornay *et al.*, 2014: iv; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24). All these resources are crucial contributions to the success of the partnership (Rao-Nicholson *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3). Therefore, partnering organisations must be willing to contribute resources. Regarding financial contributions, CSP can make use of different funding models e.g., funding contributed only by the partnering organisations, third-party funding (e.g., from a donor), and funding contributed by both partnering organisations and third party (Danish Red Cross, 2016:23).

The mobilisation and combination of shared resources would essentially upsurge the capacity (Ritvala *et al.*, 2014:10; Weber *et al.*, 2017:932; Wyrwa, 2018:123), the critical aspect to stimulate novel and effective solutions to the problems (Weber *et al.*, 2017:932; Yan *et al.*, 2018:13). The capacity generated through CSP can inspire SI (Weber *et al.*, 2017:932). As confirmed by various scholars, by combining diverse resources, core competencies and expertise of various actors, CSP trigger SI (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Ihenacho, 2018:16; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2). CSPs allow actors to fill their individual gaps

and constraints (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:6; Lange, 2015:5) create new relationships and build capacities, thus creating a fertile ground for SI to emerge (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:23; European Commission, 2013:15; Perello, 2020:11; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:4; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:34).

(iii) SI

CSP is the birthplace of SI (Bart *et al.*, 2018:4; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:3). SI initiatives are geared towards resolving socio-economic challenges that seemed impossible to be properly solved through the traditional systems (Gordon *et al.*, 2017:1; Howaldt, 2017:128; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57). SI is a result of joint governance or interaction of multi-actors (Hulgård & Ferreira, nd:28; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:3). The joint work through leveraging resources, knowledge and information, technical and operational systems (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:1; Matibane, 2010:30; Wang, nd:12; Wyrwa, 2018:127) and cross-pollination of best practices (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52), ultimately gives birth to SI (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:1; Wyrwa, 2018:127) and innovation in governance. Theories of sectoral difference suggest that sectors each possess unique advantages that can enable them to deliver innovation in both governance and administration areas (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2012:1; O'Byrne *et al.*, 2014:58). The greater sharing of resources, experience and best practice produces new model of action and approaches stimulate SI activities (Butzin *et al.*, 2017:66; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62; Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:1; Matibane, 2010:30; Tsakanika, 2017:12; Wyrwa, 2018:132) which better address socio-economic service delivery problems that the existing strategies. SI affords the cross-sector partners to tailor-make their approaches, strategies, and initiatives (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52; Noya, 2011:22), thus effectively tackling the problems or achieving the desired goals.

Again, integration of hybrid actors breaks silos, builds strong relationships, and strengthens the collaborations among actors, thus setting a good foundation for SI. SI demonstrates that through the CSPs, networks can be formed to co-produce and co-deliver innovative initiatives (Albertson *et al.*, 2020:9; Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:2; Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:4). In observing the current practice, organisations that act together, pursuing common goals and, consequently, co-deciding on the use of resources, often gain the capacity to create new structures and gives rise to networks relationships (Wyrwa, 2018:133). Networks help carry out specific and determined activities or to accomplish a goal that cannot be achieved by any of the organisations separately (Wyrwa, 2018:125).

According to Bevilacqua *et al.* (2019:2), the networks and collaboration governance model embedded within the CSPs are capable of driving, promoting and sustaining SI. This translate that the birth, success and sustenance of SI initiatives are extremely reliant on CSPs (Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; European Commission, 2013:72; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:18; Rehfeld, *et al.*, 2017:84) and their capacity to combine the thinking, ideas, expertise and resources of inter-disciplinary actors (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; Rehfeld *et al.*, 2017:84; TEPSIE, 2014:3). Hence, SI

is considered an important tool for the public sector to improve its services (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64) and resolve the entrenched and multifaceted socio-economic issues better than the traditional public sector approaches (Pisano *et al.*, 2015:3; Sadabadi & Rahimi Rad, 2021:3; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:205; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:4).

(iv) Service delivery

In the public sector, SI for service delivery is executed through programmes and projects. In this framework, such programmes and projects are implemented through CSPs given that effective and efficient service delivery necessitates a complex set of relationships across sectors to deliver new and innovative ways of service delivery (Matibane, 2010:20). These include all types of undertakings, programmes, projects, and operations that are planned, developed, implemented and pursued collaboratively in a sustainable way using SI approaches (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; NASCA, 2017:4). This process is known as co-creation for SI aimed at delivering or enhancing public sector service delivery. It implies that CSPs and SI programmes and projects are formed primarily to solve societal “Meta problems” that cannot be solved by a single organisation alone (Wyrwa, 2018:131). This makes it prudent for the public sector to foster SI in CSP for improved service delivery (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:6). Without a shred of doubt, CSPs offer a renewed approach to public service delivery (NASCA, 2017:2; Pătraşcu, 2018:32) through SI, which is witnessed in the implementation of various public sector policies, programmes and projects.

(v) M&E

When the projects and programmes are implemented, M&E becomes part and parcel of the delivery system. Continuous M&E of SI initiatives is vital to provide actors with regular progress updates towards achieving the envisaged outcomes and even to identify improvement opportunities to deliver sustainable benefits (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:56; van Tulder *et al.*, 2016:2). It helps to track the achievements of targets and outcomes as well as to assess the impact, effectiveness and efficiency (van Tulder *et al.*, 2016:2). M&E also offers an opportunity for learning and improvements in the current service delivery systems, and base for future interventions or planning and decision-making (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:74; Danish Red Cross, 2016:26; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:16). M&E also encourages continuous development (CLES, 2011:6) and helps determine which strategies and policies are effective and sustainable to improving public sector service delivery (Pinto *et al.*, 2012:73). To ensure that collaborative service delivery models attain the maximum benefits, the public sector should consider continuous performance M&E through a well-defined performance management strategy (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:48).

3.4.4 Consequences for using CSPs

The literature indicates numerous consequences of the concept of CSP in public sector service delivery (Wyrwa, 2018:133). According to Pittz and Intindola (2021:2) and Network for Business Sustainability (2013:5), besides addressing severe societal problems, the use of CSP result in improved service delivery (Biljohn, 2018:38; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Vogel *et al.*, 2021:17), efficiency and effectiveness (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:683; McQuaid, 2000:15), value creation (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; Sancino *et al.*, 2019:2), increased capacity (Perello, 2020:11; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:22), and increased outreach (Barth *et al.*, 2018:35; OECD, 2014:34). These benefits stem mainly from general advantages of joint work, which also include economies of scale (more actors in the CSP results in an increased level of production or service delivery), synergy (collaboration achieves better results than operating individually), and achieving critical mass (e.g., experience, skills, knowledge, financial resources, etc.) essential to embark on a given activity (Wyrwa, 2018:133). The exchange of resources, information and good practices is the key benefit of collaboration (European Commission, 2013:9; UNDP, 2014:29; Wyrwa, 2018:133).

(i) Improved services

SI within the context of public sector service delivery, contributes meaningfully to the transformation and modernisation of service delivery (Biljohn & Lues, 2020b:2; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:5). These benefits derive from collaboration among multi-sectors given that the CSP process encourages SI (OECD, 2011:71; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:2). The nature of the CSP process such as collaborations, networks, and co-creation of services may result in improved service delivery (Biljohn, 2018:38; Clarke & Crane, 2018:309; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Vogel *et al.*, 2021:17). Moreover, bringing complementary resources and diverse insights of various actors inspire productive usage of resources to improve service delivery. Hence, CSPs are considered an effective and sustainable tool for improving service delivery and addressing socio-economic challenges (Clarke & Crane, 2018:309; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Matibane, 2010:iii; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4; Vogel *et al.*, 2021:17) and other severe societal problems (Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5).

As alluded to by Pittz and Intindola (2021:2) and Network for Business Sustainability (2013:5), CSPs have proven effective in addressing severe societal problems given that it affords organisations with opportunities to explore new and effective solutions to the ever-changing societal needs and challenges, particularly those that are social and economic in nature (Biljohn & Lues, 2020:2; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:1). Innovation in the public sector enhances efforts to promote effective service delivery (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680) and good governance as well as opening great opportunities for governments to explore new approaches for reforming service delivery (OECD, 2014:2) as witnessed in the successful implementation of socio-economic service delivery practices, programmes and interventions.

(ii) Effectiveness and efficiency

CSPs are considered good vehicles for efficiency and effectiveness improvement in service delivery (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:692; Wyrwa, 2018:127). CSPs help organisations to better coordinate issues and build capacity, which in turn make them more efficient at allocating and prioritising the scarce resources while reducing burden to a single organisation (Conroy *et al.*, 2021:1; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:854). The coordinative arrangement also allows improvements in service delivery effectiveness (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:681). CSPs improve the efficiency and effectiveness of organisations by capitalising on networks and multidisciplinary interactions (Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4) and by incorporating the capacities of various organisations (Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5).

CSPs have the potential to combine each partner's unique capabilities, which enables them to gain benefits that none of the sectors could get when acting in isolation (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:6). Tapping into these unique strengths of the different sectors is logically linked to cost-effectiveness in service delivery (Lu *et al.*, 2010:1015; Wyrwa, 2018:127). This is critical to public sector organisations as they have been seeking ways to persuade efficiency in the use of resources which is the key to achieving effective service delivery goals (Li *et al.*, 2018:4). Therefore, efficient utilisation of resources is necessary to relieve the financial pressures faced by government (European Commission, 2013:9) because complementarity of resources through collaborations expand the public purse to enable organisations to reach far in persuading their mandates.

Depending on the goal or nature of the problem, CSPs can significantly increase effectiveness and efficiency of an individual organisation, through better co-ordination and creation of synergy between and within organisations (McQuaid, 2000:15). Moreover, shared skills, expertise, and practices through CSPs can unlock innovation and new opportunities as well as new relationships, thus enhancing efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; GGLN 2017:12; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5). CSPs also improve effectiveness for long term, through creating stability and minimising risk for partners (McQuaid, 2000:15). Importantly, when partners share the resources, responsibilities, and risks, limit the chances of individual sectorial or organisational risks or failure (Sørensen & Torfing, 2013:5) and reduce the impact on one organisation (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:9). Thus, helping organisations to successfully cope with both existing and new challenges (Wang, nd:19), thus creating value.

(iii) Creating value

In the public sector, CSP and SI are not only about complementing the resources, increasing capacity and introducing novel approaches to improve service delivery but also to create impact and public value (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:4; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:7; Sancino *et al.*, 2019:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). Creation of value arises when cross-sector organisations produce positive societal outcomes that stretch beyond that of a single sector (Caldwell *et al.*, 2017:907; Ihenacho, 2018:39). For example, attaining new competencies through sharing resources, greater cost-effectiveness, risks mitigation and exposure to new opportunities (Cloete, 2015:4; Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Lange, 2015:5). CSPs promote the creation of value by integrating and aligning objectives, as well as recognising and aligning competencies and capacities of various actors (Danish Red Cross, 2016:4; Kindornay *et al.*, 2014:13; Lange, 2015:5; Tauté, 2021:1). Collaborative partnerships can also create value by discovering new ways to address problems, referred to as SI. This happens when partners learn from each other, finding new or unexplored opportunities (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5) because CSPs provide organisations with an opportunity to merge competencies and the inspire establishment of innovative approaches (Just Governance Group, 2014:1).

The diverse values created include synergistic value (benefits deriving from joint work, and that none of the organisation could achieve alone (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:731; Cloete, 2015:5; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4), transferred resource value (accumulating when the partner receives resources from the other partner (Cloete, 2015:5; Just Governance Group, 2014:1), interaction value (intangible benefits resulting from the partnership process e.g. Joint problem solving (Cloete, 2015:5; Just Governance Group, 2014:1), associational value (occurs when an individual partner gains benefits such as improved reliability and reputation just for being in a collaborative relationship) (Cloete, 2015:5; Just Governance Group, 2014:1), social value (gained through a combination of different competencies while compensating each other's weaknesses (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:2).

(iv) Increased capacity

The collaborative service delivery through CSPs do not only results in public sector efficiency and effectiveness but also in empowerment and capacity building for both service producers and service users (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:56; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Patias *et al.*, 2021:58; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6; Sorrentino *et al.*, 2018:281; Tsakanika, 2017:12). Access to additional and variety of resources provide capacity benefits (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680). The cross-sectoral collaborations underpinning the use of SI, build capacities and creates new network relationships (Perello, 2020:11; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:4; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:22). Capacity building derives from the mobilisation process i.e., exchange information, knowledge, expertise, and resources through CSP and SI (Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Pue *et al.*, 2016:33; Unceta & Barandiarán, 2019:104).

Increased capacity occurs when partners pool resources together to co-create services. This is necessary and highly beneficial because the nature of public sector problems necessitates improved capacities to well cope with the multifaceted, ever-increasing and persistent socio-economic problems (OECD, 2014:2; Osborne *et al.*, 2015:647). Increased capacity is necessary to deliver powerful and innovative remedies to these issues (Ritvala *et al.*, 2014:10; Weber *et al.*, 2017:932; Yan *et al.*, 2018:13) and increasing the outreach or scope (Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Gazley, 2017:3). Most importantly, improved capacities also provide performance benefits (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:680) while ensuring sustainability. Co-production, and co-delivery of services contribute towards the sustainability of SI initiatives (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:57). Partnerships provide the best opportunity of bringing the necessary resources, know-how and commitment to ensure a sustainable future (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5). As compared to the conventional approaches to public service delivery, SI is capable to deliver services and sustain them for the long term (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:35).

(v) Increased outreach

Through the CSP mobilisation process, partners leverage resources, which in turn increases the reach (Gazley, 2017:3; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7) while promoting a more cohesive approach (Barth *et al.*, 2018:35; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6;) to service delivery as compared to organisations working individually, thus intensifying impact (Barth *et al.*, 2018:35; Gazley, 2017:3). Andrews and Entwistle (2010:682) posit that when partners pool resources together and co-deliver services, capacity of individual organisations is boosted and they can reach a bigger scale. Therefore, the more the increased capacity, the more the improved outreach (Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Gazley, 2017:3) and the more the increased reliability. When public sector service delivery is reliable and responsive, the service users would be satisfied, which is the goal every organisation is striving to reach. Various authors also confirm that SI through CSPs promotes exploring new or improved strategies to effectively address multifaceted societal issues (Biljohn & Lues, 2020:2; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:2; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Pinto *et al.*, 2021:64; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:1) and deeply-rooted developmental challenges (Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:205), thus better satisfying the societal needs (Li *et al.*, 2018:11) and making the public sector more responsive and effective.

The consequences of CSP and SI are plentiful. However, it can be observed that such outcomes are centred on socio-economic development (Biljohn & Lues, 2020b:2; Perello, 2020:15) through applying effective service delivery strategies. However, their positive consequences depend on the effective management of such CSPs (NASCA, 2017:13; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47). According to McQuaid (2000:29) the success of the CSP depends upon how they are led, coordinated, managed, legitimised, and resourced, implemented, and evaluated. Successful CSPs offer a promising area for

innovation in public service delivery, which could help to address the growing financial and demographic pressures encountered by the public sector (NASCA, 2017:17).

Therefore, a collaborative approach stands to benefit the public sector in so many ways including through its policies and programmes as well as other relevant initiatives (Andrews & Entwistle, 2010:682). Due to their effectiveness and ability to induce SI, CSPs are increasingly adopted by many public sector organisations across the world (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:1; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:4) including the SA public sector organisations, especially for its potential in paving the way for optimal socio-economic impact (European Commission, 2013:9; O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:58; UNDP, 2014:29) as demonstrated in many disciplines and sectors (Weber *et al.*, 2017:929). CSPs are considered the best approach to overcome the persisting challenges through successful implementation of processes, programmes projects and other interventions of socio-economic service delivery (Pretorious, 2020:151).

Although some scholars view CSP as not all-purpose instrument that can solve all the current challenges in the public sector, its use is necessary to promote and scale-up SI for continuous service improvements, collaborative planning processes and innovative use of resources (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:827; Matibane, 2010:85; Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47) in public service delivery. CSP is thus a key to the current and next generation of service delivery. By involving the various sectors, CSPs can place government in a position to strategically deliver services by leveraging the core competencies and resources of different stakeholders in addressing many challenges including incapacities, and failure of government, thus optimise the creation of social value (Tauté, 2021:1). In conclusion, Nweke (2016:97) recognises that to address socio-economic problems outside the CSPs is probable to become more difficult.

3.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter determined the perspectives of CSPs and SI’s use in public sector programme delivery. The chapter commenced by Section 3.1 which provided introductory remarks. Section 3.2 conceptualised the concept of CSP. As part of conceptualisation, the section provided definition of CSP (3.2.1) wherein various definitions were summaries in table 4. The section also reflected on the attributes of CSPs (3.2.2), pre-conditions for CSPs (3.2.3), CSP success factors (3.2.4), consequences of using CSP (3.2.5), and challenges confronting CSPs (3.2.6). Section 3.3 probed into CSPs and the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. This section was elaborated through discussing the nexus between CSPs and public sector programme delivery (3.3.1), the role of CSPs in advancing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery (3.3.2), and challenges hampering the use of social innovation in CSPs (3.3.3). Section 3.4 offered a conceptual framework for CSPs to use social

innovation in public sector programme delivery. The framework is captured and summarised in figure 8. Section 3.5, which is the last section of the chapter, provided the conclusion for this chapter.

In conclusion of this chapter, the findings from the literature reveal that CSP is an important strategy for reform, improving administration and governance and delivering effective and efficient public sector services (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Danish Red Cross, 2016:16; GGLN 2017:12; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:1; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5). Given the complexity of the issues faced, government's best solutions may come from collaboration among diverse experts across sectors to unlock innovation to release savings and improve services (NASCA, 2017:3). Thus, to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public sector service delivery and create more public values for the citizens, cross-sector integration and partnership is vital for the public managers (Lu *et al.*, 2010:1012) particularly given that government alone cannot address national issues in societies, owing to capacity issues (Rao-Nicholson *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3). Therefore, where the public sector organisations lack the capacity for service delivery, for instance, due to limited financial or human resources, CSPs should be considered to make it possible to find innovative solutions (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:21; Ihenacho, 2018:27; Matibane, 2010:29; Vopni, 2020:5). Hence CSP is recognised as a commendable tool to advance SI (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:4; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). SI through collaborative efforts, encourages the pooling and effective use of resources (Wyrwa, 2018:127). These findings conclude the discussions on Chapter 3. Chapter 4 presents the case of DALRRD and CSPs in the implementation of Jobs Fund programme.

CHAPTER 4: CASE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF JOBS FUND PROGRAMME

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The complexity of service delivery challenges faced within the agriculture sector, especially with depleting public resources (DALRRD, 2022a:v), have driven the DALRRD to join the mass to explore CSPs as one of the innovative strategies (Vasin *et al.*, 2017:26) aimed at accelerating and improving service delivery (DAFF, 2013b:1) and effectively meets its mandates while coping with the ever-increasing needs. The delivery of effective and efficient agricultural support services is important particularly to fighting against the socio-economic challenges facing the sector (DAFF, 2013a:xi; World Bank, 2015:15). To this effect, DALRRD has been implementing various service delivery and support programmes and projects to their varying degree of success, including JF programme which is implemented through CSPs.

The use of CSP stems from the recognition that DALRRD alone cannot tackle socio-economic service delivery challenges (Agribiz, 2018:1), particularly considering that these challenges are multidisciplinary, thus requiring consorted efforts, resources, capacities and expertise of various actors (DALRRD, 2021:3, DALRRD, 2022a:v). Hence various DALRRD policies, frameworks and strategies including Comprehensive Producer Support Policy, Agricultural Agro-Processing Master Plan put great emphasis and support on the use of CSPs (Agribiz, 2018:1). Moreddu (2016:2) confirms that to support the use of CSPs in public sector service delivery, the South African government have generally put in place a policy environment to facilitate the development of CSPs. Given the recognition and support of CSPs by government, the DALRRD in partnership with National Treasury through GTAC have been implementing JF programme for the commercialisation of smallholder producers within the agriculture sector (DALRRD, nd:11; The Jobs Fund, 2019:13) to realise the government's objectives job creation, food security and economic growth (DALRRD, 2021:3).

Against this background, Chapter 4 evaluates the use of CSP and SI as a strategy for public sector service delivery in the DALRRD using the case of JF programme implemented by the DALRRD in partnership with GTAC. The chapter commences with section 4.1 which provides an introduction. This is followed by the case of DALRRD regarding the CSP arrangement for the Jobs Fund Programme (section 4.2). Section 4.3 evaluates SI's use in CSP for implementing the Jobs Fund programme by DALRRD. In section 4.4, CSPs' stimulation of SIs use for improved public sector service delivery programmes by DALRRD is discussed. Next, a strategy is presented to use social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery (section 4.5). This chapter is concluded in section 4.6.

4.2 CASE OF THE JF PROGRAMME

The DALRRD and the National Treasury through the GTAC have entered into a Grant Agreement in respect of the Commercialisation of Black Producers Programme: JF programme 8/1628 (DALRRD, nd:11; The Jobs Fund, 2019:2). The project is part of the broader government's intervention to commercialise 450 smallholder farmers in South Africa as announced by his Excellency, President Jacob Zuma during the 2017 State of the Nation Address (DALRRD, 2020a:3). It is aimed at contributing to the realisation of government's objectives of addressing socio-economic challenges particularly unemployment, food insecurity and declining economic growth (DAFF, 2019a:3). Thus, in efforts to contribute to the realisation of these objectives, the DALRRD initiated a commercialisation programme which is implemented through various approaches including CSPs (DAFF, 2019a:3, DALRRD, 2020a:3). DALRRD uses strategic partnerships with public, private, research institutions and civil society organisations to build its capacity to improve governance and enhance public sector socio-economic service delivery (DALRRD, 2022a:v). Hence the partnership with GTAC to implement the JF programme. DALRRD entered the CSP agreement in its capacity as the lead applicant for the Commercialisation of Black Producers Programme JF8/1628 with the aim to leverage resources through strategic CSPs (DAFF, 2019:2). The JF programme was then approved as a matched grant funding to the tune of R600 million, wherein each partner contributes R300 million (The Jobs Fund, 2019:3).

The DALRRD and GTAC have partnered on the area of enterprise development which is an initiative that seeks to develop innovative approaches to sustainable job creation in ways that integrate profitability with high social impact (The Jobs Fund, 2019:2). Within this area the JF programme seeks to stimulate new ideas and discover new ways of working that can make significant impact better than the conventional approaches (National Treasury, nd:1). At the heart of JF programme is to compliment and replicate numerous existing government interventions geared towards tackling the barriers to job creation by providing public funding (National Treasury, nd:1; The Jobs Fund, 2012:3). The envisioned outcome is to create an enhanced funding instrument that produces high socio-economic impact through job creation, while guaranteeing attracting more opportunities for scaling-up (The Jobs Fund, 2023:3; The Jobs Fund, 2012:3).

4.2.1 Partnership Agreement

To solidify the partnership, the Grant Agreement between these two parties was signed on the 30th of September 2019 (The Jobs Fund, 2019:14). The Grant Agreement includes Project Activity-Based Costed Project Implementation Monitoring Plan which sets out the manner in which the project is to be implemented to achieve its set targets (The Jobs Fund, 2019:14). It sets out the project outputs and cost activities as well as the source of funding attached to those activities (The Jobs Fund, 2019:11). The Grant agreement further stipulates the roles and responsibilities of each partner. In partnership, partners share responsibilities (Wyrwa, 2018:123) and it is significant that the roles and responsibilities of each

partner are established because the absence may lead to confusion and compromising of partnership success (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14; Dempsey, Burton & Duncan, 2016:6). As in line with the tenets of the Grant Agreement both parties are expected to comply with the provision of the Grant Agreement to ensure successful implementation of the project, and that the project outputs and outcomes are met within the set timeframe as specified in the Grant Agreement and ABC PIMP (The Jobs Fund, 2019:35).

A formal agreement is crucial to stipulate requirements of the partnership inclusive of ownership arrangements, partnership management, roles, and responsibilities etc. (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). The lack of formal agreements in partnerships may lead to misinterpretations and confusion and increases chances of partnership failure (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:433). Hence signed in the case of DALRRD. Following the signing of the Grant Agreement, the 1st of October 2019 marked the project start date (DALRRD, nd:11; The Jobs Fund, 2019:13). As per the Grant Agreement, the project is scheduled for 5 years period, wherein the first 3 years are for actual implementation, thus provision of support to farmers, whereas the last 2 years are for M&E to conclude reporting, auditing and evaluation to determine the performance and impact of the project against the expected deliverables to ascertain the JF grant funding's catalytic effects (DALRRD, 2022b:2; The Jobs Fund, 2019:3).

4.2.2 Programme implementation strategy

DALRRD and GTAC contribute equal amount of funding (The Jobs Fund, 2019:3). These contributions are released in tranches on a quarterly basis, based on the performance in relation to the planned ABC PIMP (The Jobs Fund, 2019:3). The support to farmers is provided as a structured blended funding model in which 50% is grant while another 50% loan (DAFF, 2021:5; DALRRD, 2022b:18). However, the loan interest rate to smallholder farmers is set at 7.5% which is not linked to prime interest rate (The Jobs Fund, 2019:10). The repaid loan and interest income is recycled into the secondary project bank account to continue with project activities after the implementation of the project (The Jobs Fund, 2019:10) and to replicate the support to other new farmers.

Due to the nature of the programme as it is a blended funding model which involves both loan and grant funding, the DALRRD appointed the Land Bank as an Implementing Agent (IA) for the project (DAFF, 2019a:3; DALRRD, 2022b:3). The MoA between the DALRRD and Land Bank was signed on 25 July 2019, stipulating the requirements of the agreements, on-lending terms and the key responsibilities of the two parties (DAFF, 2019b:26). Among other Land Bank's key responsibilities are to (i) administer the fund including opening of two ring-fenced i.e. primary and secondary project bank accounts where both DALRRD and GTAC deposit their contributions and receive loan repayment, (ii) together with the DALRRD develop a credit approval policy customised for developmental purposes, (iii) facilitate

project implementation, (iii) conduct Financial Due Diligence (FDD) process and make credit decision on funding request, (iv) administer loan, disbursement to projects, collection and funding post investment support iv) appoint service providers, and (vi) provide quarterly reports to enable DALRRD to report to the GTAC through the GMS. Although Land Bank was appointed as the IA, the accountability to the JF programme partnership lies with the DALRRD. DALRRD is expected to conform with the obligations of the Grant Agreement, including provision of both performance and financial reports to GTAC on quarterly basis through the Grant Management System. (DAFF, 2019b:16; The Jobs Fund, 2019:5)

In addition to the implementation arrangements, a governance structure was established to manage the project and facilitate the implementation of activities. The details of the governance structure are herein discussed.

4.2.3 Governance Structure

As part of the project institutional arrangements, various governance structures have been established. The structure encompasses the Steering Committee, a technical team termed “Project Management Team (PMT)” and Project Management Office (PMO) (DAFF, 2019:4). Because there is no universal governance arrangement suitable for partnerships, partnering organisations should determine appropriate institutional arrangements that properly fits the respective partnership (Cairns & Harris, 2010:8; Danish Red Cross, 2016:13). Important is that every partnership should have a governance arrangement for better implementation of the project, encompassing decision making, planning and project management. A strong governance structure, with clear roles and responsibilities is critical to enhance the efficiency of the partnership (Clarke & Crane, 2018:134; Danish Red Cross, 2016:14). Clarke and Crane (2018:134) regard the governance structure as an important aspect of partnership success. Likewise, in the JF programme the governance structure is marked critical to facilitate and manage the implementation of the project such that the project objectives are realised. Hence the establishment of a governance structure.

Although the governance structure depends on the nature and complexity of the partnership, Danish Red Cross (2016:13) suggest a structure that comprises of between 2-3 levels, thus strategic/ steering committee, tactical, and implementation. DALRRD also established 3 levels named Steering Committee, PMT and PMO. The PMO consists of 3 sub committees, thus Commodity Task Team (CTT), Pre-assessment teams and Land Bank’s Commercial Credit Committee (CCC). The governance structure is detailed below.

(i) Steering Committee

The Steering Committee which is also referred to as the strategic committee has been established (DAFF, 2019a:3; DALRRD, 2021:3). The committee's role is to provide oversight and strategic direction during the project implementation phase (DALRRD, 2021:7). The key responsibilities also include to (1) oversee the implementation of the project activities and ensure the objectives of commercialisation and job creation are achieved, (2) receive the projects as recommended by the Land Bank's Investment Committee/ CCC and ensure alignment to the project processes (3) ratify the projects and budgets recommended by the Land Bank's CCC, if in agreement, and (4) continuously monitor the implementation of the project and take corrective action where necessary (DAFF, 2019a:6). Projects ratification means that the Steering Committee rest with the approval of the recommended projects (The Jobs Fund, 2019:5). This is in alignment with the view indicated in various literature documents that the key function of the strategic committee is to provide oversight to the implementation of the agreement to help achieve the objectives of the partnerships (Sharma & Vankateswaran, 2020:4397; World Meteorological Organization, 2018:6).

The Steering Committee is comprised of senior members from various DALRRD Branches and Chief Directorates. According to Sharma and Vankateswaran (2020:4397), the Steering Committee should comprise of representatives from all partners. However, it is not the case in the JF programme, as the members are limited to DALRRD officials. In recognition that the Steering Committee is the highest level in the hierarchy of DALRRD JF programme governance structure, the GTAC is also supposed to form part of the committee given that this is the highest level of decision making.

Lastly, another important aspect worth mentioning is that although the project is implemented over a period of 5 years, the Steering Committee is structured to continue to provide oversight beyond the project implementation to cater for loan repayment period which maybe up to 10 years depending on the commodity supported. This is an important factor that would ensure that SI initiatives are sustainable for now and in future, unlike where the end of implementation phase means the end of the project.

(ii) PMT

The PMT was established considering that the implementation of the project requires drivers that would facilitate the implementation of project (DAFF, 2019c:4). The PMT's primary responsibility is to ensure proper planning, coordination, implementation, reporting and monitoring of the project as well as with key stakeholders to help achieve the project deliverables (DAFF, 2019:4). Key roles and responsibilities of the PMT also include (1) planning, coordination and facilitate implementation of the project activities to ensure that the project deliverables are executed as per the ABC PIMP (2) setting the ranges for the financial support for smallholder producers, (3) screening and conducting technical due diligence of the received applications in line with the set technical requirements, (4) providing recommendations of technically viable projects to Land Bank for FDD, (5) continuously monitor the implementation of the

project and take corrective action where applicable, and (6) ensuring continuous communication of decisions made to relevant structures. (DAFF, 2019c:5)

The PMT is regarded as the second level of the project which is also known as “tactic level”, responsible for managing the project plan and feeds steering committee. Tactic level should comprise of project managers from both partnering organisations (Danish Red Cross, 2016:13; Victorian Council of Social Science, 2018:5); however, in the case of JF programme, the PMT is comprised of SOEs, Provincial Departments of Agriculture (PDAs) and commodity organisations. Instead, the level that somehow allows interaction of project managers from both DALRRD and GTAC, is the implementation level. This demonstrates a misalignment in terms of structure composition. However as explained by Danish Red Cross (2016:13) there is no one size fit all arrangement regarding partnership governance.

Based on the identified governance for the JF programme, the PMT is comprised of representatives from DALRRD; nine Provincial Departments of Agriculture; agriculture SOEs and commodity organisations (DAFF, 2019c:4). The SOEs includes organisations such as Land Bank, Agricultural Research Council (ARC), Perishable Products Export Control Board (PPECB), National Agricultural Marketing Council (NAMC), Onderstepoort Biological products (OBP). Commodity organisations consists of organisations such as Citrus Growers Association-Grower Development Company (CGA-GDC), South African Poultry Association (SAPA), South African Pork Producers' Organisation (SAPPO), HOTGROW, South African Macadamia Growers Association (SAMGA), Potato SA, Cotton SA, South African Feedlot Association (SAFA), National Emergent Red Meat Producers' Organisation (NERPO), Red Meat Abattoir Association (RMAA), South Africa Meat Inspection and Classification (SAMIC). (DAFF, 2019c:8)

Over and above the participation of stakeholders in the PMT structure, the CTT was established within the PMT structure to ease the process of technical due diligence. The CTT structure allows all stakeholders especially commodity organisations and DALRRD subject matter specialists to accordingly participate in the respective commodity structures where they can relevantly share their expertise. The primary responsibility of the CTT is to conduct commodity based technical assessments to determine the viability of the business plans, and recommend qualifying applications to the PMT (DAFF, 2019c:5). In addition, within the PMT, a pre-assessment team was established to conduct pre-assessment of applications received on behalf of the PMT. This team consists of DALRRD and PDA officials. This translates to the fact that within the PMT there are two more smaller committees. Again, at the PMT level, indirectly there is also a CCC responsible for conducting FDD whereas the PMT is responsible for the technical due diligence. Both financial and technical due diligence outcome help determine the viability and approval of the application. These too many committees may have positive or negatives impact on the project. The positives may relate to speeding up the implementation process

while the negatives may be relating to causing delays in project implementation given the interactions between these committees.

Nonetheless, all the stakeholders mentioned above are key to the successful implementation of the project. For instance, DALRRD provides funds whereas PDAs are critical to the origination on the project pipeline. Essentially, SOEs and commodity organisations are equally important as they play a critical role by providing technical expertise, guidance and advisory on commodity specific project proposals i.e., on the applicable crop and livestock commodities, markets, certification etc. (DAFF, 2019c:9). Again, worth highlighting is that SOEs such as Land Bank are also key to the cultivation of the project pipeline as it assists with assessment of financial viability and creditworthiness of applications for funding recommendations (DAFF, 2019c:8).

(iii) PMO

One of the key responsibilities of DALRRD is to ensure that the dedicated capacity is in place to facilitate the processes between the JF partner, IA, business enterprises and project partners to ensure effective communication between various stakeholders in the project (The Jobs Fund, 2019:34). Of this reason, the DALRRD established the PMO to assist with execution of the JF programme (DALRRD, 2022b:19, 2021c:7; DAFF, 2019b:11). The role of PMO is to facilitate active participation of parties, and serve as the source for all project records, including correspondence, reports, and any other documents describing and detailing the project (GTAC, 2020:15) and feeds the PMT level. PMO is vital to the success of government projects. Because many government projects have multiple stakeholders involved in the project operations and oversight of the project activities, these complex relationships may be more difficult to coordinate without the PMO (GTAC, 2020:15). Its ability to provide up-to-date source-driven project information, which is very crucial to the continued life of the project and its successful transition is widely recognised.

The PMO, as the last level in the JF programme structure, is comprised of four officials appointed in May 2021, specifically to facilitate the implementation of the project. The PMO is also augmented by DALRRD officials, particular those who have been part since the onset of the project. In addition to its roles, the PMO serves as a liaison between. The PMO has been appointed one year six months after the project start date (Land Bank, 2021a:76). This also shows a gap because the PMO joined the project at a later stage whereas according to partnership requirements, governance structure should be in place from the beginning. Before the PMO appointment, the project implementation has been facilitated by DALRRD officials.

The PMO is regarded as an implementation level. According to Braun (2015:10) this level is responsible for the implementation of project plan activities as part of joint work and paving a roadmap to achieve

partnership goals. Considering that the PMO in this regard consists of 4 officials, augmented by DALRRD officials, this is to some extent different from the understanding of Danish Red Cross (2016:13) that the implementation level should comprise of representatives from all partners. The slight commonality could be that the PMO regularly interacts with GTAC team through weekly meetings have regular meetings.

All the above varied governance structures are crucial to the success of the partnership. These structures are seen as the heartbeat of the partnership implementation and moreover an important communication channel through which the different parties can interact. As highlighted in the discussions, each and every level has distinguished responsibilities and feeds each other to ensure that all stakeholders involved are on the same page regarding the matters of the project.

(iv) Project process flow

The DALRRD and GTAC established a process flow through which the implementation of the project is guided. Figure 4.1 summaries the project process flow which provides a picture of project implementation process.

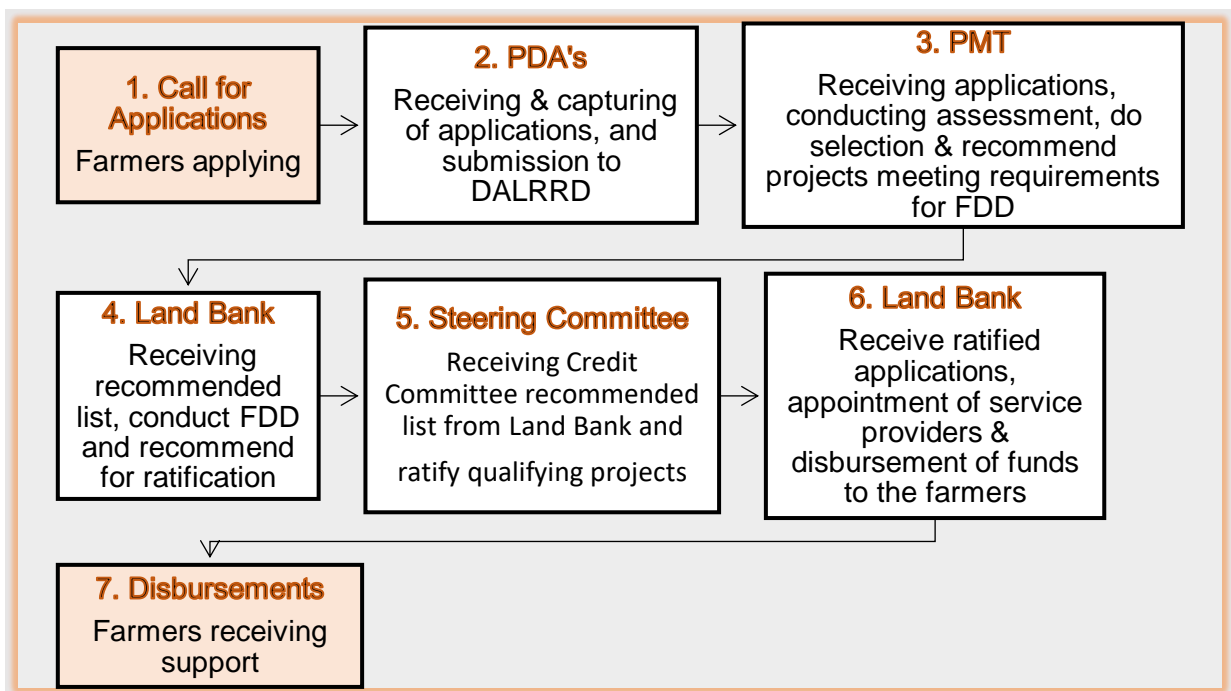


Figure 4.1: Project process flow (Source: DAFF, 2020d:3; DAFF, 2019a:5; Land Bank, 2021a:5)

The initial stage of the project commences with a call for applications through a public advert. This is the deal origination phase wherein farmers apply through the PDAs. The PDAs receive and capture

applications through the template provided by DALRRD. The DALRRD team together with the PDA team collaboratively conducts the pre-assessment to check compliance of applications with the set minimum requirements. Subsequently, the applications are submitted to PMT for assessment, selection and recommendations to Land Bank for FDD. The Land Bank conducts FDD, and if meet the requirements, approve through CCC. The Steering Committee receives the CCC approved applications, ratify the qualifying ones and instruct Land Bank to disburse. The latter, Land Bank disburses funds to the farmers, and appoint service providers to render services to such farmers. This end process is where farmers receive the support. The M& E process then kick starts to determine the progress towards achievement of the expected deliverables. Consequently, depending on the lending terms, farmers start repaying the loan after receiving the support. (DAFF, 2019b:10; DAFF, 2019a:5; DALRRD, 2020b:4; Land Bank, 2021a:5).

The next section (4.3) provides an evaluation of SI in CSP in the case of the Job Fund programme in DALRRD.

4.3 EVALUATION OF SI'S USE IN CSPs FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE JOBS FUND PROGRAMME BY DALRRD

This section evaluates SI's use in CSPs in the implementation of the JF programme by DALRRD. Figure 10 depicts various attributes of SI's use which includes cross sector aspect, partnership, pursuance of a common goal, use of networks and collaborations, participation, co-creation of services, and innovation in implementing the project. These attributes were identified in Chapter 2 Section 2.3.1.

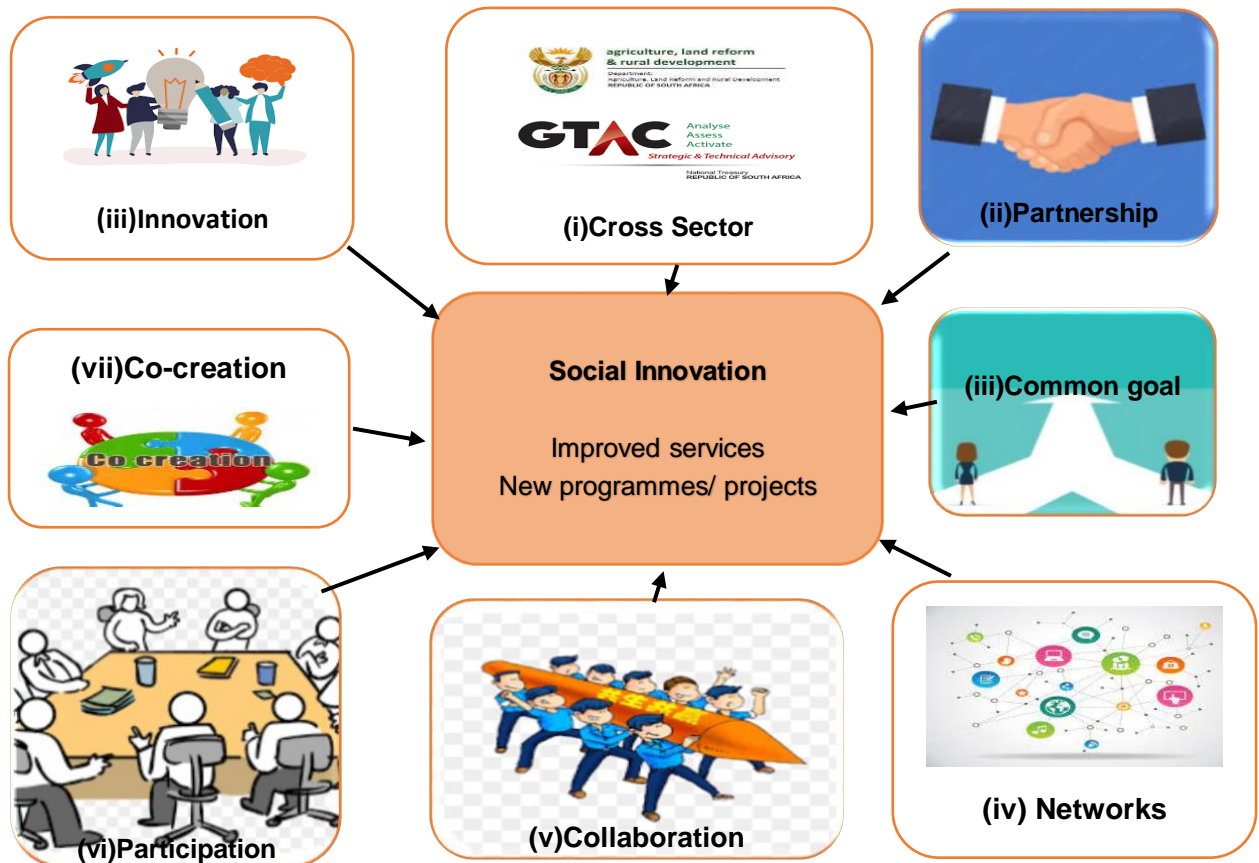


Figure 4.2: Conceptual framework for the use of SI in the case of DALRRD

(Source: Adapted from: Biljohn, 2018:38; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:9; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62; Danish Red Cross, 2016:14; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:19; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197; Wyrwa, 2018:132)

As illustrated in Figure 4.2, the conceptual framework for SI's use in the case of JF programme comprise 8 attributes which summarises SI in the implementation of the project. These attributes are discussed in the rest of this section.

4.3.1 Cross sector

The cross-sector approach marks one of the key attributes of SI (Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:5). The JF programme is a cross-sector initiative wherein the two partners are from different sectors of economy, thus finance and agriculture. The mandate of DALRRD is accelerated land reform, sustainable rural development and enhanced agricultural production to stimulate economic development and ensure food security for all as entrenched in Sections 24, 25 and 27 (1) (b) of the constitution of the RSA (DALRRD, 2020c:13). The mandate of GTAC as a National Treasury's SOE, is to ensure enhanced public financial management, improve state organisational competence;

strengthen the capabilities of individuals working within the public sector (GTAC, 2020a:ii). Its objective is to provide professional and technical advisory services, programme and project management and support to the public sector (GTAC, 2023:8). Therefore, the collaboration between the two parties referred to as CSP classified as Public-Public Partnerships.

Despite the DALRRD and GTAC belonging to different sectors, the stakeholders involved in the JF are also from various sectors e.g., research (ARC), finance (Land Bank), marketing (NAMC) and commodity organisations. The involvement of stakeholders in project activities can help to bring different ideas, induce innovation, and build a sustainable collaboration in project implementation and post implementation M&E (Land Bank, 2021a:76). This concretises the philosophy that SI in nature is not a single sector monopoly, but a multi and cross sector process that crosscuts all sectors of society and economy (European Commission, 2013:66; Nicholls *et al.*, 2015:13; TEPSIE, 2014:38). Considering that public service delivery challenges confronting government are multidimensional and cross boundary, addressing such necessitate cross sector approach (Cunha *et al.*, 2015:2; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62). Therefore, cross pollination is vital for SI to emerge and thrive (Butzin *et al.*, 2017:60; Noya, 2011:23; Perello, 2020:11).

4.3.2 Partnership

Partnership approaches have become a common SI strategy for delivering public services. This approach is also used when dealing with multi-dimensional societal issues that require consorted efforts from various actors (Mcquaid, 2010:130; OECD, 2014:25). Partnership occurs when individuals or organisations collaborate with each other to achieve a specific goal (O’Byrne *et al.*, 2014:59). The GTAC and DALRRD entered into a CSP in October 2019. To formalise the partnership, a Grant Agreement was signed between the two parties to govern their relationship (The Jobs Fund, 2019:11). A formal agreement in partnership is crucial to specify the contractual obligations of the partnership inclusive of expected deliverables, implementation strategy, partners’ roles and responsibilities, risk management and operational system (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14) given that its lack may result in misunderstandings and grey areas in the implementation. Usually, formalisation of partnership includes documents such as MoA (Danish Red Cross, 2016:14), MoU or Grant Agreement.

In the case of DALRRD and GTAC, the Grant Agreement signed serves as the contractual obligation. The Grant Agreement also includes ABC PIMP which sets out the manner in which the project is to be implemented to achieve its set targets, project outputs to measure the project progress and the detailed and costed activities as well as the source of funding attached to those activities (The Jobs Fund, 2019:14). The overall objective of the project is to a) create permanent sustainable job creation, and b) share good practices through experimentation of innovative concepts, approaches, models and activities (The Jobs Fund, 2018:3). The objective is carried out through the commercialisation of smallholder

producers within the agriculture sector (DALRRD, nd:11; The Jobs Fund, 2019:13), and thus contribute to the government's objectives of eliminating hunger, poverty and inequalities while ensuring economic growth and sustainable livelihoods for all (DALRRD, 2021:3). The use of CSP is premised on the acknowledgement that DALRRD alone cannot tackle socio-economic service delivery challenges (Agribiz, 2018:1), particularly considering that these challenges are multidisciplinary, thus requiring concerted efforts, resources, capacities and expertise of various actors (DALRRD, 2021:3, DALRRD, 2022a:v).

4.3.3 Achieving of a common goal

Achieving a common goal is a fundamental trait of SI. SI is triggered by a need to respond to a societal issue, challenge or needs that could not be solved by the existing strategies or approaches (Meriggioni & Nardi, 2018:19; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:2; Van Rheede & Bayat, 2019:197). SI is concerned with tackling societal challenges, improving the quality of life for all, by providing novel solutions to problems such as creation of new employment opportunities and new forms of collaboration which would trigger innovation (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:3; Li *et al.*, 2018:11; Massey & Johnston-Miller, 2016:3).

Hence, organisations enter CSPs to catalyse innovation in pursuit of a common goal i.e., addressing a particular societal need or challenge, needs or improving services (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Cloete, 2015:4; Wyrwa, 2018:123). The common goal of partnership in the implementation of the JF programme is to realise the government's objectives job creation, food security, economic growth and ensure sustainable livelihoods (DALRRD, 2021:3). It also seeks to develop innovative commercial approaches to sustainable job creation in ways that combine profitability with high social impact (The Jobs Fund, 2018:4). The JF programme was not triggered by the need to make profit, but by a need to address societal challenges, and improve service delivery through job creation activities, creation of sustainable farming business by commercialising the smallholder producers. This is aligned with the objective of SI, which is to make social impact, and not to make profit (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:63; Perello, 2020:15).

4.3.4 Relationships and networks

The nature of the SI is underpinned by processes such as collaborations, partnerships, participation, and co-creation of services (Biljohn, 2018:38; Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358). This process enables creation of new relationships, new networks, and cooperation (Perello, 2020:11; Reynolds *et al.*, 2016:4; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:22). Generally, when organisations work jointly to achieve a common goal, often creates an environment for development of new structures and networks (Wyrwa, 2018:120). The collaboration between the GTAC and DALRRD created networks among various stakeholders, thus different PDA's, SOEs (NAMC, ARC, PPECB, OBP, Land Bank) and commodity organisations (CGA-GDC, Hotgro, Potato SA, SAMAC, SAPA, SAPPO, RMAA, NERPO etc.). It implies that the

DALRRD/GTAC's JF programme is beyond project-based partnership as it also builds lasting relationships with other stakeholders to ensure sustainable interventions for long-lasting impact beyond the project period (The Jobs Fund, 2023:1). All these stakeholders play their specific role and responsibilities, which is in line with the distinguishing elements identified by Pisano *et al.* (2015:6) that in a partnership all stakeholders have distinguished roles and responsibilities.

The DALRRD/ GTAC collaboration further created new structures such as PMO (four officials with the sole responsibility to facilitate daily project operations and coordinate processes between various stakeholders), Technical Task Team (constituted by various commodity specialists to provide the necessary expertise), Project Implementation Task Team (comprised of DALRRD and GTAC officials responsible for implementation of activities to ensure achievement of project objectives), PMT (comprise of PDA's DALRRD, SOEs and commodity organisations to manage the project plan and feeds the steering committee) and Steering Committee (consists of DALRRD management with the aim to provide oversight and strategic leadership to help achieve the project aim). These new networks and structures enable establishment of new practices that stimulate SIs (Cunha *et al.*, 2015:8; Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Tsakanika, 2017:12), and thus help development of effective, efficient, impactful, and sustainable solutions (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4). Therefore, these networks help organisations to achieve positive results as opposed to when organisations operate individually.

4.3.5 Collaboration

SI creates new collaborations and new relationships (Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6). Apart from the partnership between the GTAC and DALRRD, new collaborations have emerged. Thus, collaborations between government departments, SOEs and commodity organisations play distinct roles necessary for the success of the JF programme. The success and sustainability of SI is heavily dependent on collaboration of different stakeholders (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4) and their capacity to combine the novel ideas, experiences, expertise, and resources (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45; Rehfeld *et al.*, 2017:84). The collaborative partnerships render conducive environment for SI to emerge (European Commission, 2013:15) particularly because it serves as an important platform for sharing and exchanging of ideas, knowledge, experience, and mutual learning as well as innovative strategies among various actors (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52). In turn, collaboration promotes new networks and relationships among different societal actors (Marques *et al.*, 2017:500). All the actors involved in the JF programme are deemed important as they meaningfully contribute to many aspects i.e., skills, expertise, experiences, and information as well as resources, both tangible and non-tangible. Consequently, collaboration may increase the capacity of government to better respond and provide sustainable solutions to the societal challenges. This translates that collaboration is critical for initiating, implementing, upscaling and sustaining SIs (Noya, 2011:23).

4.3.6 Participation

At the centre of the SI lies the active participation of citizens or service users (Cruz & Paulino, 2020:62). As in contrast with technological innovation, an important characteristic of SI generally is its strong emphasis on involving the beneficiaries or service users as much as possible across the service delivery continuum i.e., from designing to implementing (SI Drive, 2017:3). In the JF programme, participation could be observed, however, it is only limited to Government departments, SOEs and commodity organisations whereas citizen participation is lagging. Farmers who are supposed to be the central stakeholder as service users and innovation creators, are not involved in the process. Citizens, whom in this case refer to farmers should participate through all stages of service delivery cycle i.e., decision making, planning, design and implementation (Biljohn & Lues, 2016:75; Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:2; Sorrentino *et al.*, 2018:284). SI foster bottom-up initiatives while keeping away with top-down or centralised approaches to service delivery. It implies that citizens should not be viewed as sole service recipients, instead should participate in the entire service delivery process (Agostini *et al.*, 2017:394).

Citizens' role in the co-creation of services is vital for it is considered a correct platform for engagement in which citizens can communicate their views, experiences and knowledge regarding service delivery issues affecting them (Biljohn, 2018:192; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:49). The information provided by citizens could afford policy makers, managers, and innovators to understand challenges better from direct source, and as such work together to identify the cause and possible solutions that can create impact to the livelihoods of the citizens (Moeenian *et al.*, 2022:11; Pereira & Ckagnazaroff, 2020:112). This means in the public sector service delivery, for an SI to make impact in solving complex societal challenges, citizens participation is necessary given that they have direct knowledge about their problems and needs (Biljohn, 2019:4), and this could lead to identification of better and improved solution. This is in line with the Jobs Fund's (2018:9) recommendation that smallholder farmers support programmes should focus on building around the needs of the farmers and not the needs of the programme implementers, meaning that farmers should participate in service delivery cycle as they are the targeted service recipients. With SI, service delivery initiatives are developed "with users" and not just receiving the services (Agostini *et al.*, 2017:394). Thus, SI should bubble up from the bottom.

4.3.7 Co-creation

Co-creation as another core attribute of SI (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:9; Pisano *et al.*, 2015:6), is reflected in the implementation of JF programme. The Government Technical Advisory Centre and DALRRD co-plan, co-design and co-implement the project. The Activity-Based Costed Project Implementation Monitoring Plan, which is a project implementation tool, was designed by both two parties in which the parties would plan together and agree on project deliverables and how to achieve such (The Jobs Fund, 2019:14). The process of co-creation in the JF programme implementation does

not include citizens or service recipients, who are referred to as farmers in this case. This aligns with the observation by Pillay (2019:89) that although co-creation is aimed at intensifying collaborative efforts between government and its citizens, the practicality of co-creation in the South African public sector context remains flawed. This could be attributed to the nature of service delivery systems approach which is un conducive for co-creation owing to unfavorable socio-political and socio-economic environment in SA (Pillay, 2019:89), thus posing serious challenges for co-creation to flourish in the public sector. These underlying challenges that are primarily evident in the socio-economic environment further makes the reform in the public sector remain strained (Pillay, 2019:89).

According to Brandsen and Honingh (2018:15) co-creation occurs when citizens or service recipients actively participate in strategic design and delivery of the services they receive. Citizen participation is not a new approach, in fact governments worldwide have re-discovered that citizen is an important actor with a responsibility in the planning, design and implementation of public policies and services (Brandsen, Steen, & Verschuere, 2018:3). Considering that societal expectations are high, co-creation with citizens is regarded as a possible solution to the public sector's declined legitimacy and deteriorating resources, by tapping more of society's capacities. Hence, citizen participation has become increasingly a major topic in public administration agenda and public management research as well as socio economic development (Brandsen *et al.*, 2018:3). Moreover, citizen participation encourages and support ownership, thus reducing dependency on the government to exclusively provide all services (Pillay, 2019:105).

Despite the exclusion of participation by the producers or farmers in the JF programme, the co-creation process involves other stakeholders such as PDAs, SOEs and commodity organisations. This connotes that even though citizen participation is lagging, co-creation is still applicable because of collaboration and networks among various stakeholders. The process of collaboration and partnership stimulates co-creation in public service delivery, that in turn creates capacity within public service delivery system (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:9; Eckhardt *et al.*, 2021:3; Osborne *et al.*, 2015:639). The capacity increases because the involvement and participation of diverse actors gives organisations an opportunity to leverage resources, expertise and innovative practices of each other (Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7). Hence, Osborne *et al.* (2015:643) consider co-creation as an imperative tool for delivering public service programmes due to its potential to improve service delivery efficiency and effectiveness. Besides its potential to enhance public sector efficiency, co-creation process also empowers its participants (Jo & Nabatchi, 2019:358; Sorrentino *et al.*, 2018:281) as it encourages cooperation among stakeholders, and cross fertilisation of ideas, views and information to reform public policy (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:641), improve service delivery design (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:9) and drive innovation in public service (Sorrentino, *et al.*, 2018:278).

4.3.8 Innovation

SIs are characterised by innovative processes and approaches (Wyrwa, 2018:132). Likewise, at its core, the JF programme is a catalyst for innovation, in particular supporting innovative approaches to job creation, and investment in activities which contribute to enhanced and sustainable job creation in SA (The Jobs Fund, 2012:3). This makes the JF programme distinct from existing development financial instruments given that it seeks to promote innovation to implement activities which have a high social impact (The Jobs Fund, 2012:4).

The JF programme is rooted in innovation which could be observed in three distinct areas. First, the programme itself is an SI given that it is implemented in a hybridity approach. The collaboration strategy used is intended to combine resources, draw competencies from each other and build capacities, thus effectively addressing the most pressing societal challenges especially unemployment and food insecurity. Regarding resources, both DALRRD and GTAC contribute financial and human resources. In terms of the financial resource, which is the prime motive of this partnership, each party contributes R300, 000, 000.00 as detailed in the Grant Agreement (The Jobs Fund, 2019:3).

Secondly, the blended finance model entrenched in this project is an SI initiative. Considering that the government financial resources are declining (DALRRD, 2022a:v; O'Byrne *et al.*, 2014:54), the blended finance wherein the support provided is based on 50% grant and 50% loan becomes fundamental for short-term and long-term sustenance of public service delivery. The revolving funds could be utilised to expand and replicate support as well as to scale up SI. Lastly, collaboration with other sector stakeholders is key element of innovation. On the contrary, collaboration sparks innovation given that different actors bring unique set of knowledge, experiences, and skills to the table (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:4; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2; Vopni, 2020:5; Yan *et al.*, 2018:13). Operating through collaborative approach and learning from each other stimulates and gives birth to innovative ideas (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3) through blended unique viewpoints.

As widely acknowledged by various scholars, combining diverse resources and expertise and drawing the core competencies of various actors, collaboration stimulates innovation (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Ihenacho, 2018:16; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:2) given the enhanced competencies and capacities as opposed to individual work. All the above discussed elements show the SI is used in the DALRRD project implementation and are equally important for the success of SI initiatives. However, more attention is required in the area of participation. Having evaluated the use of SI attributes in the JF programme by the DALRRD, Section 4.2.2 provides an evaluation of how CSP induces SI use for improved socio-economic public sector service delivery programmes by DALRRD.

4.4 CSPS STIMULATION OF SI FOR IMPROVED PUBLIC SECTOR SERVICE DELIVERY PROGRAMMES BY DALRRD

This section first evaluates CSPs' stimulation of SI for improved public sector service delivery by DALRRD (Section 4.4.1). This is followed by a discussion of challenges hindering the use of SI in CSPs by DALRRD (Section 4.4.2).

4.4.1 CSPs' stimulation of SI for improved public sector programme delivery by DALRRD

Figure 4.3 summarises the process on how CSP stimulates SI use for improving public sector service delivery programmes by DALRRD. Against the background of Figure 4.3, this section discusses DALRRD's mandate, service delivery strategy, and SI stimulation.

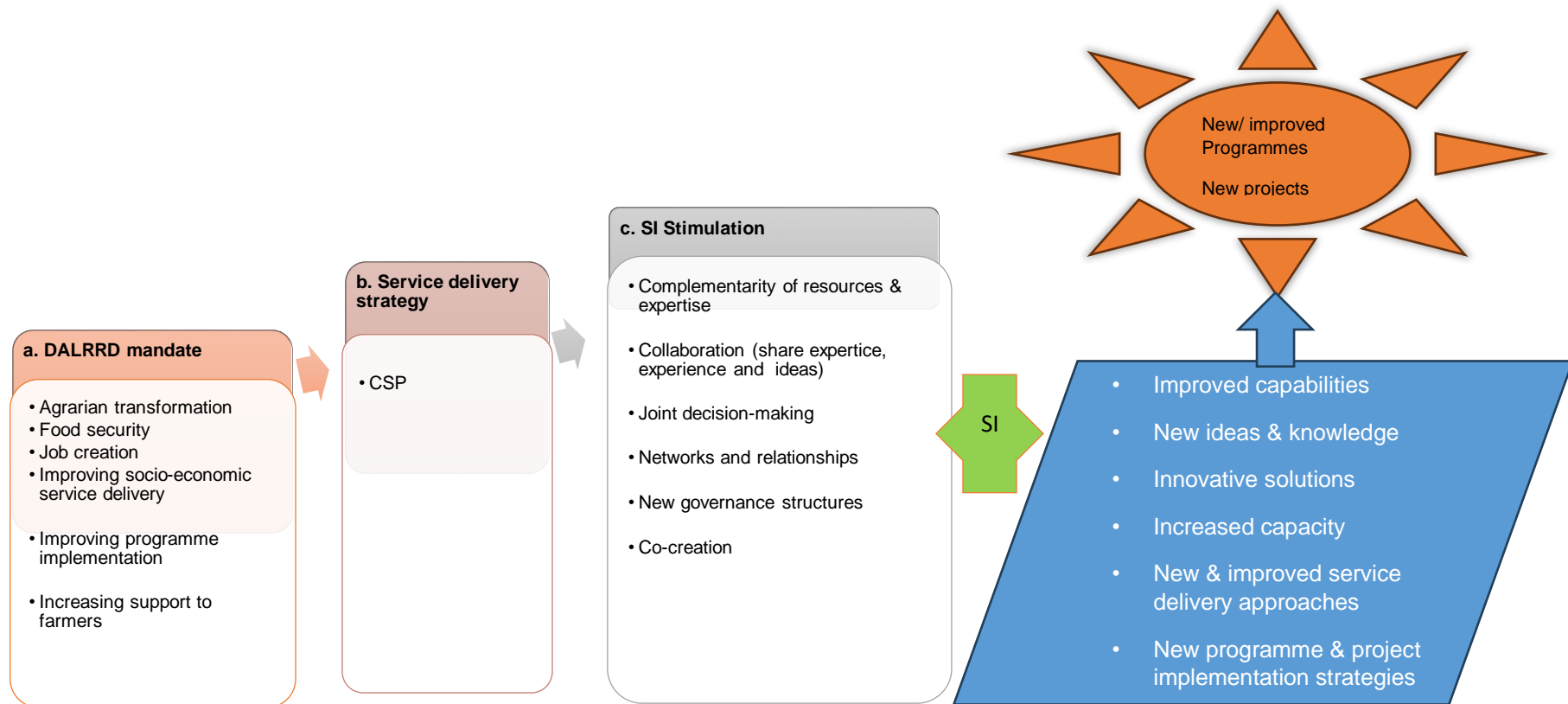


Figure 4.3: Evaluation of CSPs stimulating the use of SI by DALRRD

a. DALRRD's mandate

The use of CSP as DALRRD's socio-economic service delivery strategy, emanates from its mandate and strategic objectives. The mandate of DALRRD is to ensure vibrant land and agrarian reform programme that ensures food security, sustainable livelihoods, innovative agriculture sector, employment creation and stimulate economic development as entrenched in sections 24 (b) (iii), 27 (1) (b) and 25 of the RSA constitution 1996 (DALRRD, 2020c:13). Its strategic objective is to ensure sustainable agricultural and rural development through different service delivery strategies (DALRRD, 2020c:22). Service delivery approaches are implemented through the implementation of policies, programmes, and projects implementation.

However, like any other public sector organisation, the incapacities and adverse financial situations faced by the DALRRD (DAFF, 2011:18; DAFF, 2013b:2) renders implementation of such programmes a difficult sail to ride. Hence, the recognition of collaboration as an important tool to join efforts and collectively pursue common goals. It is important for organisations to unite to pursue common policy goal and adopt an inclusive approach to plan, design and implement mutually beneficial interventions (The Jobs Fund, 2023:1). Through this approach, government capacity would be built and, as such, public sector organisations would be capable of initiating different approaches to public sector service delivery (GTAC, 2023:8).

b. Service delivery approach

Given its limited capacities DAFF (2013b:2), DALRRD implements its socio-economic service delivery through partnerships, including CSPs. For instance, its CSP with GTAC for the implementation of JF programme. This is a CSP because DALRRD and GTAC belong to different economic sectors. DALRRD as an agriculture sector is mandated to facilitate agriculture, land and rural development programmes that would guarantee food security, increased employment opportunities and agrarian transformation (DALRRD, 2020c:13). GTAC as a government financial entity intends to co-finance projects by public, private and non-governmental organisations that would significantly contribute to job creation and economic growth and make socio-economic impact (The Jobs Fund, 2018:3). The two organisations partnered, realising their common goals pertaining to socio-economic issues and the incapacities of each sector to effectively achieve such goals.

This solidifies the recognition that socio economic challenges are cross cutting and beyond a single sector's capacity to address (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012:727; Yan *et al.*, 2018:1). Hence a need for collaborative actions given their ability to trigger innovation. For case in point, collaborations increasingly used in the agriculture sector to leverage public funds, improve efficiency, and cope with the demand. The appealing factor is that governments have put in place a policy and regulatory environment to facilitate the development of CSPs for innovation, including financing tools and

mechanisms (Moreddu, 2016:2), making it easy for public sector organisations such as DALRRD to explore.

c. SI stimulation

In nature, CSPs are designed to involve more actors in service delivery cycle (Peters, 2010:41) which stimulates and creates favorable environment for SI to emerge (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52; Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:3; UNDP, 2014:29). Like CSP, SI is cross-sectoral in nature, wherein public sector is no longer expected to deliver service alone (Nasir & Subarib, 2017:14). SI advocates collaboration, networks, and relationships between and across actors, sectors, and disciplines (Perello, 2020:8; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:5), meaning that CSP itself is an SI strategy as it promotes collaboration among different sectors of society. From the SI perspective, collaboration is necessary as it brings together different organisations, policy makers, and stakeholders to leverage capabilities and identify new possibilities and implementation strategies to address the ever-changing needs and mutating challenges faced by societies (Mulgan, 2007:38). Importantly, collaboration is considered a mechanism for stimulating, developing, and sustaining SI (Bevilacqua *et al.*, 2019:23; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:9).

Given that the process of collaboration fosters mobilisation of resources, cross fertilisation of existing and new ideas, co-creation, sharing of know-how and exchange learning (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:9; Merigglioli & Nardi, 2018:7; Mulgan, 2007:4; OECD, 2014:34). DALRRD cross partners with other organisations i.e., public, social and business sectors to take advantage of collaboration opportunities to build its capacity, thus finding novel ways to respond to the sector's needs and challenges. Through such CSPs, DALRRD co-create (co-plan, co-design, co-implement, and co-M&E) its service delivery to encourage practices that promotes participation, which is at the heart of SI. The process of SI underpins co-creation, which is fundamental to public service delivery due to their effectiveness in addressing multifaceted needs and challenges facing societies (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:643).

Co-creation, the sharing of ideas and experiences, leveraging of resources and cross-pollination good practices through CSPs play a crucial role in finding innovative solutions to problems (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:52; European Commission, 2013:15). Finding innovative solutions requires pooling of different skills, expertise, assets and resources especially funding which is necessary for SI development and scaling-up (Moreddu, 2016:26). This is due to a recognition that mobilisation of resources, i.e., human, financial and other resources is fundamental to the implementation of programmes (FAO, 2013:17). Similarly, resource mobilisation is critical for implementation of DALRRD programmes. Achieving critical mass of resources is the SI and CSP success and sustainability factor (Moreddu, 2016:26). It helps create greater opportunity for innovative approaches to emerge while increasing the reach and scope for implementation (Mcquaid, 2010:131; OECD, 2014:34).

In summary, through the DALRRD CSPs, SI is stimulated by processes such as collaborations, networks and relationships, new governance structures, participation, co-creation, leveraging of resources and capabilities. These processes are key to delivering, scaling -up, diffusing, and sustaining SI (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:5; Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45) as well as to the success of SI initiative (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:3; UNDP, 2014:29). The latter when SI is successful, DALRRD benefits from the consequences. A reference could be made that joint actions through CSP increase capacity and improve capabilities within public service delivery systems (Osborne *et al.*, 2015:647). Improved capabilities would induce innovative ideas, solutions and service delivery approaches, thus improving the design and delivery of public services as could be witnessed through the implementation of programmes and projects.

Ultimately, the outcomes of successful SI initiatives are improved government effectiveness and efficiency, better use of scarce resource, improved services and products, satisfaction of societal needs, social and economic value, empowerment of actors involved, sustainability and scalability of solutions to the societal needs and challenges (Biljohn, 2018:38; Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:9; Cruz & Paulino, 2020:64; Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; Terstriep & Rehfeld, 2020:854; Weerakkody *et al.*, 2014:5). In turn, this benefits the public sector and society at large. Although the use of SI promises positive benefits in public sector service delivery, its use through CSP does not go without challenges. Section 4.2.2 thus discusses challenges hindering the use of SI in CSPs by DALRRD.

4.4.2 Challenges hindering the use of SI in CSPs by DALRRD

Notwithstanding the commendable progress made through the JF programme thus far, it does not go without challenges. Despite the benefits of SI in public sector, in practice, the implementation of SI encounters many barriers and challenges (Mohammad, Fahime, & Mahdi, 2023:57). Like any other the JF as a public sector CSPs initiative, faces numerous challenges to implementing SI. Hartley *et al.* (2013:823) observed that although there are plentiful CSPs barriers to using SI, the barriers are mostly centred on legislated and bureaucratic organisational form, and limited resources and capacity. The challenges identified in the case of JF programme are discussed below.

(i) Differing culture, processes, and institutional arrangements

Actors or individual organisations that enter a CSP, are from diverse cultures, environment, and institutional arrangements (Ihenacho, 2018:38; van Tulder & Keen, 2018: 315). Moreover, these actors are generally subjected to different rules, values, and principles, which makes the management of CSP complex and challenging (Clarke & Crane, 2018:303; van Tulder & Keen, 2018: 315). As highlighted by the European Commission (2013:16), differing cultures, practices, processes and institutional

arrangements hamper effective co-ordination of activities, projects and programmes. This is also the case with the JF programme. Although the JF programme is a public-public partnership wherein the two parties are both public organisations, each partner is rooted in a particular different culture, processes, and procedures as well as decision making processes. In the public sector, the decision making is done in accordance with the requirements of the organisational structure and processes. For partnership projects or initiatives, decisions must be made by the Accounting Officer such as Director General or Head of Department. This usually constitutes a lengthy process of getting approval from the Accounting Officer by project implementing team. In turn, this process may lead to delays in turnaround times of the project activities.

Considering that projects, especially SI initiatives are time framed (Bolzan, Bitencourt, & Martins, 2019:218), such delays also affect smooths CSPs operations and the completion of the projects. These are some of the factors that cause delays in implementing project activities within the set timeframe. The latter, these stringent processes and institutional arrangements compromise the use of SI because all parties must abide by their respective organisational processes. SI demand actors to implement new and improved institutional arrangements and processes as well as cultural changes to help organisations to effectively achieve the desired goals and bring about solutions to the societal needs (Bitencourt, Marconatto, Barin Cruz, & Raufflet, 2016:14). However, as observed by Mulgan (2007:37), public policy environment has been rarely explicit in encouraging and supporting SI, instead is more conducive for technological innovation.

(ii) **Stringent policies and regulations**

Public sector administration is governed by rules and regulations (Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:7; Matibane, 2010:32; Raidimi & Kabit, 2017:58). Like any other public sector organisation, the agriculture industry in South Africa is driven by various policies including the National Development Plan, National Food and Nutrition Security Plan and National Policy on Comprehensive Producer Development Support (Land Bank, 2021a:73). Given that the JF programme is a government initiative, adherence to the applicable public sector regulations is unavoidable. Notwithstanding the importance of strict adherence to such rules, policies and frameworks, the bureaucratic and inflexible nature of public sector governance inhibits innovation (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:824) and smooth implementation of partnership activities (CLES, 2011:8; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:10; OECD, 2014:22). Although the existence of these regulations is deemed important to regulate provision of services and ensure accountability (CLES, 2011:8), they have disadvantages that may compromise the successful implementation of programmes and projects.

In the JF programme, the provision of support to farmers is capped at R16 million (DALRRD, 2022c:7). Despite how potentially viable the application demonstrates, all funding requests exceeding the set cap

are reduced accordingly. The funding amount should be within the cap despite the negative impact that the incomprehensive funding may have towards achieving the anticipated outcomes and the sustainability of the project. In this regard the policy provisions make the project implementation inflexible to assess and fund individual projects on their merits. As part of the financial assessment, the project adopted the credit policy of the IA, which is too stringent and not developmental to achieve the objectives earmarked JF programme. Although this credit policy was revised to cater for the developmental aspect, there were areas of non-compromise as per the lending policy requirements. In addition, the criteria used by CCC is too commercial for developmental projects like JF, which thrown many potential applications out of the window as they would not comply with the funding conditions in line with the policy. This shows that while public sector policies, administrative laws and procedures are necessary to maintain standards and ensure an accountable system (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:824), their inflexibility do not encourage the use of SI in CSPs (Grudinski *et al.*, 2013:7; European Commission, 2013:17) and hinder effective co-ordination of activities and programmes (European Commission, 2013:16). The latter impede the CSPs from achieving its expected outcomes.

(iii) Power imbalances

Power imbalances between partners constitute a common problem in CSPs, thus preventing SI from emerging. In most cases, power imbalance is observed on financial aspect wherein the party that makes a greater contribution in the partnership have more decision-making power than the other (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:19; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:11). Given that the DALRRD made an application of funding partnership to the GTAC, automatically this renders the GTAC to have more power over the DALRRD. Although both parties, the DALRRD and GTAC contribute equal amounts, the GTAC is regarded as the funder not just a mere partner (The Jobs Fund, 2019:2), thus withholding more decision-making power over the DALRRD. In CSPs partners should be equally powerful (Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:11) especially if they are contributing resources equally to avoid the risks associated with power imbalance. Generally, power imbalance may lead to conflict, poor relationships, partnerships not achieving its objectives, and increased rate of unsuccessful partnership (Public Sector Research Centre, 2007:47). Most negatively, leading to CSPs that cannot induce SI because the actors within the CSP play a critical role of developing, driving, diffusing, and sustaining SI initiatives (Howaldt & Schröder, 2017:4; Sandu & Anghel, 2016:57; van Niekerk *et al.*, 2021:20; Vasin *et al.*, 2017:34) as they play a critical role in developing and diffusing SI initiatives. In other words, SI sustainability is highly dependent on these actors (Rehfeld, *et al.*, 2017:84).

(iv) Insufficient capacity

Lack or insufficient capacity is observed to be a key obstacle to many organisations to using SI in CSPs (Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6; Rao-Nicholson *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3). Flip side of the coin, CSPs are often constrained by a lack of resources and capacity (Cairns & Harris, 2010:9;

Hamann & Boulogne, 2007:2; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). Lack of capacity and lack of resources particularly finance and human resources constrains implementation of CSPs (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:18; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6), leading poor CSPs that could not trigger SI. The success of CSP depends on the availability of resources (Danish Red Cross, 2016:23; Gazley, 2017:3).

As with the case of DALRRD, the findings of the JF evaluation report which is based on both desktop information and stakeholder consultation, identified “lack of capacity” especially to execute multiple applications within a specified timeframe, as the major challenge impeding effective implementation of the project (Land Bank, 2021a:79). The under-capacity challenge could be observed from both project partners, stakeholders, PDA’s and IA as well as from the service providers. The critical area on the equation being the limited capacity of the IA in terms of the human resource which led to prolonged FDD processes, and in turn led to delays in approvals and disbursement to farmers (Land Bank, 2021a:79). This concretises the consensus that public sector organisations have insufficient capacity, especially relating to sufficient, appropriately skilled and relevant human capital (European Commission, 2013:16) to effectively manage projects. Inadequate capacity limit development and application of innovative approaches and means to deal with issues. Moreover, lack of capacity may negatively affect diffusion and scaling-up of innovation (European Commission, 2013:16). Hence, it is important to analyse the capacity, especially the human resource structure of the strategic partners involved to execute the activities of the project. Again, before the commencement of the project, there should be a clear action plan for dealing with under capacitation.

(v) Poor and inefficient coordination

Within the JF programme implementation, elements of poor and inefficient coordination could be observed (Land Bank, 2021a:78). Poor coordination is marked as one of the key obstacles to successful partnerships (Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:56; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:24). This obstacle is usually attributed to various factors including the organisational culture and practices, structure, processes, and institutional arrangements hinder effective co-ordination of activities and programmes (European Commission, 2013:16; McQuaid, 2000:21). Wenner (2007:1) link poor or inefficient coordination to weak or unclear institutional arrangements, differing expectations, and inefficiencies.

In the case of JF programme, inefficient coordination may be because of lack of clear decision making and communication strategy among the partners and the IA. Although the parties involved in the project understand their roles and responsibilities, and the goals to be reached, lack of communication strategy remains a biggest barrier to the implementation of the JF programme. As revealed by the evaluation report, no adequate or formal protocols for communication or escalation of issues pertaining to the project, thus resulting in the issues raised reported are often unattended or not satisfactorily addressed

or late attendance of issues (Land Bank, 2021a:78). The way the parties interact with each other and the lack of understanding of the communication channels and protocols. The lack of procedure on how the DALRRD and the IA are supposed to work and communicate with each other, is regarded as the main impediments to successful coordination (Land Bank, 2021a:76). In turn, unsuccessful coordination may result in poor implementation of government programmes, and ineffective and non- viable interventions (DAFF, 2018:6), thus defeating the purpose of SI. Proper coordination is necessary for development and implementation of SI to achieve effective, efficient, successful and sustainable CSPs.

(vi) Limited skills and expertise

The majority of project JF team members, particularly the ones responsible for daily facilitation of project activities have not been capacitated on CSPs project management. Limited or inappropriate skills and expertise remains an inhibiting factor in the successful implementation of CSPs (Business Enterprise, 2015:66). Lack of people with relevant expertise and knowledge is the biggest barrier to successful SI especially in tackling social innovation tackling socio-economic service delivery issues (SI Drive, 2017:6). For a CSP to effectively achieve its intended goals and to induce SI, skilled and appropriate technocrats is necessary to drive such CSPs. In the absence of appropriate skills, CSP initiatives may be prone to failure (DAFF, 2012:54) and compromised socio-economic service delivery. Important skills required for managing CSP initiatives includes among others collaboration, adaptive, conceptualisation and cross-cultural competency to effectively manage relationships with stakeholders, to work with different environment and cultures, thus find new solutions to solve problems (Dickinson & Sullivan, 2014:3; Mau, 2015:9 as cited by ASSADPAM, 2018:54). The majority of DALRRD JF programme team members, particularly the ones responsible for daily facilitation of project activities have not been capacitated on managing CSPs projects and other initiative. Furthermore, a vast number of employees and stakeholders did not participate in the initial design stages of the project, and they only joined at a later stage with no proper onboarding process. For instance, the PMO personnel joined one-year six months later, that is, in the middle of 2nd year of project implementation (Land Bank, 2021a:79).

All these challenges as discussed makes it difficult for CSPs to flourish and stimulate SI. In particular, because of the bureaucratic nature of the public sector, implementation of SI faces many challenges (Hartley *et al.*, 2013:824; Mohammad *et al.*, 2023:56). Since SI is concerned with improving the approaches to implementation and evaluating outputs, stringent policy environment creates unfertile soil for SI to emerge (Mohammad *et al.*, 2023:58). This means policies and administrative processes as well as governance should be reviewed to make them more effective and adaptable in response to new societal challenges or needs.

(v) Slow Project Implementation

The implementation of the project has been relatively slow to the expected deliverables (DALRRD, nd:2). The delays are mostly centred on the origination of the project pipeline, particularly finalisation of the FDD process and low approval rate (DALRRD, nd:2; Land Bank, 2021a:76). Stringent risk management processes and credit granting requirements proved to be one of the major deterrents towards approval of applications (DALRRD, 2022b:3). Delayed appointment of appointment of service providers also contributed to delayed implementation. For instance, the PMO which is the core of project implementation was appointed 1 year six months later while Audit and M&E service providers were appointed one year four months later (Land Bank, 2021b:1).

Despite the remedial plan developed to expedite the implementation of the project activities, the project continues to experience delays especially on finalising the FDD (DALRRD, nd:2). This could be linked to the Implementing Agent's limited capacity, turnaround time of applicants to submit required documents, lengthy turnaround times, applicants taking long to meet condition precedent after applications ratification, and delays in contracting and disbursement e.g. ratified projects are disbursed between six months to a year later after ratification (DALRRD, 2022b:36).

Another aspect which observed to have contributed to non-achievement of project deliverables as per ABC PIMP is the duration of three years for project implementation proved to be insufficient time to execute all expected activities of the project (DALRRD, 2022b:3) especially considering the nature and complexity of agriculture sector. This was further exacerbated by the effects of COVID-19, including the various lockdowns that were imposed, and this occurred at a time when the project was projected to be at a peak of the implementation period (DALRRD, 2022b:3).

4.5 STRATEGY FOR DALRRD TO USE SOCIAL INNOVATION IN CSPs IN IMPROVING PROGRAMME DELIVERY

Following Section 4.4, which discussed the case of DALRRD's Jobs Fund Programme, inclusive of evaluating the use of SI in CSPs, Section 4.5 presents a strategy for the DALRRD to use SI in CSPs in improving programme delivery. The strategy is summarised in Figure 12, which illustrates the proposed process considered fundamental for SI's use in CSP. The process starts with DALRRD having to identify the common goal to be achieved, enter into CSP, leverage resources to improve capacity, apply SI attributes and end by monitoring and evaluation. Most important, the attributes of SI should be fostered in CSPs. Based on this, it is proposed that the SI attributes be embedded in the DALRRD's governance and institutional arrangements.

The attributes of SI as reflected in Section 4.3 should be incorporated in the DALRRD's operations to promote SI use in CSP programmes. This means that the attributes of using cross-sector partnerships

for service delivery, leveraging of resources, pursuing a common goal, using collaboration, participation, and co-creation as well as the use of innovation should be integral part of the CSP. Including SI attributes in the governance and institutional arrangement would create a fruitful environment for SI to emerge and become an everyday practice in CSP. As part of the institutional arrangement, DALRRD needs to establish an office to specifically to deal with partnership programmes and projects. The office may be termed “Strategic Partnership Management Office”. This office should be capacitated to effectively execute CSPs initiatives and promote the practice of social innovation. Moreover, DALRRD should develop a framework specifically for partnership management. SI practices should be embedded in such a framework to cultivate the culture of SI use in CSPs. This would make a flexible environment for SI use. It is against this discussion that Figure 4.4 presents the strategy for SI use in cross-sector partnerships of DALRRD.

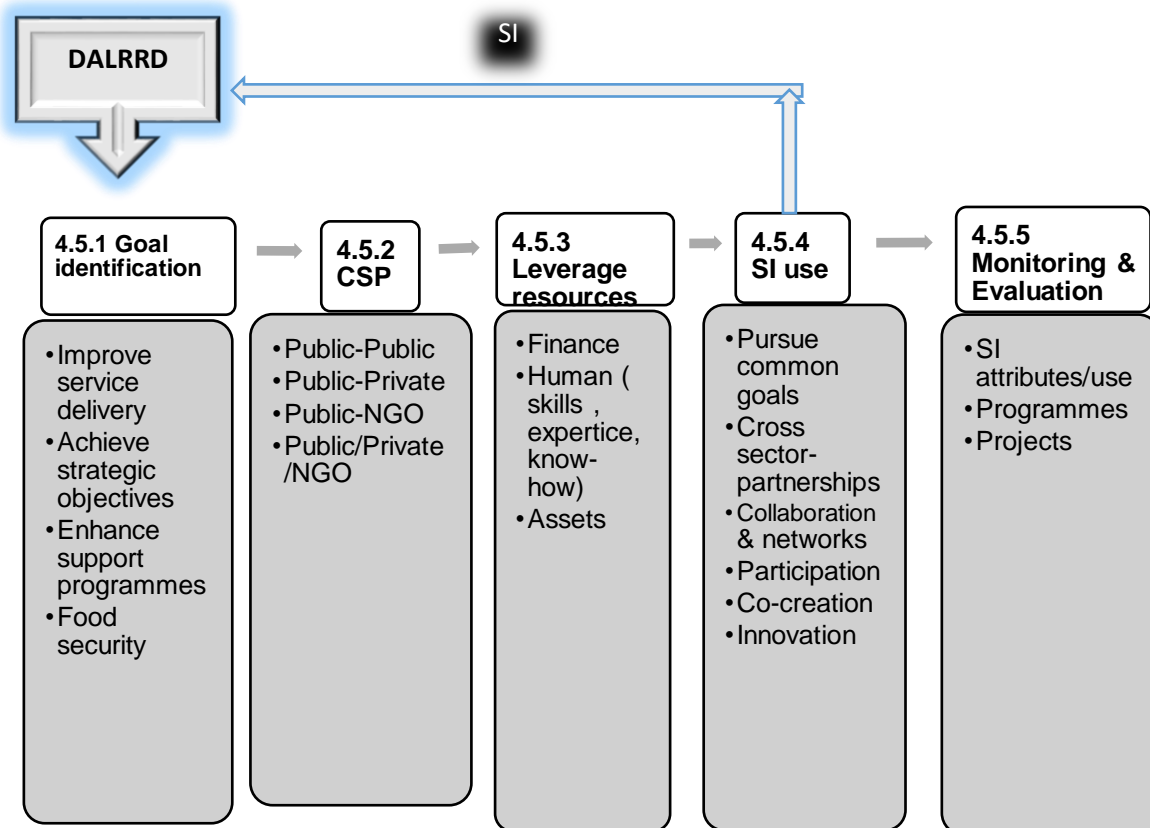


Figure 4.4: Strategy for using SI in CSPs

4.5.1 Goal identification

Identifying a goal is the first step of the strategy. Every organisation engaging in partnership seeks to achieve a specific goal. Likewise, DALRRD should first identify a goal that needs to be achieved using CSP. There are various service delivery goals that DALRRD as one of the government departments has

to pursue. These encompass ensuring accelerated land reform, improved agricultural production and sustainable rural development to stimulate economic development and safeguard food security in the country. Alone, DALRRD may find it steep to effectively attain such. Thus, the use of CSP is no longer an option. Therefore, those complex and multisectoral goals or challenges should be identified and be prioritised for pursuing through CSP.

As in line with its mandate, the common goals that DALRRD seek to pursue are generally centred on achieving a mission or strategic objectives (i.e. food security, job creation, delivery of agriculture support programmes, and socio-economic development), improving or provision of effective and efficient service delivery, responding to a specific societal need or challenge, each CSP initiative should have a specific intended goal. Thus, for every CSP use, DALRRD should have a specific goal/ or goals. It is necessary to identify and connect CSP to a specific goal to avoid scattered and unclear objectives that may lead to confusion and hinder the effectiveness of CSP. Having specific goals would help to develop indicators, measure performance and assess impact to determine if the CSP has achieved its intended outcomes.

4.5.2 Cross sector partnership

Having identified a goal, the second step is to embark on CSPs. DALRRD could utilise various types of CSPs i.e., between Public- Public or Public- Public Private or Public- NGO or simultaneously between all these three sectors. Depending on the type of CSP, each partnership would have its own particular arrangements. However, for any type of CSPs it should be ensured that the pre-conditions for CSP as discussed in Section 3.2.3 should be applied for a successful CSP. Such pre-conditions include (i) assessing the strengths and capabilities of the potential partner and determine the opportunity for complementarity and value addition (ii) being open and transparent about the motivation, (iii) building trust and relationship, (iv) alignment of priorities and goals, (v) entering into a formal agreement, (vi) establishment of partnership governance structure, and (vii) setting clear roles and responsibilities. Worth highlighting, entering into a formal agreement is crucial as it would foster shared goals, and guide the partnership arrangement and programme delivery strategy. Moreover, it stipulates partnership requirements and most importantly outlining roles and responsibilities, thus cultivating commitment and ownership. Thus, the absence of a formal agreement may hamper the smooth delivery of CSP.

4.5.3 Leveraging of resources and capacities

The third step is to leverage resources through CSPs. Leveraging of resources and capacities should be the key objective of DALRRD use of CSP. Therefore, DALRRD should from the onset assess the diversity of resources such as financial, assets, and human in terms of capacity, skills, expertise, and abilities to establish if they add complementary value towards achieving the desired goal. Relevant and sufficient resources, particularly financial and human resources, are necessary to implement and

sustaining SI. Without people and funding as well as other critical assets, the chances for SI to thrive are limited. Again, without resources, it would be difficult for DALRRD to partner with other organisations given that organisations mostly partner to leverage resources, especially funding.

Availability of resources is crucial for both CSP existence and implementing SI strategies. In terms of human resources, there should be specific personnel appointed or seconded to implement partnership programmes. In terms of availing financial resources, CSPs should be budgeted for wherein every financial year funds are set aside for implementing partnership programmes. This would plant a culture in which partnerships and the use of SI become a key mechanism for DALRRD to deliver its services. In this way DALRRD's capacity would be augmented, thus enabling effective achievement of the desired outcomes and reaching-far. In addition, availability of resources would create a conducive environment for DALRRD to easily grasp partnership opportunities as they come through beside the initiated ones. The more partnership opportunities, the more the SI opportunities would arise.

4.5.4 SI use in CSP

The fourth step is where the SI should be applied. The attributes of SI as reflected in Section 4.3.4 in Figure 12 (common goal, CSPs, collaboration, participation, co-creation, and innovation) should be integrated in the institutional arrangement of DALRRD and CSPs. The first attribute of having a common goal as narrated in Section 4.3.1 constitutes the main aim of SI use. This entails that for every SI initiative, there should be a specific goal to be achieved. This is where DALRRD together with its partners pursue common goals through CSP. Such CSPs could be between DALRRD and another public sector organisation, between DALRRD and a private sector or between DALRRD and NGO or social sector organisation. The process of CSP promotes collaboration, networks and new relationships and structures.

Through the second attribute of collaborations, professional networks, and relationships, whether formal and informal, serve as the most important factors to the success of SI initiatives. These factors are crucial for initiating, developing, implementing, diffusing, sustaining and scaling-up SI. Because collaborations and networks connect diverse actors, effective platforms for information exchange and learning and integrating new and existing ideas to service delivery design could be promoted. Moreover, the process of collaboration fosters mobilisation of resources, cross fertilisation of ideas, participation, and co-creation, which build capacity within the CSP, thus stimulating emergence of innovative approaches to programme delivery. Through collaborations, DALRRD and its partners, and their stakeholders contribute different types of support ranging from idea development to implementation, thus building the capacity and strengths of DALRRD and stimulating SI. Therefore, in addition to the formal CSP, it is important that DALRRD collaborate with other stakeholders such as SOEs,

commodity organisations, civil society organisations, research institutions, universities and other social sectors when initiating and implementing CSP service delivery programmes.

The involvement of these diverse stakeholders plays a huge role in the development and shaping of SI. Their involvement could enable DALRRD to tap into diverse expertise and capabilities, thus maximising the opportunities for SI to occur. This could also lead to the DALRRD being less constrained and becoming effective and efficient in addressing service delivery issues than when operating separately. Moreover, collaboration is necessary given that although DALRRD may be the lead SI initiator, other stakeholders could diffuse and scale-up it up. Thus, the emergence, success and sustainability of SI rest in the existence of these actors. Depending on what the CSP seeks to achieve, relevant stakeholders should be identified to drive the SI. Stakeholder collaboration is key to promoting participation.

For the attribute of participation, the key to stakeholder participation in CSP is the Provincial Departments of Agriculture, agriculture sector SOEs, commodity organisations civil society organisations in the design and delivery of services. In particular, the Provincial Department of Agriculture serves as the entry point for agriculture sector service delivery. These stakeholders play a huge role in shaping policy and service delivery as well advocating for change. Participation would stimulate cross-fertilisation of best practices, thus building capabilities of the CSP. As such the critical role played by participation should be recognised. It then renders it important to strengthen relationships with stakeholders and civil society, thus opening a platform for collecting, sharing and exchange of information that could meaningfully contribute to improving programme delivery and success. Most importantly, involving civil society organisations could cultivate a sense of taking ownership of SI initiatives and lead to empowerment of society to better cope with their challenges.

Another important attribute of SI which is critical for use in CSPs, is co-creation. It is therefore critical that co-creation is embedded in the entire CSPs programme delivery cycle. This implies co-planning, co-design, co-implementation and co-monitoring and evaluation. The process of co-creation of services occurs because of collaboration coupled with increased participation. This process is fundamental to the success and sustainability of SI. It encourages collaboration, participation, sharing of information, resources and innovative practices while fostering responsibility, accountability, and ownership in service delivery.

Furthermore, collaboration, participation and co-creation processes would unlock another key attribute of SI, thus "innovation". The hybridity of ideas, skills, and expertise would trigger new and creative strategies in implementing CSP programmes. Therefore, DALRRD CSPs should promote innovative practices, especially recognising that the delivery model of different programmes and projects cannot

be the same given that each programme seeks to achieve a specific or unique goal. Moreover, the challenges and needs faced by the public sector and society are complex and ever-changing, requiring different or unique approaches. Hence, innovation is at the heart of SI. This means applying a blanket approach to programme delivery is not ideal because what worked well delivering a particular programme might not work well in delivering the other. Depending on the goal to be achieved, each programme or project should have its implementation model to avoid a blanket approach. It is advisable to explore new delivery mechanisms such as new projects, new service delivery design and delivery approaches. However, where other SI strategies have been proved to be effective, can be built onto, be replicated, or adjusted or amended to accommodate the requirements of a new programme or project.

4.5.5 Monitoring and evaluation

The strategy ends with the monitoring and evaluation as the last step. Monitoring and evaluation of the SI initiatives both during and after programme or project implementation is crucial to learning and promoting continuous improvement. This would help the DALRRD to assess its use of SI, determine if the attributes of SI were used, and if used to what extent. It would also help determine if the use of SI lacked in CSP programme or project implementation. In case the SI attributes lacked, monitoring and evaluation would allow the DALRRD to revisit and accordingly integrate them. Moreover, there should be regular monitoring in programme implementation to track the performance against the set targets and milestones. This could help identify the variations and challenges, and accordingly adjust and implement remedial strategies or control measures. Moreover, it serves as a room for learning and improvement in the implementation process to ensure that SI initiatives achieve its objectives. Before and after implementation, evaluation should be conducted to measure the situation before and impact after to determine if the desired outcomes have been achieved. If the desired goals have been achieved, then the SI can be scaled-up or replicated. If the goals were not achieved, the causal factors should be identified from the lesson learned to allow improvement in future initiatives. Having discussed monitoring and evaluation as the last part of the SI strategy, the next section (4.6) offers the conclusion to the chapter.

4.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 provided evaluation on the use of CSP and SI as a strategy for public sector programme delivery in the DALRRD using the case of JF programme. The chapter commenced with introduction to the chapter on Section 4.1. This was followed by Section 4.2 which presented the case of DALRRD regarding the CSP arrangement for the Jobs Fund programme. This section outlined the background of the JF programme which reflected aspects such as (a) partnership agreement, (b) implementation strategy, (c) governance structure, and (e) project process flow. Subsequently, Section 4.3 evaluated the use of SI in cross sector partnership for the implementation of Jobs Fund programme by DALRRD. In relation to this section, eight SI attributes were identified and discussed, thus cross sector, partnership,

achieving common goal, collaboration, relationships and networks, participation, co-creation, innovation.

Section 4.4 evaluated on how CSPs stimulate the use of SI for improved public sector service delivery programmes by DALRRD. This section started by discussing CSPs' stimulation of SI for improved public sector service delivery by DALRRD in Section 4.4.1, of which the findings revealed that SI is stimulated by various and connected processes such as partnerships, collaborations, networks and relationships, new governance structures, participation, co-creation in the delivery of public sector services (Chomane & Biljohn, 2021:5; Cukier & Jackson, 2018:227; Dhondt *et al.*, 2017:45). According to Howaldt and Schröder (2017:3), these processes as such are key to the success of SI. The section then ended by discussing the challenges hindering the use of SI in CSPs by DALRRD in Section 4.4.2. These challenges are attributed to (i) differing culture, processes and institutional arrangements, (ii) stringent policies and regulations, (iii) power imbalance, (iv) insufficient capacity, (v) poor and inefficient coordination, (vi) limited skills and expertise, and (vii) slow project implementation. Insufficient capacity constitutes a major challenge hampering effective implementation of the programme (Land Bank, 2021a:79). Lack of capacity is observed to be a key obstacle to many organisations implementing CSPs (Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6; Rao-Nicholson *et al.*, 2017 cited by Arslan *et al.*, 2020:3).

As observed, generally public sector organisations are usually marked by having insufficient capacity both in terms of human and finance resources and relevant expertise (European Commission, 2013:16; Land Bank, 2021a:79). The consequence of lack of capacity in CSPs could lead to unconducive environment for SI use (Dempsey *et al.*, 2016:18; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:3; Oregon Health Authority, 2017:6). Poor coordination is regarded as another key impediment to the success of CSP initiatives (Land Bank, 2021a:76), which in turn, may result in poor implementation of government programmes and projects, and ineffective interventions (DAFF, 2018:6). This is worsened by stringent policy environment coupled with the nature of public sector, which is bureaucratic and inflexible, inhibiting smooth implementation of innovative strategies such as CSP and SIs (CLES, 2011:8; Grudinschi *et al.*, 2013:10; Hartley *et al.*, 2013:824). All these challenges make the implementation of CSP and SI use difficult. Subsequent to discussing the challenges hindering SI use, the chapter proceeded with Section 4.5 which presented a strategy to use social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery. The strategy identified 5 steps, thus 5.4.1 identification of a goal, 5.4.2 entering into CSP, 5.4.3 leveraging of resources, 4.5.4 SI use in CSP and 4.5.5 monitoring and evaluation. Accordingly, the chapter ended with Section 4.6, which offered the conclusion.

In comprehensively concluding Chapter 4, the findings indicate CSP as an important mechanism to deliver socio-economic public sector service delivery effectively and efficiently (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3;

GGLN 2017:12; Network for Business Sustainability, 2013:5). Given the limited capacities and resources in the public sector, CSPs have become a resort for DALRRD to build its capabilities through leveraging of resources, capacities and expertise and thus trigger the search to finding innovative and sustainable solution to the most pressing societal challenges (Arslan *et al.*, 2020:21; DALRRD, 2022a:v; NASCA, 2017:3; Vopni, 2020:5). In nature, CSP fosters collaborations, mobilisation of resources, leveraging capabilities and co-creation in design and delivery of services, thus inducing SI use (Campomoria & Casula, 2022:9; Meriggioli & Nardi, 2018:7; OECD, 2014:34). CSP has proven to create fertile environment for SI to emerge (Barth *et al.*, 2018:3; Pittz & Intindola, 2021:4; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). On the flip side, for an SI to thrive, there is a need for CSPs to develop, scale-up and sustain SI. CSP and its powerfulness to stimulate SI is deemed beneficial for the DALRRD to implement its programmes aimed at addressing socio-economic challenges, thus effectively delivering its mandate (DALRRD, 2020c:52; Ridwan & Bokosi, 2020:25). Next, Chapter 5 provides the conclusion to the study.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUDING CHAPTER

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the study, and commences with an introduction (section 5.1), followed by a reflection on the achievements of the study's aim, objectives, and research questions (section 5.2). Subsequently, lessons learnt for practice and future research are discussed (section 5.3). The lessons learnt are based on the outcome of investigating the use of social innovation in CSPs in public sector programme delivery using the case of DALRRD's Jobs Fund programme. This is followed by Section 5.4, which recommends a strategy for DALRRD to use social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery. The chapter ends with section 5.5, which concludes the chapter and mini-dissertation.

5.2 ACHIEVEMENT OF THE STUDY AIM, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aim of this study was to investigate the use of social innovation in DALRRD's CSP to implement the Job Funds Programme. As part of the study basis, the case of the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development and cross-sector partnerships in the implementation of the Jobs Fund Programme was presented in Chapter 4. The evaluation of SI use in CSPs for the implementation of the Jobs Fund Programme by DALRRD was thus articulated in section 4.3. In this respect, eight SI attributes were identified to be used in the JF programme implementation, thus the use of (i) cross sector, (ii) partnership, (iii) pursuance of a common goal, (iv) networks and collaborations, (v) participation, (vi) co-creation, and (vii) innovation. Therefore, the aim of the study was achieved.

In addition, the respective research objectives of the study were achieved as follows in the respective chapters of the mini-dissertation:

(i) To conceptually demarcate the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery

This objective was achieved as addressed in Chapter 2. The conceptualisation in this chapter was based on discussing Public Administration theories influencing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery. Inherent to this was conceptualising SI by defining SI, identifying its attributes which are cross-sector, collaborations and networks, participation, co-production, co-creation, partnerships, as well as discussing the conditions and consequences of SI's use in CSPs. Furthermore, SI's use in public sector programme delivery was analysed, and its benefits, barriers and challenges in Public Sector programme delivery were determined. All this culminated in presenting a conceptual framework for using SI in public sector programme delivery.

(ii) To evaluate Public Administration theories influencing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery

This objective was achieved as addressed in Chapter 2. Two theories were evaluated, thus New Public Governance Theory and Social Innovation Theory. According to the literature review, the NPG is rooted within the network theory, which is intended to close the gaps and to overcome the limitations and deficiencies of hierarchies and market competition because of TPA and NPM. It is aimed at addressing the blurry boundaries between public and private sectors as well as citizens or service users. Hence, the administrative governing process underpinning the NPG is characterised by participatory public administration, collaboration and networks aimed at producing innovative public sector policies and services. Considering that the severe problems facing the public sector and societies are multi-dimensional and complex, and that they cannot be solved by a single-organisation effort, the NPG advocates collaboration and networks in public service delivery.

The NPG views governance as a collaborative process, requiring multiple and interdependent actors to enable the pursuit of innovative solutions to the most pressing public sector service delivery challenges. The co-existence of various organisations helps improve public sector policies and services, which in turn enhances innovative capacity of the public sector and induce SI. The goal of collaboration is to leverage and exchange resources and expertise to enhance effective governance as well as to boost the innovative capacity and promote SI. Complementarity and resource exchange amongst various actors enable public administration to be more effective, efficient and responsive. Again, bringing together different stakeholders including the citizens themselves, help identify the most innovative solutions to the most pressing societal issues. Thus, the NPG seems to have greatly contributed to the public administration. However, its disadvantage is that because the NPG promotes participatory and collaborative governance or public administration which includes interaction between different internal and external, public and non-public actors, the collaboration process may be dominated and controlled by more resourceful and powerful organisations.

According to the literature review, SI is premised on social and network theories that emerged in recognition that societal problems cannot be solved by finance and technology given that they are more on social dimension. SI is an inter-disciplinary approach that advocates collaborations of various actors and sectors. SI emerged as a collaborative governance model aimed at developing new and sustainable solutions to addressing such complex societal issues. Hence, the importance of SI for effectively addressing severe societal problems has been widely recognised. It has also been recognised important to improving and modernising public sector service delivery. Due to its remarkable contribution in the public sector service delivery and addressing societal challenges, SI has recently been embraced by several organisations. Its prosperity is demonstrated by its growing

recognition, and increasing number of public programmes supporting SI as well as practices that promote collaborations and partnerships in the provision of public service. However, despite its remarkable outcomes, the use of SI for improving public sector service delivery seems to be receiving little attention.

Moreover, the concept is still not adequately used by many South African public sector organisations. It could be due to SI being under theorised, limited proof to determine if it has delivered on its promises and lack of evidence to justify its effectiveness in improving public sector service delivery. Without a clear indication of whether and to what extent it has delivered its promises, and its uncertainties, many organisations could become skeptical to use. The sluggish SI growth could also be because of limited access to finances and limited skills to promote SI. Besides these few criticisms, SI holds potential to improve public sector service delivery and solving societal problems. Both SI and the NPG have potential to enhance service delivery and address societal issues. These two theories are rooted on the same theoretical roots, governance model, and strategies. Moreover, they both value collaboration and participation between public sector, private sector, and civil societies as key in public sector service delivery process.

(iii) To investigate CSPs role in advancing the use of social innovation in public sector programme delivery

This objective was achieved as addressed in Chapters 3 and 4. CSPs help the public sector unlock more innovative approaches to public sector management and service delivery. CSPs transform the way in which the public sector operate by introducing innovative practices and solutions. The rationale and the key objective of CSPs are to mobilise, combine and exchange complementary resources, competencies, and capacities to attain a specific goal. Through the cross-sectoral approach, organisations leverage unique capabilities and create synergy of limited and scattered resources to improve service delivery. Hybridity helps organisations tap into each other's scarce resources that are necessary for the effective and efficient provision of services. The CSP process is underpinned by collaborations and networks, which create a conducive environment for SI to emerge because SIs occur in an inherently complex ecosystem that includes a variety of actors. Hence SI is considered an outcome of collaboration. The collaborative governance rooted within the CSPs can stimulate, develop, drive, and sustain SI in public service delivery. Although CSP is an important tool to stimulate SI, CSPs are not a cure-all strategy for dealing with complex issues and does not always lead to SI. CSPs' use for stimulating SI is dependent on several context-bound drivers including initial conditions, motivation, drivers, actors involved and their cooperative capabilities.

(iv) To investigate the use of social innovation by CSPs in public sector programme delivery

This objective was achieved as addressed in Chapter 3 and 4. From the literature review, eight attributes were identified that could be used in the CSPs. These are (a) cross sector aspect, (b) partnership, (c) pursuance of a common goal, (d) collaborations, (e) new networks and relationships, (f) participation, (g) co-creation, and (h) use of innovation.

The attribute of cross sector refers to cross-sectoral initiative by two or more organisations belonging to different sectors of the economy or discipline. The CSP approach are used in recognition that the challenges facing societies are complex and multidisciplinary, requiring combined efforts of various actors. Hence, DALRRD also entered a public-public CSP with GTAC which is a financial sector (public sector organisation).

The attribute of partnership is where organisations enter a CSP through a formal Agreement/ MoA or MoU Agreement. DALRRD entered into a formal partnership through a signed Grant Agreement. Such agreements serve as contractual obligations to guide the partnership operations. The use of partnerships stems from the acknowledgement that no single organisation alone cannot effectively tackle service delivery challenges. Partnerships are intended to mobilise the resources, which in turn creates synergy of scattered resources.

The attribute of achieving a common goal relate to how organisations collaborate to pursue common goals or joint undertakings. The common goal is to tap into innovative practices to improve service delivery and address societal challenges. Common goals are pursued through implementation of programme and projects. For the DALRRD case, the common goal is creation of sustainable jobs though the implementation if commercialisation of smallholder producers.

The attribute of collaboration determined that CSPs encourages collaborations. For example, in addition to the collaboration between the GTAC and DALRRD, new collaborations have also developed. Thus, the collaborations with PDAs, SOEs and commodity organisations, which plays a huge role by adding additional capabilities in the implementation of JF programme. This could enhance the capacity of the CSP to better respond to the service delivery issues as well as contribute meaningfully to the upscaling of SI.

The attribute of new networks and relationships deduces that CSP creates a conducive environment for the establishment of new structures and networks. The findings in Chapter 4 determined that DALRRD created new structures beyond programme-based partnership. This includes networks among various internal and external stakeholders, and structures such as Steering Committee, PMO, PMT, Technical Task Team, and Project Implementation Task Team comprised of DALRRD and

GTAC officials. These new networks and structures enable the emergence of new approaches that could stimulate SIs.

The attribute of participation is the key to SI's use. At the heart of the SI lies the active participation of citizens to foster bottom-up approaches in service delivery. For an SI to make an impact in addressing complex societal challenges, citizens participation in the service delivery cycle is crucial. Hence apart from the key partners in the case of DALRRD's CSP, other stakeholders are also participating in the programme. This includes PDAs, SOEs and commodities. However, the participation of farmers is not applicable. This is in contrast with the SI principle which emphasises citizens' participation.

The attribute of co-creation emphasises that the process of collaboration encourages co-creation. Co-creation of services marks an SI approach. Through the JF programme, the GTAC and DALRRD co-create the services, encompassing planning, designing and implementation, and conducting M&E. Other stakeholders such as PDA's, SOEs and Commodity organisations are involved in the service delivery cycle. The missing part is the inclusion of farmers to participate in the process as service users.

The attribute of innovation is one of the key attributes of SI observed in CSPs. For instance, The DALRRD's CSP portrayed three distinct innovation aspects. First, the programme itself is an innovation as it is implemented through a cross-sector approach. Secondly, the programme is implemented through a blended funding model wherein the support provided to farmers is based on a 50% grant and 50% loan. The intention is to have the revolving funds that could be used to replicate the model for other farmers. This would boost the financial capacity of DALRRD, thus being able to effectively render services. Lastly, the collaboration process between DALRRD and GTAC is also another aspect of innovation in governance. This partnership could further spark innovation through blending of unique set of resources, skills, and expertise.

(v) To identify challenges hindering the use of social innovation in CSPs. This objective was achieved as addressed in chapters 3 and 4

Although there are many challenges hindering the use of SI in CSPs, seven prevalent ones were identified through the literature review. These include (a) public sector regulations and bureaucracies; (b) lack of capacity; (c) resource constraints; (d) Insufficient and inappropriate skills; (e) poor coordination; and (f) insufficient collaboration opportunities as well as (g) power imbalance. All these challenges may lead to limited CSPs and limited use of SI in CSPs.

Regarding public sector regulations and bureaucracies, it is well known that public sector organisations are bureaucratic, hierarchical and regulated by complex rules and regulations that are intended to promote accountability and ensure effective and efficient use of resources. Although these regulatory frameworks are established for good courses, their design and inflexibility may prevent and suppress public sector organisations from being dynamic and innovative, while making the management of CSPs more difficult and challenging. The strict adherence to public sector rules and regulations may inhibit and limit willingness for collaborations and partnerships among organisations especially private sector, which may find it difficult to cope with such regulations and bureaucracies.

Concerning insufficient or lack of capacity, these hinders development and diffusion of innovation practices. Commonly, most public sector organisations lack sufficient capacity, especially relating to expertise and finance. Regarding resource constraints, particularly limited financial resources impedes SI use in public sector service delivery. Given the deteriorating financial situation, many public sector organisations are unable to innovate or leverage resources and capacities with other sectors or organisations.

With respect to insufficient and inappropriate skills, these have a definite impact on the delivery of public sector programmes. Generally, most public sector officials may be highly skilled in various fields, but only a few may have innovative and creative skills. Adequate expertise and skills are necessary to develop, promote and upscale SI. Moreover, given the complex nature of collaboration, managing CSPs and driving SI requires appropriate skills. It cannot be overemphasised that skilled personnel within the CSPs are the most critical source of SI.

The challenge of poor coordination is observed to be one of the major challenges hindering SI use in CSPs. Poor coordination is mainly associated with the regulations, procedures, and processes as well as the culture of organisations. Moreover, in many public sector organisations innovation is not embedded in the governance processes or organisational practices. This creates an unfavorable environment for organisations to innovate. Poor coordination is attributed to unclear institutional arrangements, unclear communication strategy, unclear decision-making process, differing organisational cultures and processes.

Concerning insufficient opportunities for collaboration, SI requires collaborations among various stakeholders especially for the purpose of pooling diverse resources, expertise and knowledge as well as to initiate, develop, implement and scale-up SI. Lastly the challenges of power imbalance among partners is marked a common issue in CSPs, thus inhibiting SI's use. The party that makes

a greater contribution in terms of assets or resources usually holds more decision-making power over the other, hindering creativity and SI initiatives.

(vi) To determine the nature of DALRRD CSPs towards stimulating the use of social innovation for improved public sector programme delivery

This objective was achieved as addressed in chapters 3 and 4. In nature, CSPs involve various actors in the service delivery process. This aspect is capable of stimulating SI. In addition, CSPs foster collaboration between and across different actors and sectors and disciplines. Such collaborations are considered a significant tool for triggering SI. It could not be overemphasised that CSP is the source of SI. Leveraging and integration of resources, comparative advantage, experience, knowledge and cross-pollination of best practice through CSP produces new approaches ultimately gives birth to SI. Different sectors pose unique capabilities that enable them to deliver innovation.

In observing the current practice, organisations that act collaboratively often increases their capacity, thus creating a good foundation for SI. Thus, the collaboration governance rooted within the CSPs can promote, drive, and sustain SI. Equally, SI's development, implementation, success, and sustainability strongly depend on CSPs. Hence CSPs hold the key to unlocking and driving SI in public sector service delivery. Through the CSPs, actors address their individual gaps and build capacities. The capacity generated through CSP can stimulate SI because capacity is regarded as an important ingredient to stimulate new and improved solutions. SI is generated when creative, new, and different ideas are combined and streamlined. Moreover, SI is also stimulated by the process of CSPs i.e., pooling of resources, collaborations, networks, new relationships and structure, and co-creation. These processes are crucial to scaling -up and diffusing SI.

(vii) To present a strategy for DALRRD to use social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery.

This objective was achieved as addressed in chapters 4 and 5. The strategy proposed for DALRRD entails five steps, thus (1) identification of goal, (ii) identifying CSP, (ii) leveraging of resources, (iv) SI use, and (v) monitoring and evaluation. Furthermore, the strategy proposed for DALRRD to develop a framework specifically for partnership management including CSPs. This would guide the implementation and ensure better coordination of partnership initiatives. As such, SI practices such as collaboration and networks, participation, co production of services and innovation should be entrenched in the framework to promote the culture of using SI in CSPs. When CSPs and the use of SI are embedded in the DALRRD's governance or institutional arrangement, SI would be used in rendering services. Service delivery programmes and projects implemented through CSPs should promote SI use. This would cultivate and foster SI use in the DALRRD operations. Attributes of SI particularly collaboration, networks, participation, co-production of services and

use of innovation would become a norm in programme delivery cycle. In addition to the partnership management framework, a unit or an office should be established responsible for managing partnership initiatives. The unit should be capacitated and empowered to manage partnership and promote SI use. This would create a fertile environment for SI use in all service delivery programmes of the DALRRD.

The following research questions led the study and were answered as follows:

a) **How do CSPs use social innovation for improved public sector programme delivery by DALRRD?**

This research question was addressed in chapters 4 and 5. In nature, the processes of CSPs encompass SI practices. The nature of CSP particularly collaborative governance model embedded in the CSPs is capable to trigger, develop, implement, and sustain SI in public sector programme delivery. CSPs promotes SI through its processes such as cross sector approach, partnerships, collaboration, networks, participation, and co-creation. Given that CSPs connect diverse individuals and organisations, social innovation provides a platform of leveraging resources, information exchange and learning, thus increasing the capacity and stimulating SI. Thus, collaborative work produces new capabilities, thus creating a fertile environment for SI to emerge and flourish. When different stakeholders act collaboratively and co-create services, it increases capacity to innovate.

b) **What could be a strategy for DALRRD to use social innovation in CSPs in improving its programme delivery?**

This research question was addressed in chapters 4 and 5. The strategy proposed for DALRRD to use SI in CSP for improving programme delivery consist of 5 steps. The strategy commence by identifying the common goal, followed by identifying CSP, leveraging resources, SI use, and end with the last step which is M&E to determine SI use. The strategy also proposed the development of a partnership management framework to guide the implementation and coordination of CSPs interventions. The strategy should embed SI practices such as collaboration, networks, participation, co-production, and innovation to promote its use in CSPs. When SI practices are deeply entrenched within the DALRRD's governance system, SI will be used in DALRRD's daily operations and programme delivery.

5.3 LESSON LEARNT FOR PRACTICE AND FUTURE RESEARCH

5.3.1 Lessons learnt for practice

Lesson learnt for practice relate to (i) improving coordination and delivery of CSPs programmes, (ii) promoting the use of SI in CSP programme delivery, and (iii) ensuring adequate capacity to execute CSPs and SI.

(i) Improving coordination and delivery of CSPs programmes

To improve coordination and delivery of CSP programmes, the first important step is to put a formal agreement in place detailing all necessary obligations, expectations and procedures. Most importantly, the agreement should outline objectives, deliverables and timelines, decision-making processes and a communication strategy. Again, noting that every organisation is rooted in its own culture, strategic objectives, institutional arrangements, processes and procedure, for the purpose of well-coordination of CSP programme delivery, therefore it becomes necessary to align such from the onset to create common strategy for the management of the programme. Moreover, to improve the coordination of programme delivery, it is necessary to develop a framework for partnership management inclusive of SI practices, particularly considering that the policies and regulations of government in general are stringent, inflexible, and not conducive for public sector organisations to innovate. There should also be a dedicated office or unit to drive partnership and innovation. This would ensure the capacity to execute CSP interventions. Lack of capacity seems to be an issue in many CSP, which may lead to slow and ineffective implementation of programmes. Subsequently, this may lead to inefficient, failure or non-impactful CSP initiatives. In terms of the programme implementation, in cases where the CSP programme prompts for appointment of an implementing agent, the CSP MoA should strongly form the basis for MoA with the implementing agent to avoid any misalignment of CSP objectives, obligations and expectations. The MoA of the partnering organisation should also outline the governing structure as part of the institutional arrangements.

Although the governance structure is dependent on the nature of the CSP, the programme and its objectives, it is advisable that the structure contains a maximum of three levels to avoid long and unnecessary process flow. Long processes may cause delays in programme implementation and counter effectiveness of the CSP especially considering that CSPs initiatives are timeframed. This could be strategic committee level, tactical committee level, and the implementation team level. The key responsibility of the Strategic or steering committee, which is a high level and decision-making committee, should be to provide strategic guidance and oversight to help achieve the objectives of the CSP. This committee should comprise not only members of one institution, but representatives from all partners involved. The tactical committee should be responsible for coordinating and managing the project plan and feeds strategic committee. This committee should be comprised of internal and external stakeholders and must include a project manager from each partner organisation. This should serve as a stakeholder engagement and participation platform. The implementation team, which is the last leg, should comprise representatives from all partners. Its responsibility is to develop a plan to achieve the CSP outcomes. Its responsibility is also to execute the activities of the partnership as per the plan and feed the tactical committee.

Having signed the MoA and established the institutional arrangement, the implementation model should be developed. It is necessary to develop a tailor-made implementation model for each programme or project to avoid applying a blanket approach. Because the model that worked in a specific programme in a particular setting might not work well in another programme. Hence, there is a need for a tailor-made implementation model. As part of the implementation plan, regular M&E should be embedded in the processes to determine the progress, effectiveness of the CSP and challenges. Where there are challenges, a remedial plan should be put in place to ensure that the objectives of the CSP are achieved without any compromise. The lessons learned through the M& E process could also help improve programme delivery.

(ii) Promoting the use of SI in CSP programme delivery

In respect of promoting the use of SI in CSP programme delivery, public sector organisations should strive to create a conducive environment for SI use in CSPs. To ensure that SI practices become part of the CSP operations, SI processes should be embedded within the CSP framework and the institutional arrangement. Moreover, at a national government level SI use in CSPs should be guided by a framework for its use in the public sector programme delivery. Such a guiding framework should outline pragmatic institutional processes to implement SI's use in CSPs programme delivery. Whilst this could encourage SI's use in public sector service programme delivery it should be guided by clear indicators for SI's use. Unlike in the current situation wherein the use of SI is latent due to several reasons. Developing relevant frameworks would address some of the challenges hindering SI's use.

(iii) Ensuring adequate capacity to execute CSPs and SI

To ensure that CSP and SI initiatives are executed effectively, there should be adequate capacity especially funding and human resources. Limited resources and lack of appropriate skills constitute a major challenge that hinders SI use. The availability of funding, and adequate and skilled human resources is vital for the success of CSPs and SI. To ensure adequate human resources, a dedicated office should be established to execute CSP and SI. The staff should be empowered and capacitated to deal with CSP programmes and to be versatile, agile, and innovative. Regarding financial capacity, the partnership management office should be allocated a dedicated budget given that CSPs and SI processes do not just happen, they need funding. When the budget is available, it becomes easy to tap into CSP opportunities. Moreover, the availability of budget makes it easier for public officials to be innovative.

5.3.2 Lessons learnt for future research

The lesson learnt for future research relate to (i) increasing theorisation and development of SI as a Public Administration theory, (ii) promoting research on SI's use in public sector programme delivery, and (iii) investigating the impact of SI use in the CSPs of DALRRD.

(i) Increasing theorisation and development of SI as a Public Administration Theory

The finding of the study reveals that the Public Administration theories thus NPG and SI as discussed in this study have proven to significantly contribute to improving public sector service delivery and addressing complex societal problems and needs. However, every theory has its shortcomings. Beside their shortcomings, those Public Administration theories play a huge role in the public sector domain. SI theory, which contributes to addressing the shortcomings of the NPG, is under theorised and due to this fact, its development and use remains latent in some contexts. The SI theory should therefore be promoted to cultivate the culture of SI use in public sector service delivery. The more the SI concept could be comprehensively theorised equivalent to technological innovation, its use could become popular. This would contribute to building the body of knowledge of the SI and stimulate SI use in public administration practices.

(ii) Promoting research on SI's use in CSP public sector programme delivery

To increase the SI's use in public sector programme delivery, the policy environment of public sector organisations should be made conducive. This would help the public sector to improve service delivery and better address and cope with complex and multifaceted challenges facing societies. However, the policy environment can only become conducive through evidence-based research regarding SI's use in CSP. Seemingly in the South African public sector environment SI's use in service delivery is latent, unpopular and continue to be receiving little attention from a research context as compared to technological innovation. Because SI is under theorised and not well documented through research in the South African public sector context, commonly innovation is linked to technology. Technological innovation alone cannot solve today's problems because they are multidimensional due to social, political, economic, environmental, and technological factors. As such although technological innovation is important and has been proved to be having positive impacts in public sector service delivery, alone it cannot effectively address all societal challenges. Hence the importance to equally research social innovation from a South African public sector programme delivery perspective is prudent.

(iii) Investigating the impact of SI's use in the CSPs of DALRRD.

Regarding public sector programme delivery, the findings of the study revealed the areas worth exploration that could be beneficial to public sector organisations in CSPs programme delivery. In this research, the impact of SI use in the CSPs of DALRRD has not been investigated. Moreover, the study determined the SI's use using the case of the JF programme implemented through CSP, and not explored SI use in other CSP programmes. It remains unknown whether SI is used in all CSP programmes. These two highlighted important areas that could be explored through future research. This would contribute to providing evidence regarding SI's and its effectiveness in improving public sector programme delivery.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS: A STRATEGY FOR DALRRD TO USE SOCIAL INNOVATION IN CSPs

The strategy recommended for DALRRD to use SI in CSP comprise five steps, thus **step 1:** identification of CSP goal, **step 2:** leveraging of capabilities, **step 3:** identification of SI goals, **step 4:** SI use, and **step 5:** monitoring and evaluation. The strategy also proposed for DALRRD to institutionalise SI use by developing a framework specifically for partnership management including CSPs. This would guide and ensure better coordination of partnership initiatives. As such, SI processes such as collaboration and networks, participation, co-creation, and innovation should be embedded in the framework to promote and cultivate the culture of SI use in CSPs. When CSPs and SI are entrenched in the DALRRD’s governance, institutional arrangements, and operations, service delivery would improve. In addition to the proposed partnership management framework, a partnership management office should be established responsible for coordinating and managing partnership initiatives. The unit should be well capacitated and empowered to manage partnership programmes and projects and to promote SI use. Figure 5.1 summarises the strategy for DALRRD to use SI in CSPs.

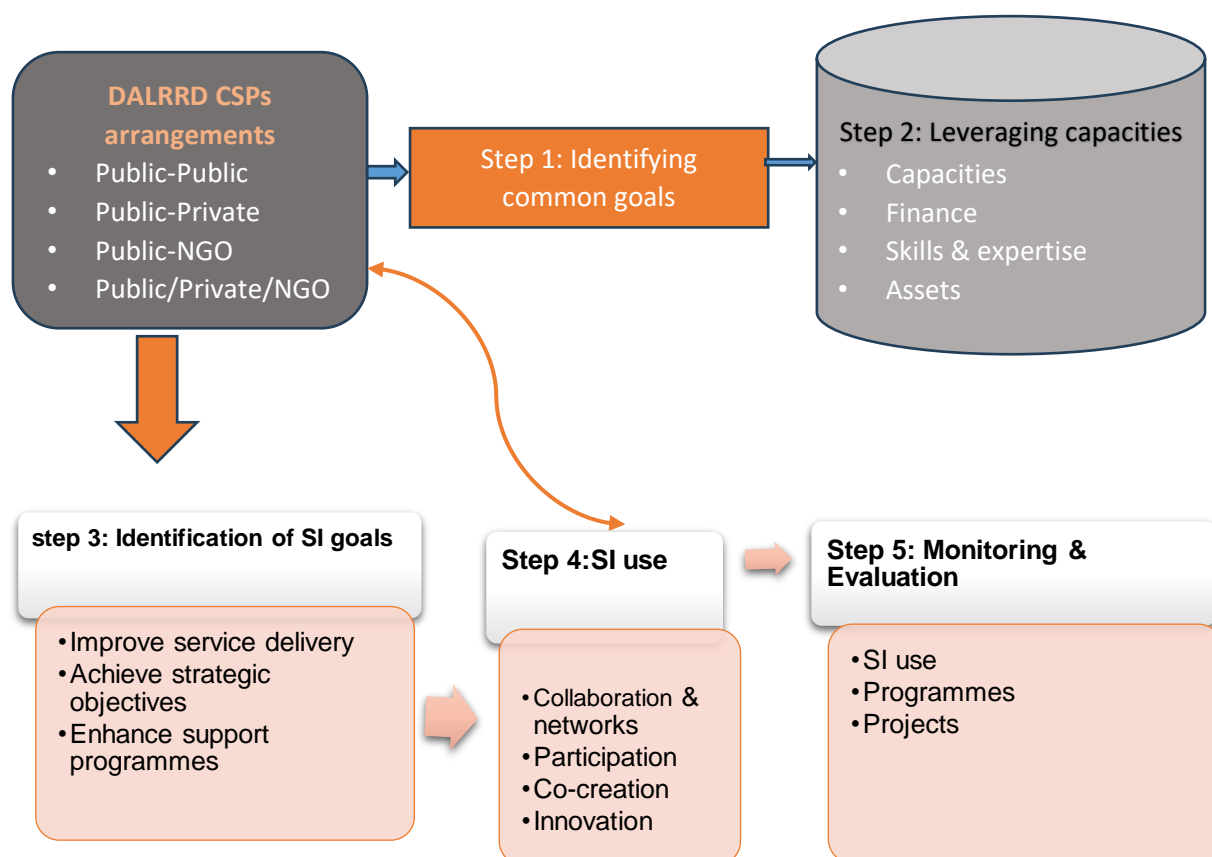


Figure 5.1: Strategy for DALRRD to use SI in CSPs (Author:Own)

Figure 5.1 illustrated five steps of SI use strategy, thus identification of CSP goal (step1), leveraging of capabilities (step 2), identification of SI goals (step 3), SI use (step 4) and monitoring and evaluation (step 5). The strategy started by highlighting the possible CSP arrangements. DALRRD could utilise different types of CSPs i.e., between Public- Public or Public- Public Private or Public- NGO or simultaneously between two or all these three sectors. Depending on the CSP type, each partnership would have its own arrangements, however, what is necessary as discussed in section 3.2.3 is to ensure that the pre-conditions for CSP are applied for a successful CSP that would induce SI. The pre-conditions include (i) assessing the partners strengths and capabilities, determining the opportunity for complementarity and value addition (ii) openness and transparency regarding motivation and expectations, (iii) building trust and relationship, (iv) alignment of priorities, goals and objectives. (v) formal agreement to concretise the partnership, (vi) establishment of partnership institutional arrangements and governance structure, and (vii) identifying clear roles and responsibilities. Most critical is formalisation the partnership agreement to stipulate partnership requirements, foster shared goals, and guide the process of partnership. Having highlighted the CSP arrangements, the steps of using SI are herein discussed.

Step 1: identification of CSP goals

Goal identification is the first step of the strategy. An organisation engaging in partnership seeks to achieve a specific goal. Similarly, DALRRD should first identify specific goals to be achieved using CSP. The service delivery goals of DALRRD encompass ensuring accelerated land reform, improved agricultural production and sustainable rural to safeguard food security and stimulate economic development, of which alone, DALRRD may find it difficult pursue. Hence, the use of CSP to pool resources and capacities to pursue sector goals. The goal of CSP should be aligned with the DALRRD mandate or its strategic objectives. Although there are many service delivery goals that DALRRD seek to achieve, each CSP initiative should have a specific intended goal. This is necessary to avoid scattered and unclear objectives that may lead to confusion and deter the effectiveness of CSP.

Step 2: Leveraging of resources and capacities

The third step of the strategy is to leverage capabilities. Leveraging capacities, especially resources and expertise, is the main objective of utilising CSP in public sector programme delivery. From the onset, DALRRD should assess the diversity and complementary resources and capabilities of its partners. Resources especially funding and human (i.e., skills, expertise, and abilities) should be assessed if they add complementary value. Sufficient resources and capacities are keen to developing, delivering and sustaining SI. Limited resources may deter the use of SI, as well as limit DALRRD to top into partnership opportunities given that most organisation partner to leverage resources. Availability of adequate human capacity is crucial for driving both CSPs and SI. To ensure human capacity, dedicated personnel should be appointed to serve in the “partnership management office”. To ensure availability

of financial resources, CSP programmes should be budgeted for as part of the DALRRD budgeting processes. When the resources are available, an environment in which SI become a key mechanism for DALRRD to deliver delivery programmes.

Step 3: Identification of SI goal

Like the CSPs, SIs seek to pursue a specific goal. Although common SI goals are centred on improving service delivery, achieve strategic objectives, enhance support programme and ensuring food security, identifying clear SI goals for each programme or service delivery initiative is important. Therefore, through the CSP, DALRRD together with its partner should determine the goals of using SI. The goals and objectives of SI should be articulated in the CSP agreement to ensure that SI use is incorporated in the CSP operations. This would also ease the process of assessing SI use. When the goals for SI use are clear, the process of M&E becomes easier as there would be aspects to measure against. Moreover, when the SI is embedded in the CSP operations, the culture of SI use would be cultivated or fostered. If SI is not institutionalised, its use may be compromised. Hence the importance of incorporating it in the DALRRD administration and CSP operations.

Step 4: SI use in CSP

The use of SI constitutes the fourth step in the process. The attributes of SI i.e., collaboration and networks, participation, co-creation and innovation should be applied in CSPs. Although this is captured as the fourth step, it does not only follow step three but should be applied in CSPs arrangements, identification of CSP goals and leveraging of resources. In particular, collaboration, building networks and relationships as well as participation should be incorporated within the institutional arrangements of the DALRRD's CSPs.

(i) Collaboration and networks

Collaborations and networks are important SI success factors. Collaborations and networks are crucial for initiating, designing, delivering, sustaining and scaling-up SI. Because collaborations and networks connect diverse actors from various disciplines, a platform for sharing, exchanging, learning, and integrating resources, assets, ideas, expertise and best practices necessary for improving service delivery is created. Collaborations build the capacity of the CSPs and create a conducive environment for participation, co-creation and emergence of innovative approaches to programme delivery. Collaboration also fosters participation and co-creation of services. Through collaboration process, DALRRD and its partners and stakeholders such as PDAs, SOEs, private sector, commodity organisations, research and academic institutions, civil society organisations, and NGOs or social sector contribute diverse expertise and capacities capable of stimulating, shaping and sustaining SI. Therefore, it becomes necessary for DALRRD to collaborate with other stakeholders in CSPs to tap into their capacities and expertise to strengthen the capacity. Improved capacity could lead to CSPs of DALRRD

to be effective and successful in improving service delivery and addressing societal challenges. Collaboration is necessary because even if DALRRD may be the initiator of service delivery programmes and projects or SI initiatives, other stakeholders are critical to developing, shaping, diffusing, scaling up and sustaining SI. SI and CSP success depend on the existence and collaboration of various actors. Therefore, it is important that collaboration be institutionalised within the DALRRD's CSPs operations.

(ii) Participation

Stakeholder participation is the key SI process deemed necessary in CSPs. Hence it is recommended for DALRRD to promote stakeholder participation across all service delivery processes. DALRRD should identify relevant stakeholders that are key to driving SI and CSPs. The objective of stakeholder participation is to create and strengthen relationships among DALRRD and its stakeholders to better understand the sector needs, challenges and service delivery issues. Importantly, stakeholder participation serves as a collaboration platform to pool, share, and exchange resources, information, experiences, and skills required to improve CSP programme delivery. The stakeholders play an important role in shaping policy and improving service delivery. Moreover, participation also provide basis for effective, efficient, successful CSP programme delivery. Participation would stimulate cross-fertilisation of best practices, thus building capabilities of the CSP and generating improved, viable and sustainable solutions.

The stakeholders to participate in CSPs of DALRRD should include PDAs, agriculture SOEs, public-sector institutions, private sector, NGOs, social sector, and civil society organisations. The participation of PDAs is crucial as it serves as the entry point for agriculture sector service or programme delivery. PDAs are closer to the service recipients or farmers, meaning PDA could have better understanding of farmers' needs. Again, worth emphasising is the participation of civil society organisations as they represent farmers within the service delivery cycle. Their participation could help better understanding of farmers' needs and challenges, and development of better, relevant, effective, and sustainable response strategies. When farmers participate in service delivery cycle, they get empowered and take ownership in issues pertaining to their lives, thus better dealing with their challenges and needs for now and in future. This would also reduce their reliance on government assistance. To make easier the participation process, online platforms could also be utilised to engage stakeholders. This would allow participation of scattered external stakeholders.

(iii) Co-creation

Co-creation should be institutionalised within the CSP governance. The process of co-creation in CSP programme delivery is fostered through collaboration and participation process embedded within the SI. This means that DALRRD, its cross-sector partners and stakeholders should co-create and be

involved in all the programme delivery stages, thus co-planning, co-designing, co-delivery, co-monitoring and co-evaluation. Co-creation process is essential to the development, success and sustainability of SI as it promote collaboration, participation, leveraging capabilities and best practices, and empowerment while fostering accountability, responsibility and ownership in public sector service delivery. It implies that co-creation is the key ingredient of SI and CSPs success.

(iv) Innovation

The process of collaboration, participation, and co-creation would certainly unlock another innovation, which is another key objective of SI use. Cross- fertilisation of unique ideas, knowledge, skills, and expertise would trigger new and creative approaches to improve CSP programme delivery. DALRRD CSPs should promote innovative practices, especially considering that the delivery strategy of one programme or initiative might not effectively deliver in another programme because each programme is unique and seeks to achieve its own goals. Moreover, the challenges faced by the public sector service delivery system and society it needs to serve are multifaceted and forever changing, requiring different and unique strategies. This is the reason why innovation is at the heart of SI to ensure that those ever-changing needs are met. SI recognises the importance of innovation, and thus applying a blanket approach to addressing societal challenges and to implementing programmes becomes irrelevant because what worked well before might not work well in a particular programme or in a particular setting. Thus, each programme or project should have its own implementation model to avoid a one-size-fit-all approach. SI encourages exploration of new service delivery mechanisms such as new or improved projects, programmes, strategies, processes, systems, and approaches. However, where SI strategies have proven to be effective, can be built onto, adjusted, improved to suit other programmes, or be replicated in other areas.

Step 5: Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and Evaluation is the last step within the strategy. The M&E is necessary to monitor implementation progress and programme performance and assess the achievement of objectives. Monitoring and evaluation of the SI use prior, during and after programme delivery is crucial for assessing SI use and achievement of CSP goals. Moreover, M&E serves as a platform of learning which is critical for improving service delivery. Assessing SI use in CSPs is important because it would help DALRRD to determine if the proposed SI attributes were applied or lacked during programme delivery, and if used to what extent. If SI use lacked, this will allow the DALRRD accordingly correct. In addition, regular monitoring during programme implementation is crucial to track the progress or performance against the CSP objectives and targets. This could help identify the achievements, discrepancies and challenges. Where there are variations, adjustment should be made, while where there are challenges, remedial plans should be implemented.

Applying M&E would help assess SI use and, where necessary, improve implementation to ensure that SI initiatives are achieved accordingly. If the SI goals are achieved, then the SI can be scaled-up or replicated in other service delivery programmes and projects. In situations where goals were not achieved, improvement plans should be applied using the lesson learned to better implement future initiatives. Given the importance of M&E, it is necessary to ensure that it features in the DALRRDs CSPS. Fortunately, M&E has already been institutionalised within the practices of the DALRRD administration, therefore M&E for CSPs initiatives should just be incorporated. Alternatively, M&E may also be incorporated within the CSP institutional arrangements and structure. The proposed partnership management office may also coordinate the M&E specifically for CSP initiatives. M&E should be a joint process wherein DALRRD and its partners as well as stakeholders are involved. What is important is to establish a suitable M&E system specific for CSP programme delivery.

If well-coordinated, the above strategy could be very beneficial to DALRRD and its partners. The strategy could help DALRRD to build its capacity, improve its services and programme delivery, and capacities. Other SI consequences such as social value, economic value and empowerment could be achieved. Most important, the use of SI would also help DALRRD to enhance collaboration and relationships with its stakeholders. Collaboration and relationships are important SI success factors. Therefore, given its potential benefits, SI is worth exploring as a strategy for programme delivery in DALRRD CSPs. The next section, which is the last part of the study offers the conclusion to the study.

5.5 CONCLUSION

Using the case of DALRRDs Job Funds programme, this study investigated the use of social innovation in DALRRDs CSP to implement the Job Funds Programme. As such chapter one provided the rationale behind this study which highlighted that despite SI's global recognition and success, its use for improving public service delivery seems to be lagging in the DALRRD. This necessitated an investigation of the use of SI in CSP programme delivery by DALRRD, using the case of JF programme. The investigation was deemed necessary to improve understanding and form the basis for a strategy to stimulate SI's use in CSPs of DALRRD for improved programme delivery. This chapter also alluded to the research problem, objectives, and research question. The qualitative methodological approach and research design for the study were outlined as well as aspects related to ensuring reliability and validity in this study. This chapter concluded with a discussion of the significance of this study and its potential contribution in the context of Public Administration, the South African policy agenda, social innovation in public sector programme delivery, and DALRRD.

Chapter 2 discussed conceptual demarcation of SI's use in public sector programme delivery. The discussion reflected Public Administration theories influencing SI's use in public sector programme

delivery. Accordingly, the two theories thus the New Public Governance theory and Social Innovation theory were identified and evaluated in respect of their theoretical foundation, focus, contribution and shortcomings. It was deemed critical to investigate these PA theories to generate more understanding on the theoretical roots of SI and its use in the public sector. In addition to this was the conceptualisation of SI by determining its definition, and attributes which are cross-sector, partnerships, collaborations and networks, participation, co-production, and co-creation including discussing its conditions and consequences. The SIs use, its benefits, barriers, and challenges in Public Sector programme delivery were determined. Subsequently, all this culminated in presenting a conceptual framework for using SI in public sector programme delivery.

Chapter 3 determined the perspectives of CSPs and SI's use in public sector programme delivery. The chapter started by conceptualising the concept of CSPs. As part of the conceptualisation, the CSP was defined. In addition, its attributes, pre-conditions, success factors and consequences were determined. Furthermore, to deepen the understanding, the challenges confronting CSPs were also determined. Those challenges relate to the complex nature of CSPs, differing missions, priorities, and perspectives, insufficient resources and/ or capacity, power imbalance, competition, and lack of effective results measurement and project evaluation. Adding to this, CSPs and the use of SI in public sector programme delivery was investigated, reflecting the nexus between CSPs and public sector programme delivery, the role of CSPs in advancing the use of SI in public sector programme delivery, and the challenges impeding SI's use in CSPs. The challenges hindering the SI's use in CSPs encompass public sector regulations and bureaucracies; lack of capacity; resource constraints; insufficient and inappropriate skills; poor coordination; insufficient collaboration opportunities; and power imbalance. Lastly, a conceptual framework for CSPs to use social innovation in public sector programme delivery was provided. The framework recognises CSP as an important strategy for public sector reform, improving administration and governance systems, and improving the delivery of public sector programmes as well as commendable tool to stimulate SI.

Chapter 4 presented the case of the DALRRD and CSPs in the implementation of Jobs Fund programme. The discussion commenced by providing background information regarding the case of DALRRD, reflecting partnership arrangement, programme implementation strategy, institutional arrangements and governance structure, and project process flow. Furthermore, the use of SI in cross sector partnership for Jobs Fund programme delivery was evaluated. It was discovered that the attributes of cross-sector, partnership, achieving common goal, collaboration, relationships and networks, participation, co-creation, and innovation were used in the JF programme delivery. Furthermore, CSP was evaluated on how it stimulates the use of SI for improved public sector service delivery programmes by DALRRD. SI was found to be stimulated through various and connected processes such as partnerships, collaborations, new networks and relationships, new governance structures, participation, and co-

creation. The chapter further discussed the challenges hindering the use of SI in CSPs by DALRRD. These challenges were attributed to differing culture, processes and institutional arrangements, stringent policies and regulations, power imbalance, insufficient capacity, poor and inefficient coordination, limited skills and expertise, and slow project implementation. In conclusion, the chapter presented a strategy for DALRRD to use social innovation in CSPs in improving programme delivery. The strategy proposed that DALRRD develop a framework to guide the implementation of partnership initiatives. The framework should encompass SI practices to promote its use in CSPs for improved programme delivery.

Against the above, and in conclusion, given that today's societal issues are more complex and multi-sectoral and cannot be addressed by a single sector or actor, the use of SI in CSPs becomes critical as supported by the NPG and SI theories. Both NPG and SI discourses advocate collaboration and partnerships in public sector service delivery because they regard governance as a collaborative process, requiring multiple and interdependent actors to address the most pressing public sector service delivery challenges. Collaborations and partnerships organisations help public sector organisations to leverage resources, improve capacities and enhance their policies and service delivery approaches, which in turn enhances innovative capacity of the public sector, thus inducing SI. Bringing together diverse stakeholders help identify the most innovative solutions to the constant and persisting societal issues. Although NPG and SI are not cure-all for PA strategies, they have made significant contribution to public administration and public sector service delivery. Although SI is still under theorised and under-developed, it has been recognised globally as an important tool to improve public sector service delivery.

Noting the investigation of PA theories influencing SI use, this study contributed to the domain of PA, South African policy agenda, and SI use in public sector programme delivery. In terms of the PA, the study revealed the theories underlying SI use thus NPG and SI. In terms of South African policy agenda, the study contributed on investigating SI's use for public sector programme delivery by DALRRD. In terms of SI use in public sector programme delivery, the study contributed by determining the role and nature of CSP in stimulating SI, determining the significance of using social innovation in public sector programme delivery and a conceptual framework for using SI in public sector programme delivery.

As recognised globally, SI has many benefits and can help public sector organisations to improve programme delivery. However, despite its potential benefits, from a South African public sector context, SI's use seems to be latent in many public sector organisations including DALRRD. Although SI processes were applied in the JF programme, which was implemented through CSP, there were various challenges which countered its effective use. Those challenges were attributed to inflexible and stringent public sector regulations and bureaucracies, insufficient capacity, resource constraints,

particularly limited financial resources, insufficient and inappropriate skills, and poor coordination. Despite these challenges, SI is a good tool worth using in CSP. Given its benefits, it could be advantageous for DALRRD.

To promote the use of SI in the DALRRD, this study concluded by recommending a strategy for SI use in CSPs. This strategy presented a pragmatic approach to the use of SI, which outlined five steps thus identifying CSP goals, leveraging of capabilities, identification of SI goals, SI use and monitoring and evaluation. The strategy also emphasised the institutionalisation of SI within the DALRRD's governance and CSP institutional arrangements. To concretise this, the strategy also proposed the development of a partnership framework to guide and improve coordination of partnership programmes. The framework should embed SI processes such as collaboration and networks, participation, co-creation, and innovation to promote SI use in CSPs. Entrenching SI processes within the partnership framework and CSP institutional arrangements would foster SI use during service delivery. To ensure capacity to implement CSP and promote SI, a dedicated partnership management office should be established to manage partnership activities.

REFERENCES

- Agostini, M.R., Vieira, L.M., Tondolo, R.R.P. & Tondolo, V.A.G. 2017. An Overview on Social Innovation Research: Guiding Future Studies. *Brazilian Business Review*, 14(4):385-402.
- Agribiz. 2018. Comprehensive Producer Support Policy prioritises partnerships. Retrieved from <https://agbiz.co.za/content/open/comprehensive-development-support-policy-prioritises-partnerships>
- Albertson, K., Fox, C., O’Leary, C. & Painter, G. 2020. Towards a Theoretical Framework for Social Impact Bonds. *Nonprofit Policy Forum*, 11(2):1-10.
- Alawamleh, M. & Popplewell, K. 2012. Risk in Collaborative Networks: Relationships Analysis. *International Journal of Services and Operations Management*, 12(4):431-446.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/264821596_Risk_in_collaborative_networks_Relationships_analysis/link/59c20ad1aca272295a0d9839/download
- Aliber, M. & Hall, R. 2012. Support for Smallholder Farmers in South Africa: Challenges of Scale and Strategy. *Development Southern Africa*, 29(4):548-562.
- Allen, E.H., Samuel-Jakubos, H. & Waidmann, T.A. 2021. Data Sharing in Cross-Sector Collaborations Insights from Integrated Data Systems. Urban Institute: Washington, DC. Retrieved from https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/104548/data-sharing-in-cross-sector-collaborations_0.pdf
- Almog-Bar, M. 2018. Civil Society and Nonprofits in the Age of New Public Governance: Current Trends and Their Implications for Theory and Practice. *Nonprof Pol Forum*, 8(4):343–349.
- Andrews, R. & Entwistle, T. 2010. Does Cross-Sectoral Partnership Deliver? An Empirical Exploration of Public Service Effectiveness, Efficiency, and Equity. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 20:679-701.
- Arslan, A., Golgeci, I., Khan, Z., Al-Tabbaa, O., & Hurmelinna-Laukkanen, P. 2020. Adaptive Learning in Cross-Sector Collaboration during Global Emergency: Conceptual Insights in the Context of COVID-19 Pandemic. *Multinational Business Review*, 1-29.
- ASSADPAM. 2018. *Administratio Publica*, 26(2):1-241.
- Austin, J.E. & Seitanidi, M.M. 2012. Collaborative Value Creation: A Review of Partnering Between Nonprofits and Businesses. Part 1. Value creation spectrum and collaboration stages. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 41(5):726–758.
- Babiak, K. & Thibault, L. 2009. Challenges in Multiple Cross-Sector Partnerships. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38(1)117-143.
- Barth, B., Ferreira J.C., & Miguel, A. 2018. Cross-sector Collaboration for Better Social Outcomes. Policy Report. Berlin: European Venture Philanthropy Association.
- Bason, C. 2010. Leading Public Sector Innovation: Co-Creating for a Better Society.

Bristol: Policy Press.

- Battilana, J., Mair, J., Marquis, C. & Seelos, C. 2018. Rethinking Cross-Sector Social Innovation Call for Papers/Abstracts April 6-7, 2018. Harvard Kennedy School, Massachusetts. Available at: www.hks.harvard.edu.
- Bayne, L., Schepis, D. & Purchase, S. 2017. A Framework for Understanding Strategic Network Performance: Exploring Efficiency and Effectiveness at the Network Level. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 67:134-147.
- Braun, A. 2015. How the operational level managers influence the corporate level strategies and their collective successful implementation. *International Journal of Business Policy & Governance*, 02(10):9-16.
- Bekkers, V. & Tummers, L. 2018. Innovation in the public sector: Towards an open and collaborative approach. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 84(2):209-213.
- Bengtsson, M. 2016. How to plan and perform a qualitative study using content analysis. *Nursing Plus Open*, 2: 8-14.
- Berry, C., Forder, A., Sultan, S. & Moreno-Torres, M. 2004. Approaches to Improving the Delivery of Social Services in Difficult Environments. PRDE Working Paper 3 - October 2004. Department for International Development: UK.
- Bevilacqua, C., Ou, Y., Pizzimenti, P. & Minervino, G. 2019. New Public Institutional Forms and Social Innovation in Urban Governance: Insights from the “Mayor’s Office of New Urban Mechanics” (MONUM) in Boston. *Sustainability*, 12(23): 1-24.
- Bilgaev, A., Dong, S., Li, F., Cheng, H., Sadykova, E. & Mikheeva, A. 2020. Assessment of the Current Eco-Socio-Economic Situation of the Baikal Region (Russia) from the Perspective of the Green Economy Development. *Sustainability*, 12(3767):1-16. Retrieved from www.mdpi.com/journal/sustainability
- Biljohn, M.I.M. 2018. Social Innovation and Service Delivery by Local Government: A Comparative Perspective. Degree Doctor of Philosophy, University of the Free State, Bloemfontein.
- Biljohn, M.I.M. 2019. Developing the Participatory Capacity of South African Citizens in Municipal Service Delivery through Social Innovation. *Politeia*, 38(2):1-19. Available at: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6531-3791>
- Biljohn, M.I.M. & Lues, B. 2016. Role of Local Government in Using Social Innovation for Improved Service Delivery: A 21st Century Strategy With Reference to South Africa. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 9(3):70-81.
- Biljohn, M.I.M. & Lues, L. 2019a. Citizen Participation, Social Innovation, and the Governance of Local Government Service Delivery: Findings from South Africa. *International Journal of Public Administration*. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2019.1628052>

- Binswanger-Mkhize, H.P. 2014. From Failure to Success in South African Land Reform. *African Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics*, 9 (4): 253-269.
- Bitencourt, C., Marconatto, D., Barin Cruz, L., & Raufflet, E. 2016. Introduction to Special Edition Social Innovation: Researching, Defining and Theorizing Social Innovation. *Revista de Administração Mackenzie*, 17:14-19.
- Bolzan, L.M., Bitencourt, C.C. & Martins, B.V. 2019. Exploring the scalability process of social innovation. *RAI - Revista de Administração e Inovação*, 16(3):218-234.
- Bovaird, T., Flemig, S., Loeffler, E. & Osborne, S.P. 2019. How far have we come with co-production-and what's next? *Public Money & Management*, 39(4):229–232.
- Bowen GA. 2009. Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative research journal*, 9(2):27-40.
- Borzaga, C. & Bodini, R. 2014. What to Make of Social Innovation? Towards a Framework for Policy Development. *Social Policy & Society*, 13(3):411-421.
- Brandsen, T., Cattacin, S., Evers, A. & Zimmer, A. 2016. *Social Innovations in the Urban Context*. Springer International Publishing: Switzerland.
- Brandsen, T. & Honingh, M. 2018. Definitions of Co-Production and Co-Creation. In: Brandsen, T., Steen, T. & Verschuere, B (eds). *Co-Production and Co-Creation Engaging Citizens in Public Services*. New York: Routledge. pp 9-17
- Brandsen, T., Steen, T. & Verschuere, B. 2018. Co-Creation and Co-Production in Public Services: Urgent Issues in Practice and Research. In: Brandsen, T., Steen, T. & Verschuere, B (eds). *Co-Production and Co-Creation Engaging Citizens in Public Services*. New York: Routledge. pp 3-8.
- Bruner, E.C.W. 2014. Exploring conditions for successful cross-sector partnerships: Lessons from The Ocean Project & its partner Aquariums. Degree in Sustainable Development: Environmental Governance, Utrecht University.
- Bryson, J., Crosby, B. & Stone, M. 2015. Designing and Implementing Cross-Sector Collaborations: Needed and Challenging. *Public Administration Review*, 75(5):647-663. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12432>
- Business Enterprise. 2015. Impact Evaluation of the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (From its inception in 2004 to February 2013). University of Pretoria: Business Enterprise.
- Butzin, A., Terstriep, J., Ecker, B., Green, H. & Heales, C. 2017. Actors and Interactions in Social Innovation. In: European Commission. Towards a General Theory and Typology of Social Innovation. Deliverable D1.6. pp60-75.
- Cairns, B. & Harris, M. 2010. Local Cross-Sector Partnerships: Tackling the Challenges Collaboratively. A Paper submitted to the From the Field section of Nonprofit Management and Leadership.

- Caldwell, N.D., Roehrich, J.K. & George, G. 2017. Social Value Creation and Relational Coordination in Public-Private Collaborations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 54(6): 906-928.
- Campomoria, F. & Casula, M. 2022. How to Frame the Governance Dimension of Social Innovation: Theoretical Considerations and Empirical Evidence. *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Science Research*, 1-19. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/13511610.2022.2036952>
- Centre for Local Economic Strategies. 2011. Local Work: Creating Greater Innovation in Public Services: Challenges and Opportunities. Issue 96. Retrieved from <https://cles.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2011/01/LW96-Innovation.pdf>
- Chandra, Y., Shang, L. & Mair, J. 2021. Drivers of Success in Social Innovation: Insights into Competition in Open Social Innovation Contests. *Journal of Business Venturing Insights*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/352537278>
- Chicksand, D. 2015. Partnerships: The role that power plays in shaping collaborative buyer-supplier exchanges. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 48:121-139.
- Chomane, P. & Biljohn, M.I. 2021. A Conceptual Framework for Using Social Innovation as an Approach to Local Economic Development. *Africa's Public Service Delivery and Performance Review*, 9(1):1-11.
- Clarke, A. & Crane, A. 2018. Cross-Sector Partnerships for Systemic Change: Systematized Literature Review and Agenda for Further Research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 150:303–313. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3922-2>
- Cloete, E. 2015. A partnering approach to economic development at a sub-national level – A practitioner's perspective. Retrieved from <https://erln.gtac.gov.za/images/jevents/5624b59f0771a8.70138684.pdf>
- Conroy, K., Anderson, M.A., Mastri, A., Benton, A., & Lehman, G. 2021. Facilitating local cross-sector collaboration: Strategies for intermediaries. Issue Brief, Mathematica. Retrieved from https://aspe.hhs.gov/sites/default/files/migrated_legacy_files//198126/Facilitating-Local-Collab.pdf
- CPSI. 2018. Ideas that Works: Innovation Trailblazers. *The South African Public Sector Innovation Journal*, 8(2):1-60.
- CPSI. 2020. Center for Public Service Innovation: Strategic Plan for 2020-2025. Republic of South Africa: CPSI.
- Creswell, J.W. 2012. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Pearson Education: United States.
- Croitoru, A. 2012. Schumpeter, J.A., 1934 (2008), the Theory of Economic Development: An Inquiry into Profits, Capital, Credit, Interest and the Business Cycle, translated from the German by Redvers Opie, New Brunswick (U.S.A) and London (U.K.): A review to a book

- that is 100 years old. *Journal of Comparative Research in Anthropology and Sociology*, 3(2):137-148.
- Cruz, S.S. & Paulino, S. 2020. The Relationship between Social Innovation and Active Mobility Public Services. *Journal of Law and Mobility*, 2020:60-78. Retrieved from: <https://repository.law.umich.edu/jlm/vol2020/iss1/4>
- Cukier, W. & Gagnon, S. 2017. Social Innovation: Shaping Canada's Future. Retrieved from <https://www.ryerson.ca/content/dam/diversity/reports/social-innovation-shaping-canadas-future.pdf>
- Cukier, W & Jackson, S. 2018. Social Innovation and University-Driven Refugee Resettlement. *Peace Review: A Journal of Social Justice*, 30:223–230. Available at DOI: 10.1080/10402659.2018.1458955.
- Cumbria County Council. Corporate Governance Framework and Toolkit for Partnership Working. Retrieved from <https://cumbria.gov.uk/elibrary/Content/Internet/536/6962/44763111024.pdf>
- Cunha, J., Benneworth, P. & Oliveira, P. 2015. Social Entrepreneurship and Social Innovation: A Conceptual Distinction. In: Farinha, L.M.C., Ferreira, J.J.M., Smith, H.L. & Bagchi-Sen, S. *Handbook of Research on Global Competitive Advantage through Innovation and Entrepreneurship*. pp.1-22. Retrieved from <https://ris.utwente.nl/ws/portalfiles/portal/5583353/cunha+et+al+IGI+book.pdf>
- Curnin, S. & O'Hara, D. 2019. Nonprofit and public Sector Interorganizational Collaboration in Disaster Recovery: Lessons from the Field. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 30:277-297.
- DAFF. 2001. The Strategic Plan for South African Agriculture. DAFF: Pretoria.
- DAFF. 2011. Food Security. DAFF: Pretoria.
- DAFF. 2012. Integrated Growth and Development Programme (IGDP). Pretoria: DAFF.
- DAFF. 2013a. Strategic Plan for the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries: 2013/14 to 2017/18. Pretoria: DAFF.
- DAFF. 2013b. Strategic Plan for Smallholder Support. 2011-2014/15. Pretoria: DAFF.
- DAFF. 2016. Annual Report 2015/2016. Pretoria: DAFF.
- DAFF. 2018. National Policy on Comprehensive Producer Development Support: Draft 5 ver. 3. DAFF: Pretoria.
- DAFF. 2019a. *Terms of Reference for the DAFF/JF programme*. 05 July 2019. Pretoria: DAFF. Unpublished.
- DAFF. 2019b. *Jobs Fund Memorandum of Agreement entered into between the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries and Land and Agricultural Development Bank of South Africa*. Pretoria: DAFF. Unpublished.
- DAFF. 2021. DALRRD JF/19 Credit Policy. Pretoria: DALRRD. Unpublished.

- DALRRD. 2020a. *Terms of Reference for Steering Committee*. Pretoria: DALRRD. Unpublished.
- DALRRD. 2020b. *DALRRD/ Jobs Funs Workshop*. 02 December 2020. Unpublished.
- DALRRD. 2020c. *Strategic Plan 2020-2025*. Pretoria: DALRRD.
- DALRRD. 2021. *Terms of Reference for the Steering Committee DALRRD/Jobs Fund Project Commercialisation of Black Producers Jf8/1628-2*. 07 October 2021. Pretoria: DALRRD. Unpublished.
- DALRRD. 2022a. *Agriculture and Agro Processing Master Plan ‘Social Compact’*. Retrieved from https://static.pmg.org.za/220607Agriculture_and_Agro-processing_Master_Plan_Signed.pdf
- DALRRD. 2022b. *Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development Jobs Fund Project: Commercialisation of Black Producers Programme JF8-1628/2-Self Evaluation Report*. Pretoria: DALRRD. Unpublished.
- DALRRD. 2022c. *Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development: Jobs Fund Project Management Team Meeting Minutes*. 13 April 2022. Pretoria: DALRRD. Unpublished.
- DALRRD. nd. *Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development Jobs Fund Project Consultation: Final Internal Audit Report*. Pretoria: DALRRD. Unpublished.
- Danish Red Cross. 2016. *Cross-Sector Partnership Guideline*. Retrieved from <https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/Deloitte/no/Documents/strategy-operations/deloitte-cross-partnership-guideline.pdf>
- Dempsey, N., Burton, M. & Duncan, R. 2016. Evaluating the effectiveness of a cross-sector partnership for green space management: the case of Southey Owlerton, Sheffield, UK. *Urban Forestry and Urban Greening*, 15: 155-164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ufug.2015.12.002>
- Department of Social Development. 2005. *Service Delivery Model for Developmental Social Services*. Department of Social Development: South Africa.
- Dhondt, S., Oeij, P. & Schröder, A. 2017. Resources, Capabilities and Constraints. In: European Commission. *Towards a General Theory and Typology of Social Innovation*. Deliverable D1.6, pp. 42-59.
- DPME. 2015. *Impact Evaluation on the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme. Report on the Assessment of Government Evaluations*. 506. Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation: Republic of South Africa.
- Draai, E. 2010. Collaborative Government for Improved Public Service Delivery in South Africa. *Africa Insight*, 40(2):131-140.
- Duren, P., Goldstein, S., Landøy, A., Repanovici, A. & Saarti, J. 2019. Effects of The New Public Management and Austerity in European Public and Academic Libraries. In: P. Nzomo (ed). *Global Perspective. Journal of Library Administration*, 59:342–357.
- Eckhardt, J., Kaletka, C., Krüger, D., Maldonado-Mariscal, K. & Schulz, A.C. 2021. *Ecosystems*

- of Co-Creation. *Frontiers of Sociology*, 6(642289):1-11. Retrieved from:
<https://www.readcube.com/articles/10.3389/fsoc.2021.642289>
- European Commission. 2013. Guide to Social Innovation. Retrieved from
<https://www.channelmanche.com/assets/document-downloads/EU-Guide-to-Social-Innovation.pdf>
- European Union. 2014. Stimulating Social Innovation through Policy Measures. Reducing Food Waste through Social Innovation. Fusions WP3 Position Paper.
- European Union. 2018. SI-DRIVE- Social Innovation: Driving Force of Social Change. SI-Drive: Final Report March 2018. Retrieved from
<https://cordis.europa.eu/docs/results/612/612870/final1-si-drive-final-report-2018.pdf>
- Evans, B. & Sapeha, H. 2015. Are Non-Government Policy Actors Being Heard? Assessing New Public Governance in Three Canadian Provinces. *Canadian Public Administration*, 58(2):249–270.
- FAO. 2009. A Review of Experience of Establishing Emerging Farmers in South Africa: Case Lessons and Implications for Farmer Support within Land Reform Programme. Retrieved from <http://www.fao.org/dprep/012/i1385e/i1385e.pdf>.
- FAO. 2013. FAO Strategy for Partnership with Private Sector. Retrieved from <https://www.fao.org/3/I3444E/i3444e.pdf>
- Fatemi, M. & Behmanesh, M.R. 2012. New public management approach and accountability. *International Journal of Management, Economics and Social Sciences (IJMESS)*, 1(2):42–49. Available at <https://www.econstor.eu/bitstream/10419/70131/1/737144874.pdf>.
- Fereday, J. and Muir-Cochrane, E. 2006. Demonstrating rigour using thematic analysis: A hybrid approach of inductive and deductive coding and theme development. *International journal of qualitative methods*, 5(1), pp.80-92.
- Fierlbeck, K., Gardner, W. & Levy, A. 2018. New Public Governance in health care: Health Technology Assessment for Canadian pharmaceuticals. *Canadian Public Administration*, 61(1):45–64.
- Findlay-Brooks, R., Visser, W. & Wright, T. 2007. Partnerships for Sustainable Development: An Inclusive Cross-Sector Approach. Cambridge Programme for Sustainability Leadership Paper Series, 4:1-23.
- Forman, J., Creswell, J.W., Damschroder, L., Kowalski, C.P., & Krein, S.L., 2008. Qualitative research methods: Key features and insights gained from use in infection prevention research, *American Journal of Infection Control*, 36(10) December, 764–771.
- Gazley, B. 2017. The Current State of Interorganizational Collaboration: Lessons for Human Service Research and Management. *Human Service Organizations: Management, Leadership & Governance*, 41(1)1–5.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/23303131.2015.1095582>

- GGLN. 2017. Navigating accountability and collaboration in local governance: Perspectives from civil society on local governance in South Africa. Retrieved from <https://planact.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2020/02/State-of-Local-Governance-Publication-SoLG-2017.pdf>
- Goldenberg, M., Kamoji, W. Orton, L. & Williamson, M. 2009. Social innovation in Canada: An update. Canadian Policy Research Network Research Report, Sep 2009. Retrieved from http://www.cprn.org/documents/51684_EN.pdf
- Goldman, I., Engela, R., Akhalwaya, I., Gasa, N., Leon, B., Mohamed, H., Mketi, T. & Phillips, S. 2012. Establishing a National Monitoring and Evaluation System in South Africa. Retrieved from <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/556311468101955480/Establishing-a-national-M-E-system-in-South-Africa>.
- Gordon, A, Becerra, L.D. & Fressoli, M. 2017. Potentialities and Constraints in the Relation between Social Innovation and Public Policies: Some Lessons from South America. *Ecology and Society*, 22(4):1-7. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-09493-220402>
- Grimm, R., Fox, C., Baines, S. & Albertson, K. 2013. Social Innovation, an Answer to Contemporary Societal Challenges? Locating the Concept in Theory and Practice. *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Science Research*, 26(4):436-455. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/13511610.2013.848163>
- Grudinschi, D., Kaljunen, L., Hokkanen, T., Hallikas, J., Sintonen, S. & Puustinen, A. 2013. Management Challenges in Cross-Sector Collaboration: Elderly Care Case Study. *The Innovation Journal: The Public Sector Innovation Journal*, 18(2):1-22.
- GTAC. 2020^a. GTAC Strategic Plan 2020/25. Pretoria: GTAC. Available at: <https://www.gtac.gov.za/wp-content/uploads/2021/11/GTAC-Strategic-Plan-2020-2025.pdf>
- GTAC 2020^b. South African Government Extension to the GTAC PPM Toolkit. Retrieved from https://www.gtac.gov.za/wp-content/uploads/2022/02/PPM-13_-PMBoK-Government-Extension_v1.0_30112020.pdf
- GTAC. 2023. Annual Performance Plan 2023/24. Pretoria: GTAC.
- Hamann, R. & Boulogne, F. 2007. Increasing service delivery through partnerships between private and public sector Capacity Development for partnerships in South Africa. International Business Leaders Forum. Retrieved from <https://thepartneringinitiative.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/08/Education-and-training-services-in-South-Africa.pdf>
- Harayama, Y. & Nitta, Y. 2011. Transforming Innovation to Address Social Challenges. In: OECD. Fostering Innovation to Address Social Challenges: Workshop Proceedings, 11-17. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/science/inno/47861327.pdf>
- Hartley, J., Sørensen, E. & Torfing, J. 2013. Collaborative Innovation: A Viable Alternative to Market-Competition and Organizational Entrepreneurship? *Public Administration Review*, 73(6): 821–830.

- Howaldt, J. 2017. Social Innovation and Social Change. In: European Commission. *Towards a General Theory and Typology of Social Innovation*. Deliverable D1.6. pp.120-132.
- Howaldt, J. & Schröder, A. 2017. Introduction: The Growing Importance of Social Innovation. In: European Commission. *Towards a General Theory and Typology of Social Innovation*. Deliverable D1.6. pp.1-6.
- Hughes, O. 2010. Does Governance Exist? In: Osborne, S.P. (Ed). *The New Public Governance? Emerging Perspectives on the Theory and Practice of Public Governance*. London and New York: Routledge. pp.87-104.
- Hujo, K. 2021. Social Protection and Inequality in the Global South: Politics, Actors and Institutions. *Critical Social Policy*, 41(3): 343–363. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1177/02610183211009899>
- Hulgård, L. & Ferreira, S. Social Innovation and Public Policy. Retrieved from https://www.socialinnovationatlas.net/fileadmin/PDF/volume-2/01_SI_Landscape_Global_Trends/01_04_SI-and-Public-Policy_Hulgard-Ferreira.pdf
- Human Science Research Council. 2014. Policy Brief: Social Innovation in South Africa's Rural Municipalities: Policy Implications. Republic of South Africa, Pretoria. Retrieved from <http://www.hsrc.ac.za/uploads/pageContent/6859/2014%20March%20pb%20social%20innovation.pdf>
- Ibrahim, A. 2012. Is New Public Management Irrelevant to Developing Countries? Available at: <http://www.e-ir.info/2012/10/19/is-new-public-management-irrelevant-to-developing-countries/>
- Ihenacho, E.C. 2018. Advancement of Social Service Delivery through Cross-Sector Partnerships in Nigeria. Doctor of Philosophy Public Policy and Administration, Walden University, Minnesota.
- Islam, F. 2015. New Public Management: A Dominating Paradigms in Public Sectors. *African Journal on Political Science and International Relations*, 9(4): 141-151.
- Jo, S., & Nabatchi, T. 2019. Coproducing Healthcare: Individual-Level Impacts of Engaging Citizens to Develop Recommendations for Reducing Diagnostic Error. *Public Management Review*, 21(3):354-375. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2018.1487577>
- Jooster, E.F. 2008. A New Public Sector in Developing Countries. Working Paper #36, March 2008, POLISCI 140 Term Paper, Collaboratory for Research on Global Projects, Stanford. Available at: <http://crgp.stanford.edu>
- Jordaan, J. 2013. Public Financial Performance Management in South Africa: A Conceptual Approach. Degree Philosophiae Doctor in Public Affairs, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, University of Pretoria, Pretoria.
- Jupp, B. 2000. *Working Together: Creating a Better Environment for Cross-Sector Partnership*. Demos: London.

- Just Governance Group. 2014. Cross-sector Partnerships in Development Cooperation. Number 7, December 2014. Retrieved from <https://justgovernancegroup.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/7-1.pdf>
- Kamau, C.G. & Mohamed, H.B. 2015. Efficacy of Monitoring and Evaluation Function in Achieving Project Success in Kenya: A Conceptual Framework. *Science Journal of Business and Management*, 3(3):82-94.
- Katsamunsa, P. 2012. Classical and Modern Approaches to Public Administration. *Economic Alternatives*, 1,74-81.
- Keast, R. & Mandell, M. 2014. 'The collaborative push: moving beyond rhetoric and gaining evidence'. *Journal of management & governance*, 18:9-28.
- Kempe, R.H. 2001. The New Public Management: Context and Practice in Africa. *International Public Management Journal*, 4:119–134.
- Kindornay, S., Tissot, S. & Sheiban, N. 2014. The Value of Cross-Sector Development Partnerships. Research Report. Ottawa: The South-North Institute.
- Klein, M. & Sychalska-Wojtkiewicz, M. 2020. Cross-Sector Partnerships for Innovation and Growth: Can Creative Industries Support Traditional Sector Innovations? *Sustainability*, 12 (10122):1-19. Retrieved from www.mdpi.com/journal/sustainability
- Krishnan, R., Geyskens, I. & Steenkamp, J.E.M. 2016. The Effectiveness of Contractual and Trust-Based Governance in Strategic Alliances under Behavioral and Environmental Uncertainty. *Strategic Management Journal*, 37: 2521–2542.
- Krlev, G., Anheier, H.K. & Mildemberger, G. 2019. Introduction Social Innovation—What Is It and Who Makes It? In: H.K. Anheier, G. Krlev & G. Mildemberger (Eds). *Social Innovation Comparative Perspectives* (pp. 3-35). New York: Routledge.
- Land Bank. 2021a. *Formative Evaluation Report for the DALRRD Fund*. 07 May 2021. Pretoria: Land Bank. Unpublished.
- Land Bank Letter. 2021b. *T01/01/21 for the provision of once-off Audit Service*. Centurion: Land Bank. Unpublished.
- Lange, P. 2015. Cross-sector Partnerships in Fragile Settings. An end in itself or means to an end? Knowledge Platform Security and Rule of Law. Netherlands Institute of International Relations. Retrieved from https://www.kpsrl.org/sites/default/files/publications/files/research_note_cross_sector_partnerships_in_fragile_settings.pdf
- Lévesque, B. 2012. Social Innovation and Governance in Public Management Systems: Limits of NPM and search for alternatives? Available at: https://crises.uqam.ca/wpcontent/uploads/2018/10/ET1116_GS.pdf
- Li, W., Sadick, M.A., Musah, A.I. & Mustapha, S. 2018. The Moderating Effect of Social

- Innovation in Perspectives of Shared Value Creation in the Educational Sector of Ghana. *Sustainability*, 10(4216):1-26.
- Liddle, J. 2018. Public Value Management and New Public Governance: Key Traits, Issues and Developments. In: E. Ongaro & S. van Thiel (Eds). *The Palgrave Handbook of Public Administration and Management in Europe* (pp.967-990). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-55269-3_49
- Logue, D. 2019. *Theories of Social Innovation*. Edward Elgar Publishing Limited: UK and USA.
- Lu, Z., Zhang, N. & Meng, Q. 2010. Understanding Cross-Sector Collaboration in E-Government Development: Theoretical Consideration Based on Extended Bryson's Framework. Proceedings Pacific Asia Conference on Information Systems (PACIS) 2010 Proceedings. 99. Retrieved from <http://aisel.aisnet.org/pacis2010/99>
- Lystbaek, C.T, Holmgren, J., & Friis, O. 2021. Why Do We Need Strategy in Public Management? Institutional Logics as Strategic Resources in Public Management. *International Public Management Review*, 21(2):1-17.
- Manzini, S.T. 2015. Measurement of innovation in South Africa: An Analysis of Survey Metrics and Recommendations. *South African Journal of Science*, 111(11/12):1-8. Retrieved from <http://www.sajs.co.za>
- Maree, K., Creswell, J.W., Ebersöhn, L., Eloff, I., Ferreira, R., Ivankova, N.V., Jansen, J.D., Nieuwenhuis, J., Pietersen, and J., Plano Clark. 2022. *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Marques, P., Morgan, S.K. & Richardson, R. 2017. Social Innovation in Question: The Theoretical and Practical Implications of a Contested Concept. *Environment and Planning C: Politics and Space*, 36(3):496-512.
- Massey, A & Johnston-Miller, K. 2016. 'Governance: Public Governance to Social Innovation?', Policy and Politics, 44(4):663-675. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1332/030557314X14042230109592>
- Mason, C., Barraket, J., Friel, S., O'Rourke, K. & Stenta, C. 2015. Social Innovation for the Promotion of Health Equity. *Health Promotion International*, 30(S2): ii116–ii125.
- Mathebula, N. 2014. Service Delivery in Local Government through Socio-Economic Programmes: Successes and Failures of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP). *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(20):132-140.
- Matibane, L. 2010. Improving service delivery through partnerships between Local Government, Civil Society and the Private Sector: A case study of Imizamo Yethu. Degree of Master of Public and Development Management at the Stellenbosch University.
- Maxwell J. A. 2013. *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- McGuire, M. & Agranoff, R. 2011. The Limitations of Public Management Networks. *Public Administration*, 89(2): 265-284.

- McQuaid, R.W. 2010. Theory of Organizational Partnerships: Partnership Advantages, Disadvantages and Success Factors. In: Osborne, S.P. (Ed). *The New Public Governance? Emerging Perspectives on the Theory and Practice of Public Governance*. London and New York: Routledge. pp127-148.
- McQuaid, R.W. 2000. The Theory of Partnerships - Why Have Partnerships? In: Osborne, S.P. (ed). *Managing Public-Private Partnerships for Public Services: An International Perspective*. Routledge: London. pp. 9-35.
- Meriggioli, L. & Nardi, S. 2018. The Diffusion of Social Innovation in an Urban Governance Context: The Case of Urban Community Gardening in Copenhagen. Master's Thesis Academic Year 2017-2018, Copenhagen Business School.
- Meyer, D.F. & Meyer, N. 2016. The Relationship between the Creation of an Enabling Environment and Economic Development: A Comparative Analysis of Management at Local Government Sphere. *Polish Journal of Management Studies*, 14(2):150-160.
- Mgumia, A.H., Mattee, A.Z. & Kundic, B.A.T. 2015. Characteristics of Agriculture Technology and Application of an Agricultural Innovation System in Tanzania. *African Journal of Science, Technology, Innovation and Development*, 7(2):73-83.
- Millard, J., Holtgrewe, U. & Hochgerner, J. 2017. Objectives: Social Demands, Societal Challenges and Systemic Change Addressed. In: European Commission. *Towards a General Theory and Typology of Social Innovation*. Deliverable D1.6. pp20-41.
- Minh, V.H. 2012. Challenge of the Imbalance of Economic-social Development in ASEAN. In Zhang, Y., F. Kimura & S. Oum (eds.). *Moving Toward a New Development Model for East Asia- The Role of Domestic Policy and Regional Cooperation*. ERIA Research Project Report 2011-10, Jakarta: ERIA. pp.121-157.
- Mishra, S., and Dey, A. K. 2022. Understanding and Identifying 'Themes' in Qualitative Case Study Research. *South Asian Journal of Business and Management Cases*, 11(3):18
<https://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/jel/article/view>
- Mncina, S.D. & Agholor, A.I. 2021. Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme as the Prime Mover of Agricultural Development Agenda in South Africa. *South African Journal of Agricultural Extension*, 49(1): 122-140.
- Moenian, M., Khamseh, A. & Ghazavi, M. 2022. Social Innovation Based on Collaboration Between Government and Non-Governmental Organizations in COVID-19 Crisis: Evidence from Iran. *Infectious Diseases of Poverty*, 11(13):3-15.
- Mohammad, A., Fahime, M. & Mahdi, A. 2023. Identifying and prioritizing barriers and challenges of Social Innovation implementation in the Public. *European Public & Social Innovation Review*, 8(1):57-72.
- Moreddu, C. 2016. Public-Private Partnerships for Agricultural Innovation: Lessons From Recent

- Experiences. OECD Food, Agriculture and Fisheries Papers, No. 92. Paris: OECD Publishing.
Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/5jm55j9p9rmx-en>
- Morgan, D.F. & Shinn, C.W. 2015. The Foundation of New Public Governance. In: D.F Morgan & B.J. Cook (Eds). *New Public Governance: A Regime-Centered Perspective* (pp.3-13). New York: Routledge.
- Morgan, H., 2022. Conducting a qualitative document analysis. *The Qualitative Report*, 27(1): 64-77.
- Mulgan, G. 2007. *Social Innovation: What it is, Why it matters and How it can be Accelerated*. Skoll Centre for Social Entrepreneurship, Working Paper. London: The Young Foundation.
- Mulgan, G. 2012. The Theoretical Foundations of Social Innovation. In: Nicholls, A. & Murdock, A. (Eds). *Social Innovation* (pp. 33-65). London: Palgrave Macmillan. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230367098_2
- NASCA. 2017. Cross-sector Partnerships: A New Era of PublicPrivate Interdependence.
Retrieved from <https://www.vestedway.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/NASCA-Univ-of-Tenn.pdf>
- Nasir, N.R.B. & Subarib, M.D. 2017. A Review of Social Innovation Initiatives in Malaysia. *Journal of Science, Technology and Innovation Policy (JOSTIP)*, 3(1):9-17.
- National Planning Commission. 2020. Economic Progress towards the National Development Plan's Vision 2030 Recommendations for Course Correction. Pretoria: The Presidency,
Retrieved from www.nationalplanningcommission.org.za/publications_reports.
- National Treasury. 2016. Programme 8: Technical Support and Development Finance. Republic of South Africa, National Treasury. Retrieved from <https://www.gtac.gov.za/Publications/1300Technical%20Support%20and%20Development%20Finance%20WEB%20Version.pdf>
- National Treasury. nd. The Jobs Fund. Retrieved from <http://www.jobsfund.org.za/about.aspx>
- Network for Business Sustainability. 2013. Sustainability through Partnerships: A Guide for Executives. Retrieved from: www.nbs.net/knowledge
- Nicholls, A., Simon, J. & Gabriel, M. Eds. 2015. Introduction: Dimensions of Social Innovation. *New Frontiers in Social Innovation Research*. Retrieved from https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1057/9781137506801_1.pdf
- Noya, A. 2011. The Essential Perspectives of Innovation: The OECD Leed Forum on Social Innovations. In OECD. *Fostering Innovation to Address Social Challenges Workshop Proceedings*, pp.18-24.
- Novikova, M. 2022. Social Innovation Impacts and Their Assessment: An Exploratory Study of a Social Innovation Initiative from a Portuguese Rural Region. *Social Sciences*, 11(122):1-24.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci11030122>
- Nweke, O.C. 2016. A Roundtable on Cross-Sector Collaboration and Resource Alignment for

- Health Equity: Meeting Summary. *Journal of Health Disparities Research and Practice*, 9(6):94-104.
- Oladele, O. I. 2015. Effect of Information Communication Technology (ICT) on Agricultural Information Access among Extension Officers in North West Province South Africa. *South African Journal of Agricultural Extension*, 43 (2): 30 – 41. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.17159/2413-3221/2015/v43n2a344>
- OECD. 2011. Fostering Innovation to Address Social Challenges. Paper Presented at Workshop Proceedings: OECD Innovation Strategy. Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/sti/inno/47861327.pdf>
- OECD. 2014. Innovating the Public Sector: from Ideas to Impact. Building Organisational Capacity for Public Sector Innovation Background Paper. 12-13 November 2014, OECD Conference Centre, Paris. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/innovating-the-public-sector/Background-report.pdf>
- O'Byrne, L., Miller, M., Douse, C., Venkatesh, R. & Kapucu, N. 2014. Social Innovation in the Public Sector: The Case of Seoul Metropolitan Government. *Journal of Economic and Social Studies*, 4(1): 71-53.
- Oregon Health Authority. 2017. The State of Collaboration: A Handbook for Cross-Sector Partnerships Between Oregon's Coordinated Care Organizations and Early Learning Hubs. Retrieved from <https://www.oregon.gov/oha/PH/HEALTHYPEOPLEFAMILIES/BABIES/HEALTHSCREENING/ABCD/Documents/OHA-9410-HUB-CCO-Handbook-Final.pdf>
- Osborne, S.P. 2010. The New Public Governance: A Suitable Case for Treatment? In: S.P. Osborne (Ed). *Emerging Perspective on the Theory and Practice of Public Governance* (pp.1-16). London and New York: Routledge.
- Osborne, S.P., Radnor, Z. & Strokosch, K. 2015. Co-Production and the Co-Creation of Value in Public Services: A suitable case for treatment? *Public Management Review*, 18, 639–53.
- Partnership Resource Centre. 2012. Cross-Sector Partnership Formation – What to Consider Before you Start? Retrieved Online: www.rsm.nl/prc. Accessed on 28 November 2020
- Patapas, A., Raipa, A. & Smalskys, V. 2014. New Public Governance: The Tracks of Changes. *International Journal of Business and Social Research (IJBSR)*, 4(5):25-32.
- Patias, T.Z., Liszbinski, B.B., Gomes, C.M., Brizolla, M.M.B. & Baggio, D.K. 2021. Social Innovation and Sustainability in the Family Agro-Industries. *Revista Eletrônica de Estratégia & Negócios, Florianópolis*, 14(2):53-82.
- Pătrașcu, C. 2018. New Dimensions of Social Innovation: Collaborative Processes and Innovation in the Public Sector. *Public Administration & Regional Studies*, 1(20): 27-36.
- Pedersen, K.H. & Johannsen, L. 2018. New Public Governance in the Baltic States: Flexible

- Administration and Rule Bending. *Public Performance & Management Review*, XX(X):1-20.
Available at: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/15309576.2018.1465828>
- Pereira, B.A.D. & Ckagnazaroff, I.B. 2020. Contributions to Consolidate the New Public Governance: Identifying Dimensions of Analysis. *Cadernos EBAP.EBR*, 19(1):111-122.
- Perello, M. 2020. The role and management of physical space in social innovation. Phd Thesis. POLITECNICO DI TORINO. Retrieved from https://iris.polito.it/bitstream/11583/2678524/1/Michelle_Perello_PhD_Thesis.pdf
- Pestoff, V. & Brandsen, T. 2010. Public Governance and the Third Sector: Opportunities for Co-Production and Innovation? In: Osborne, S.P. (Ed). *The New Public Governance? Emerging Perspectives on the Theory and Practice of Public Governance*. London and New York: Routledge.pp.223-236.
- Peters, G. 2010. Meta-governance and Public Management. In: Osborne, S.P. (Ed). *The New Public Governance? Emerging Perspectives on the Theory and Practice of Public Governance*. London and New York: Routledge.pp.36-51.
- Petrescu, M., Popescu, D., Barbu, I. & Dinescu, R. 2010. Public Management: between the Traditional and New Model. *Review of International Comparative Management*, 11(3):408-415.
- Pillay, S. 2019. Implications of Socioeconomic Issues on the Practice of Co-creation and Governance in South Africa. *Administratio Publica*, 27(4). Available at: <https://youngfoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/10/Social-Innovation-what-it-is-why-it-matters-how-it-can-be-accelerated-March-2007.pdf>
- Pinsent, M.C. 2012. Understanding Social Innovation and the Need for Resiliency: The Volunteer and Non-Profit Sector. Retrieved from https://www.policynl.ca/policydevelopment/documents/pinsent_social_innovation.pdf
- Pinto, H., Nogueira, C., Guerreiro, J.A. & Sampaio, F. 2021. Social Innovation and the Role of the State: Learning from the Portuguese Experience on Multi-Level Interactions. *World*, 2: 62-80. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.3390/world2010005>
- Pisano, U., Lange, L. & Berger, G. 2015. Social Innovation in Europe: An Overview of The Concept of Social Innovation in the Context of European Initiatives and Practices. ESDN Quarterly Report No 36. European Sustainable Development Network, Institute for Managing Sustainability, Vienna University of Economics and Business, Vienna. Retrieved from https://www.esdn.eu/fileadmin/ESDN_Reports/2015-AprilSocial_Innovation_in_Europe.pdf
- Pittz, T.G. & Intindola, M.L. 2021. Scaling Social Innovation Through Cross-sector Social Partnerships: Driving Optimal Performance. Publishing Limited: Bingley, UK.
- Pretorius, E. 2020. A Collaborative Partnership between School Social Workers and Educators: A Vehicle to Address the Social Contexts of Learners and Quality of Education in South Africa. *Social Work*, 56(2):138-156.

- Public Service Commission. 2008. Basic Concepts in Monitoring and Evaluation. Public Service Commission: Republic of South Africa.
- Public Sector Research Centre. 2007. The road ahead for public service delivery Delivering on the Customer promise. Retrieved from https://www.pwc.com/gx/en/psrc/pdf/the_road_ahead_for_public_service_delivery.pdf
- Pue, K., Vandergeest, C. & Breznitz, D. 2015. Towards a Theory of Social Innovation. Innovation Policy Lab White Paper 2016-01, University of Toronto, Ontario, Canada. Retrieved from https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2701477
- Quayle, A., J. Grosvold & L. Chapple. 2019. New Modes of Managing Grand Challenges: Cross-Sector Collaboration and the Refugee Crisis of the Asia Pacific. *Australian Journal of Management*, 44:665-686.
- Raidimi, E.N. & Kabiti, H.M. 2017. Agricultural Extension, Research and Development for Increased Food Security: The Need for Public-Private Sector Partnerships in South Africa. *South African Journal of Agricultural Extension*, 45 (1): 49-63.
- Raman, K. 2014. What is a Public Private Partnership? A definition that addresses the needs of the practitioner and the concerns of the scholar. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/272998665_What_is_a_Public_Private_Partnership/link/54f467f80cf24eb8794e6aaf/download
- Ramakrishnan, R. 2013. Delivery of Public Services-The way Forward. 31st SKOCH Summit. Presented at Thinkers and Writers Forum on 15th & 26th March 2013 March, New Delhi India.
- Rehfeld, D., Scharinger, D., Weber, M. & Romberg, W. 2017. Process Dynamics. In: European Commission. *Towards a General Theory and Typology of Social Innovation*. Deliverable D1.6. pp.76-119.
- Reid, S. & Rein, M. 2008. Working Together: A critical analysis of cross sector partnerships in Southern Africa. In: Hout, W. (ed). *EU Development Policy and Poverty Reduction*. Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing. pp 1-31.
- Reinholde, I. 2017. Path-Dependency of Reforms in Latvia: A Way towards New Public Governance. *Economic Science for Rural Development Conference Proceedings*, 46, 149-157.
- Reinholde, I., Guogis, A., Smalskys, V., Žičkienė, S. & Klimovsky, D. 2020. Considering New Public Governance Possibilities in Central and Eastern Europe. *TILTAI*, 2:1–15.
- Republic of South Africa. 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Reynolds, S., Gabriel, M. & Heales, C. 2016. Social innovation policy in Europe: where next? Retrieved from https://www.siceurope.eu/sites/default/files/field/attachment/social_innovation_policy_in_europe_-_where_next.pdf
- Rhys, A. & Entwistle, T. 2010. Does Cross-Sectoral Partnership Deliver? An Empirical

- Exploration of Public Service Effectiveness, Efficiency, and Equity. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 20: 679-701.
- Ridwan, M. & Bokosi, T. 2020. Examining Cross-Sector Collaboration in Indonesian Socially-Driven Organization: Towards Achieving the Sustainable Development Goals. Degree of Master of Arts. Malmö University.
- Ritchie, J. & Lewis, J. 2003. *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. Sage: London.
- Ritvala, T., Salmi, A. & Andersson, P. 2014. MNCs and Local Cross-Sector Partnerships: The Case of a Smarter Baltic Sea. *International Business Review*, 23(5): 1-32.
- Sadabadi, A. & Rahimi Rad, Z. 2021. How can Cross-sector Partnership Promote Social? Innovation?. *Syst Pract Action Res*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11213-021-09581-w>
- Sandu, S. & Anghel, I. 2016. Social Innovation and Innovation Performance in the European Union. *Annales Universitatis Apulensis Series Oeconomica*, 18(1):57-70.
- Sapparojattana, W. 2020. Management, Collaboration and New Public Governance: A Case Study of a Public Hospital in Thailand. *Public Administration Issues*, 1:171-190.
- Sicilia, M., Sancino, A., Nabatchi, T. & Guarini, E. 2019. Facilitating Co-Production in Public Services: Management Implications from a Systematic Literature Review. *Public Money & Management*, 39(4):233–240.
- Sharma, D. & Vankateswaran, C. 2020. Role of Strategic Management and New Trends in Strategic Thinking in Current Scenario. *International Journal of Recent Technology and Engineering (IJRTE)*, 8(5):4397-4400.
- SI Drive. 2017. Social Innovation: Driving Force of Social Change D10.4: Summary Report on Social Innovation for Poverty Reduction and Sustainable Development. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/wp-content/uploads/sites/22/2020/08/SI-DRIVE-D10_4-Final-Policy-Field-Report-Poverty-Reduction.pdf
- Sono, P.L.N. 2018. An Analysis of the Role of the Centre for Public Service Innovation in Promoting Intrapreneurship in the South African Public Service. Masters in Public Management, University of Pretoria, Pretoria.
- Sørensen, E. & Torfing, J. 2011. Enhancing Collaborative Innovation in the Public Sector. *Administration and Society*, 43 (8): 842–868.
- Sørensen, E., & Torfing, J. 2013. Enhancing Social Innovation by Rethinking Collaboration, Leadership and Public Governance. Paper presented at NESTA Social Frontiers, London, United Kingdom.
- Sørensen, E. & Torfing, J. 2015. Enhancing Public Innovation through Collaboration, Leadership and New Public Governance. In: A. Nicholls, J. Simon & M. Gabriel (Eds.). *New Frontiers in Social Innovation Research*. pp.145-169. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/304884989>

- Sorrentino, M., Sicilia, M. & Howlett, M. 2018. Understanding Co-Production as a New Public Governance Tool. *Policy and Society*, 37(3):277–293. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1080/14494035.2018.1521676>
- Sossna, S. 2014. Social Innovation an Overview on the Interpretation of the Concept in Theoretical and Policy Discourse. BSc Thesis International Development Studies, Wageningen University, Wageningen.
- Steurer, R. 2007. From Government Strategies to Strategic Public Management: An Exploratory Outlook on the Pursuit of Cross-Sectoral Policy Integration. Discussion Paper 1-2007, Institute of Forest, Environmental and Natural Resource Policy, University of Natural Resources and Applied Life Sciences, Vienna.
- Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. 1998. *The basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. 2nd edn. Sage: Thousand Oaks.
- Strokosch, K. 2018. Understanding value co-creation in public services for transforming European public administrations. Report: Co-VAL-770356.COVAL.
- Tarnawska, K. & Ćwiklicki, M. 2012. Evaluation of the European Social Fund as a Measure to Support Social Innovation in the Public Sector. *Economics and Management*, 17 (1):237-243.
- Tauté, N. 2021. The Use of Collaborative Partnerships to Improve Service Delivery in South African Local Government. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 17(2):1-24. https://doi.org/10.35683/jcm20_8.132
- TEPSIE. 2014. Social Innovation Theory and Research: A Summary of the Findings from TEPSIE.'A Deliverable of the Project: The Theoretical, Empirical and Policy Foundations for Building Social Innovation in Europe. European Commission, 7th Framework Programme, European Commission, Brussels.
- Tepsie. 2015. Growing Social Innovation a Guide for Policy Makers. Retrieved from [Growing%20Social%20Innovation%20%20A%20Guide%20for%20Policy%20Makers.pdf](#)
- Terstriep, J. & Rehfeld, D. 2020. Bridging Local Embeddedness And Global Dynamics – The Economics of Social Innovation. *European Planning Studies*, 28(5):853-863. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1080/09654313.2020.1766106>
- Thakur, B. S. and Chetty, P. 2020. Project Guru. [Online] Available at: <https://www.projectguru.in/how-to-establish-the-validity-and-reliability-of-qualitative-research/> [Accessed 14 08 2023].
- The Jobs Fund. 2012. Questions and Answers on The Projects Funded by the Jobs Fund as of December 03, 2012. Pretoria: The Jobs Fund. Available at: http://www.jobsfund.org.za/docs/Jobs%20Fund%20FAQs_3%20Dec%202012_final.pdf
- The Jobs Fund. 2018. The Jobs Fund Profile: Funding Job Creation. Retrieved from <http://www.jobsfund.org.za/docs/JF%20Learning%20Series%20Jobs%20Fund%20Overview.pdf>

- The Jobs Fund. 2019. *Grant Agreement entered between the National Treasury of the Government of the Republic of South Africa acting through the Government Technical Advisory Centre and the Government of the Republic of South Africa through the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries*. Pretoria: The Jobs Fund. Unpublished.
- The Jobs Fund. 2023. Siyasebenza. March 2023 News letter. Retrieved from http://www.jobsfund.org.za/news/JF_Newsletter_March%202023.pdf
- The Presidency. 2020. Building a Society that Works Public Investment in a Mass Employment Strategy to Build a New Economy. Retrieved from <http://www.thepresidency.gov.za>
- Tohidi, H. & Jabbari, M.M. 2012. The importance of Innovation and its Crucial Role in Growth, Survival and Success of Organizations. *Procedia Technology*, 1:535-538.
- Torfing, J. & Triantafillou, P. 2013. What's in a Name? Grasping New Public Governance as a Political-Administrative System. *International Review of Public Administration*, 18(2):9-25.
- Tracey, P. & Stott, N. 2017. Social Innovation: A Window on Alternative Ways of Organizing and Innovating. *Innovation: Management, Policy & Practice*, 19(1):51-60.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14479338.2016.1268924>
- Tsakanika, L. 2017. Building Social Innovation Ecosystems: A Capability Approach. Masters in Economía Social, University of Valencia, Valencia.
- Tummers, L. and Karsten, N. 2012. Reflecting on the role of literature in qualitative public administration research: Learning from grounded theory. *Administration and Society*, 44(1), pp.64-86.
- Unceta, A. & Barandiarán, X. 2019. Social Innovation as an instrument for Public Innovation. *UCJC Business and Society Review*, 16(1.04):100-111. Also available at DOI: 10.3232/UBR.2019.
- United Nations. 2006. Innovations in Governance and Public Administration: Replicating what Works. Publication No ST/ESA/PAD/SER.E/72. Department of Economic and Social Affairs: United States of America.
- United Nations. 2022. 2022-2025 Partnership Strategy for the Acceleration of the SDG and the Implementation of the United Nations Sustainable Development Cooperation Framework for Mexico (UNSDCF) 2020-2025. UN: Mexico. Available at:
https://sdgs.un.org/sites/default/files/2022-11/Mexico_Partnership_Strategy_2022-2025.pdf
- UNDP. 2014. Social Innovation for Public Service Excellence. UNDP Global Centre for Public Service Excellence: Singapore.
- UNDP. 2015. From Old Public Administration to the New Public Service Implications for Public Sector Reform in Developing Countries. Singapore: UNDP Global Centre for Public Service Excellence. Retrieved from www.undp.org/publicservice
- van Hille, I., de Bakker, F.G.A, Ferguson, J.E. & Groenewegen, P. 2020. Cross-Sector Partnerships for Sustainability: How Mission-Driven Conveners Drive Change in National Coffee Platforms? *Sustainability*, 12(2846):1-23.

- van Niekerk, L., Manderson, L. & Balabanova, D. 2021. The Application of Social Innovation In Healthcare: A Scoping Review. *Infectious Diseases of Poverty*, 10(26):2-25.
- Van Rheede, L.N. & Bayat, M.S. 2019. The Determination of Social Needs as Drivers of Social Innovation. *Management Studies and Economic Systems (MSES)*, 4 (1):197-208.
- van Tulder, R. & Keen, N. 2018. Capturing Collaborative Challenges: Designing Complexity-Sensitive Theories of Change for Cross-Sector Partnerships. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 150:315-332. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3857-7>
- Vasin, S.M., Gamidullaeva, L.A. & Rostovskaya, T.K. 2017. The Challenge of Social Innovation: Approaches and Key Mechanisms of Development. *European Research Studies Journal*, XX(2B): 25-45.
- Victorian Council of Social Science. 2018. Partnership Practice Guide. Guide 4: Partnership Governance, Models and Leadership. Retrieved from <https://vcoss.org.au/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/VCOSS-Guide-4-Partnership-Governance-Models-and-Leadership.pdf>
- Vignieri, V. 2020. Changes and current challenges in Public Administration: A focus on the shifts in management modes of public service organizations, value generation logics of public service delivery, and performance management applied to governance. Retrieved from <https://www.vincenzovignieri.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/Changes-and-current-challenges-in-Public-Administration-.pdf>
- Vinokur-Kaplan, D. 2018. New Public Governance, Social Services, and the Potential of Co-Located Nonprofit Centers for Improved Collaborations. *Nonprof Pol Forum*, 8(4):445-464.
- Vogel, R., Göbel, M., Grewe-Salfeld, M., Herbert, B., Matsuo, Y. & Weber, C. 2021. Cross-Sector Partnerships: Mapping the Field and Advancing an Institutional Approach. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 1(21):1-21.
- Voorberg, W.H., Bekkers, V.J.J.M. & Tummers, L.G. 2014. A Systematic Review of Co-Creation and Co-Production: Embarking on the Social Innovation Journey. *Public Management Review*, 320090:1-39.
- Vopni, L. 2020. COLLABORATION IN A CRISIS: CROSS-SECTOR RESPONSES TO THE EBOLA PANDEMIC. Cambridge Centre for Social Innovation. Research Report. Retrieved from <https://www.jbs.cam.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/2020-mstsi-researchsummary-vopni.pdf>
- Wang, E.L. Cross-Sectoral Partnerships as a framework for understanding Social Enterprises in China. National University of Singapore, King's College, London.
- Weber, C., Weidner, K., Kroeger, A. & Wallace, J. 2017. Social Value Creation in Inter-Organizational Collaborations in the Not-for-Profit Sector – Give and Take from a Dyadic Perspective. *Journal of Management Studies*, 54(6): 929-956.

- Weerakkody, V., Sivarajah, U., Irani, Z. & Osmani, M. 2014. Evaluating the Public Value of Social Innovation. Retrieved from <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/29140298.pdf>
- Wenner, M.D. 2007. Dealing with Coordination Issues in Rural Development Projects: Game Theory Insights. RUR-07-06. Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank.
- World Bank. 2015. The South Africa Agriculture Public Expenditure Review. Pretoria: DAFF.
- World Bank. 2018. Overcoming Poverty and Inequality in South Africa: An Assessment of Drivers, Constraints and Opportunities. The World Bank: Washington.
- World Meteorological Organization. 2018. Meeting Report Project: Steering Committee Meeting 2 March 2018. Nairobi Safari Club: Nairobi, Kenya. Available at: https://amcomet.wmo.int/sites/default/files/field/doc/events/report_steering_committee.pdf
- Wyrwa, J. 2018. Cross-Sector Partnership as a Determinant of Development – The Perspective of Public Management. *Management*, 22(1):119-137.
- Xu, R.Y., Sun, Q.G. & Si, W. 2015. The Third Wave of Public Administration: The New Public Governance. *Canadian Social Science*, 11(7):11-21. Retrieved from <http://www.cscanada.net/index.php/css/article/view/7354> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3968/7354>
- Yan, X., Lin, H. & Clarke, A. 2018. Cross-Sector Social Partnerships for Social Change: The Roles of Non-Governmental Organizations. *Sustainability*, 10(558): 1-17.

Appendix 1: Proof of language editing

<p>Independent Editor Dr Nhlanhla Landa</p>	<p>landamasuku@gmail.com +27835841854</p>
<p>Professional EDITORS Guild</p>	
<p>CERTIFICATE OF EDITING</p>	
<p>This document certifies that a copy of the dissertation whose title appears below was edited for proper English language usage, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and overall style by Dr Nhlanhla Landa whose academic qualifications and professional affiliation appear in the footer of this document. The research content and the author's intentions were not altered during the editing process.</p>	
<p>TITLE: CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS AND SOCIAL INNOVATION: A STRATEGY FOR PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT</p>	
<p>AUTHORS: TSHWENE MALETE (STUDENT NUMBER: 2013098237)</p>	
<p>Note: The edited work described here may not be identical to that submitted. The author, at their sole discretion, has the prerogative to accept, delete, or change amendments made by the editor before submission. The completeness and accuracy of the reference list remain responsibilities of the client. Equally, the overall quality of the document is the responsibility of the client.</p>	
<p>DATE: 13 December 2023</p>	
<p>EDITOR'S COMMENT</p>	
<p>The author was advised to effect suggested corrections in regards to clarity of terms, consistency in structure and logic, and expression.</p>	
<p> Signature</p>	
<p>PhD Applied Linguistics (UFH), MA Applied Linguistics (MSU), BA (Honours) English and Communication (MSU) Professional Membership: A member of the Professional Editors Guild, South Africa</p>	

Appendix 2: Ethical clearance



GENERAL/HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (GHREC)

18-Oct-2023

Dear Dr Mareve Biljohn

Application Approved

Research Project Title:

CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS AND SOCIAL INNOVATION: A STRATEGY FOR PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Ethical Clearance number:
UFS-HSD2023/2037

We are pleased to inform you that your application for ethical clearance has been approved. Your ethical clearance is valid for twelve (12) months from the date of issue. We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your study/research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure ethical transparency. Furthermore, you are requested to submit the final report of your study/research project to the ethics office. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension. Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethical clearance; we wish you the best of luck and success with your research.

Yours sincerely

Dr Adri Du Plessis

Chairperson: General/Human Research Ethics Committee

**Adri
Du
Plessis** Digitally
signed by Adri
Du Plessis
Date:
2023.10.18
17:59:37
+02'00'

205 Nelson Mandela
Drive
Park West
Bloemfontein 9001
South Africa

P.O. Box 339
Bloemfontein 9000
Tel: +27 (0)51 401
9337
du.plessis@ufs.ac.za
www.ufs.ac.za



Appendix 3: Turnitin report

ev.turnitin.com

feedback studio

Tshwene Bridget Malete | T Malete manuscript

/100

1 of 10

Preparing download...

CROSS-SECTOR PARTNERSHIPS AND SOCIAL INNOVATION: A STRATEGY FOR PUBLIC SECTOR PROGRAMME DELIVERY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, LAND REFORM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

By

TSHWENE BRIDGET MALETE

Student no: 2013098237

Mini dissertation submitted in partial requirement for the degree Masters of Public Administration

in the

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE

PROMOTER: Dr Maréve Biljohn

BLOEMFONTEIN

Match Overview

18%

Currently viewing standard sources

View English Sources

Matches	Source	Percentage
1	scholar.ufs.ac.za Internet Source	2%
2	Joanna Wyrwa. "Cross-... Publication	1%
3	www.si-drive.eu Internet Source	1%
4	Submitted to University... Student Paper	1%
5	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	<1%
6	journals.sagepub.com Internet Source	<1%
7	kipdf.com Internet Source	<1%
8	www.oecd.org	<1%