

Practitioners' perspectives on cross-sector collaborations

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Master of Research

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Abstract

The increasing need to collaborate across sectors to tackle complex problems has driven the development of an industry of cross-sector collaboration practitioners. The purpose of this study is to create new understanding about the work of practitioners in cross-sector collaborations. While cross-sector collaboration research has drawn upon the views of such practitioners this has typically been in the context of a single case analysis. The study collected data from 15 interviews to provide further understanding of the work of cross-sector collaboration practitioners. An interpretive analysis of the practitioners' perspectives was conducted and presented people, processes, collaboration and governance as significant themes in the results. Practitioners identified many elements already present in the existing literature as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations. The results also produced new findings including the need for the principal governance group working on the cross-sector collaboration to have ultimate decision-making authority, the need for bespoke processes for each collaboration, and the importance of place and place attachment in cross-sector collaborations. The study concludes by suggesting further research be conducted on practitioners' perspectives on governance, government-led collaborations, and the role of place and wisdom in cross-sector collaborations.

Statement of candidate

This thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Research in the Faculty of Business and Economics, Macquarie University. I certify that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other university or institution.

I certify that to the best of my knowledge all sources used and any help received in the preparation of this thesis have been acknowledged.

The Faculty of Business & Economics Human Research Ethics Sub Committee has deemed that this research meets the requirements of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007* (Reference Number 5201500483).

Signed: 

Jarryd Daymond

23 October 2015

Chapter 1 Introduction

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research background

The purpose of this study is to create new understanding about the work of practitioners in cross-sector collaborations. It takes as its starting point the view that society faces complex problems and that cross-sector collaborations will increasingly be the vehicles for addressing those problems (Sun & Anderson 2012). Despite many stakeholders having an interest in seeing these problems remedied, none of these stakeholders alone has enough time, money, knowledge or authority to address them (Crosby 2010). Crosby and Bryson describe these as “public problems in a no-one-in-charge, shared-power world” (Crosby & Bryson 2005, p. 1).

The premise of a shared-power world and the need for collaboration has helped contribute to a growing literature on collaboration. “Collaborative interactions occur when multiple organizations share responsibility for interconnected tasks and work together to pursue collectively complex goals that cannot be accomplished by a single organization” (McNamara 2011, p.2). Collaboration has been proposed as a means to enhance complex problem-solving (Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008; Imperial 2005; Rethemeyer & Hatmaker 2008; Weber & Khademian 2008) since these problems are rarely the responsibility of a single entity and require a range of expertise and knowledge to address them (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Burns et al. 2006; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2012; Kettl 2006; McGuire 2006; Moore & Hartley 2008; Quick & Feldman 2011; Wood & Gray 1991). The challenge of doing collaborative projects to achieve complex goals has helped drive scholarly research on the topic.

Research increasingly focuses on *cross-sector* collaborations as government and organisations from different sectors need to partner to address problems that they otherwise would not be able to tackle independently (Kettl 2015). While much research has broadly addressed collaboration, there is less known about the management of collaborations across sectors (Babiak & Thibault 2009; McNamara 2011). Bryson, Crosby and Stone define cross-sector collaboration as “the linking or sharing of information, resources, activities, and capabilities by organizations in two or more sectors to achieve jointly an outcome that could not be achieved by organizations in one sector separately” (2006, p. 44). The challenge of addressing complex problems for the public good has stimulated researchers to develop several theoretical frameworks to explain and understand the phenomenon (Agranoff 2007, 2012; Ansell & Gash 2008; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2011; Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012; Provan & Kenis 2008; Thomson & Perry 2006).

Integrative leadership refers to a stream of theory that relates to leadership specifically in the context of cross-sector collaborations (Morse 2010). Crosby and Bryson (2014) define integrative leadership as “integrating people, resources and organisations across various boundaries to tackle complex public problems and achieve the common good” (Crosby & Bryson, 2014, p. 57). Since most cross-sector collaborations have an element of public interest in the outcome it is also referred to as integrative public leadership. A synthesis of the integrative public leadership literature shows that integrative public leaders catalyse cross-sector collaborations through four dimensions: integrative thinking, integrative behaviour, integrative leadership resources, and integrative structures and processes (Sun & Anderson 2012).

Much cross-sector collaboration theory has been developed by analysing the practices of these collaborations in single case studies. This focus on practice aligns with assertions that a

“turn to practice” (Schatzki, Knorr-Cetina & Von Savigny 2001) has taken place in the social sciences (Corley & Gioia, 2011; Reckwitz, 2002). In parallel to the turn to practice in contemporary social theory, a “pragmatic turn” has taken place in philosophy wherein the practical wisdom of actors is acknowledged (Bernstein 2010; Egginton & Sandbothe 2004; Innes & Booher 2010; Menand 2001). Cross-sector collaboration research focuses on practice and the significant theoretical frameworks explaining cross-sector collaboration are derived from literature that analyses case studies (see Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Thomson & Perry 2006; Ansell & Gash 2008; Agranoff 2007, 2012; Provan & Kenis 2008; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2011; Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012). Collectively these articles “advocate for a variety of research designs and the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods” (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015, p. 650). Cross-sector collaborations comprise multi-layered and interconnected webs of elements. Such complexity supports arguments that cross-sector collaborations as practice are “richly constituted when done well and not easily reduced to the scaled variables of variance studies” (Crosby & Bryson 2014, p. 61). One may plausibly contend that they do not lend themselves to precise theoretical models and measurement of relevant variables (O’Leary & Vij 2012).

The increasing need to collaborate across sectors to tackle complex problems has driven the development of an industry of cross-sector collaboration practitioners. These practitioners include people working as consultants and partnership brokers; they are experienced at designing and facilitating such collaborations. While cross-sector collaboration research has drawn upon the views of such “practitioners” this has typically been in the context of a single case analysis (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Bryson et al. 2008; Lai 2012; McNamara 2011; Provan & Kenis 2008; Simo & Bies 2007). There exists, therefore, an opportunity to explore existing theoretical understandings of cross-sector collaborations through the lens of a sample of cross-sector collaboration practitioners.

1.2. Research problem and questions

The aim of this research is to address the following research problem through an interpretivist interview-based study:

Research problem: How do practitioners work on cross-sector collaborations?

In addressing this problem, the study will examine three research questions. The first question explores the practitioners’ perspectives on what the most important aspects doing of cross-sector collaborations are.

Question 1: What do collaborative practitioners identify as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations?

The second question will compare practitioner perspectives to established theoretical frameworks on cross-sector collaborations.

Question 2: Which elements of existing cross-sector collaboration frameworks do collaborative practitioners emphasise?

Given the literature’s emphasis on the connection between integrative leadership and effective cross-sector collaborations, the third sub-question will examine practitioners’ perspectives on the role of leadership in such collaborations.

Question 3: What role do practitioners see leadership playing in cross-sector collaborations?

1.3. Design of the study

Cross-sector collaborations are “social” phenomenon because they are comprised of interconnected elements such as pre-existing networks of relationships, sponsors and champions, leaders, members, rules and norms, power dynamics and conflict (Agranoff 2007, 2012; Ansell & Gash 2008; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2011; Provan & Kenis 2008; Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012; Thomson & Perry 2006). Social phenomena of this complexity cannot be easily reduced to scaled variables and explanatory studies (Crosby & Bryson 2014, p. 61). They better align with approaches that seek to understand the elements and their interactions within an interpretivist paradigm. For these reasons, this study has embraced a constructionist epistemology and interpretivist research paradigm.

Since this study requires methods that account for the constructed nature of knowledge, the complexity of cross-sector collaborations, and the understanding-oriented inquiry demanded by explorations of social phenomena, I chose qualitative research methods to achieve the aims of the study. The qualitative approach in the study uses elements of the “long interview” method advocated by McCracken (1988). Similar to a semi-structured interview, this approach allows the researcher to define the area of enquiry while still allowing interviewees to express themselves in a natural manner not permitted by the confines of a structured interview. The method uses a questionnaire comprising of a “set of grand-tour questions with floating prompts at the ready” (p. 37). This enables each interview to cover the relevant material in a similar order for each interviewee, while allowing for open-ended responses and maintaining a conversational approach that accords with the co-constructed research process of the study. The content of the interview questionnaire was designed around key elements of the Bryson, Crosby and Stone (2006) framework relating to the conditions precipitating successful collaborative initiatives and their processes, practices, structures and governance. The overview questions were designed to draw out open-ended responses that addressed these phenomena, with floating prompts identified to further explore specific elements related to each of these areas.

1.4. Organisation of the thesis

This chapter has described the research background, the research problems and questions, and summarised the design of the study. The following section provides a brief outline for each chapter.

1.4.1. Chapter 2

Chapter 2 provides an overview of extant literature relevant to this research. The literature review addresses three areas. First, it explains the nature of complex problems requiring shared-power solutions and the role of collaborations in solving such problems. Second, it focuses on theory dealing with cross-sector collaborations and presents an overview of the elements of important theoretical frameworks. Third, it presents literature addressing the role of leadership in making effective cross-sector collaborations happen. It identifies an opportunity to extend the theory from the perspective of collaborative practitioners and justifies this in relation to a turn to practice in social science research. The chapter concludes by presenting research questions to extend the cross-sector collaboration theory.

1.4.2. Chapter 3

Chapter 3 outlines the design of the study. The constructionist epistemology and interpretivist paradigm of the study will be described here. The chapter will justify the qualitative approach adopted for this study, describe the long-interview method for collecting data, and explain the approach to interview transcript analysis.

1.4.3. Chapter 4

Chapter 4 presents my interpretive analysis of the practitioners' perspectives. The analysis focuses on the most significant themes presented in the results, namely "people", "process", "collaboration" and "governance". Excerpts from the transcripts relating to the themes are analysed and findings presented in relation to each. The chapter concludes by discussing the key findings in relation to existing theory.

1.4.4. Chapter 5

Chapter 5 will present the conclusions of the study in relation to the research problem and questions, providing practitioner perspectives on how they work on cross-sector collaborations. Unique findings will be identified and used to draw implications for theory and practice. The chapter will conclude by noting limitations of the current study and offering possibilities for future research on cross-sector collaborations.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature and develops the theoretical foundation upon which this research is based. The chapter therefore synthesises relevant literature and identifies key themes relating to the research problem. First, I discuss the nature of complex problems that require shared-power solutions. Second, I summarise the literature on collaboration. In particular, the literature review discusses the role of leadership within collaborations before focusing on the sub-segment of the literature dealing specifically with cross-sector collaborations. I take account of the turn to practice in the study of social sciences as I identify an opportunity to extend cross-sector collaboration theory from the perspective of practitioners. The chapter concludes by presenting my research questions.

2.2. Complex problems (requiring shared-power solutions)

The significant problems facing humanity in the 21st century can appear increasingly complex. These problems include poverty, food security, and epidemic disease in a world undergoing climate change. Indeed, many significant problems originate at national, regional or global systems-levels and are multifaceted in nature. Since system-level problems by their nature involve complexity, they can also be referred to as complex problems. As system-level problems are complex they usually cannot be overcome by simple solutions. Efforts to address one element of a multifaceted problem alone would unlikely address the entirety of the problem.

It has been almost half a century since academic scholars first recognised that public problems are complex and dynamic (Churchman 1967; Rittel & Webber 1973), making it difficult to apply traditional frameworks comprising of isolated notions of problem definition, administration, and resolution (Roberts 1997, 2000, 2002; Weber & Khademian 2008). Public problems are often complex problems as they have an effect on multiple constituents from multiple spheres of life (Bryson & Crosby 1992; Bryson & Einsweiler 1991; Cleveland 2002). For example, public health problems have the potential to affect healthcare providers, businesses, education systems, citizens and the economy in general. Complex public problems affect many individuals, groups and organisations; in turn, many individuals, groups and organisations contribute to the problems and do not solely retain resources that address the problems in (Crosby 2010). No single party “owns” these problems per se, but all have an interest in their resolution. Furthermore, even though various stakeholders have an interest and possibly a partial responsibility in seeing these problems remedied, none of these stakeholders alone have enough time, money or authority to address them (Crosby 2010). Crosby and Bryson describe these as “public problems in a no-one-in-charge, shared-power world” (Crosby & Bryson 2005).

Given the premised of no-one-in-charge shared-power world, power-sharing arrangements are required to effectively address complex public problems (Crosby 2010). To achieve these arrangements, the challenge of leadership is to, first, assemble a coalition of diverse stakeholders and, second, to develop a shared understanding of the problem and a shared intent for the intended solution (Crosby & Bryson 2005; Roberts & King 1996). Given the complexity of public problems, attempting to assemble a diverse group of stakeholders should go beyond merely ensuring representation from all interested stakeholder groups—representation should seek to also ensure a diversity of roles, opinions, experiences and *modi operandi* to collaboratively engage with the complexity of the problem.

2.3. Collaboration

The premise of a shared power world and the resultant need for collaboration has helped contribute to a growing literature on collaboration. Drawing together several studies, McNamara (2011) posits that “[c]ollaborative interactions occur when multiple organizations share responsibility for interconnected tasks and work together to pursue collectively complex goals that cannot be accomplished by a single organization” (2011, p.2 citing (Keast, Brown & Mandell 2007; Mattessich & Monsey 1992; Thomson & Perry 2006). Collaboration has been proposed as a means through which to enhance complex problem-solving (Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008; Imperial 2005; Rethemeyer & Hatmaker 2008; Weber & Khademian 2008), since these problems are rarely the responsibility of a single entity and require a range of expertise and knowledge to address them (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Burns et al. 2006; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2012; Kettl 2006; McGuire 2006; Moore & Hartley 2008; Quick & Feldman 2011; Wood & Gray 1991). The role collaborative interactions can play in achieving complex goals has led some to view effective collaboration as an elusive concoction of composite activities that, when brewed under the right conditions, can provide the secret ingredient to solve multifaceted problems. As a result, there is an increasing need to “look inside the black box of collaboration processes” (Thomson & Perry 2006) to determine how to effectively collaborate.

2.3.1. Leading collaborations

Some investigators have identified leadership as a component within the “black box” and collaborative leadership has emerged as another strand in the raft leadership theories. Interest in collaborative leadership is also due to the increased need to collaborate in a range of different situations, and is spurred on by criticisms that mainstream leadership theories do not adequately apply to collaborative contexts (see for example Huxham and Vangen, 2005). The result is evolving theorisation of the desired behaviours and competencies of collaborative leaders (Crosby & Bryson 2005; Getha-Taylor 2008; Linden 2003; Luke 1998; Morse 2008; Williams 2002). Within the context of collaboration some commentators have emphasised action and public outcomes. Crosby and Bryson define leadership in collaborative contexts as “the inspiration and mobilization of others to pursue collective action in pursuit of the common good” (Crosby & Bryson 2005, p. xix). Similarly, Huxham and Vangen (2005) have attempted to overcome the shortcomings of leadership theories as applied to collaborative contexts by focusing on collaborative leadership as “what makes things happen in a collaboration” (p. 202). Their grounded theory study of collaborations found that collaborative leadership is enacted through the interconnected media of structures, processes and participants.

2.3.1.1. Structures

Structural arrangements play an integral role within interorganisational collaborations (Alter & Hage 1993). Both formal and informal structural connections between organisations are significant factors in shaping agendas and their implementation (Huxham & Vangen 2005). For example, Huxham and Vangen (2005, p. 204) suggest that structural interconnections “determine such key factors as who may have an influence on shaping a partnership agenda, who may have power to act and what resources may be tapped”. Further, structural arrangements can affect interorganisational collaborations at multiple stages. For example, existing networks or prior relationships can serve as “linking mechanisms” (Waddock 1986) and are often antecedental to the formation of partnerships (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006). Morse (2010) has extended the discussion of antecedent conditions by using the concept of “boundary

organisations”, originally used to represent formal relational structures linking science and non-science domains (Guston 2001). Morse (2010) describe boundary organisations as “structures that exist prior to the formation of new partnerships and give rise to boundary work that often results in the formation of new partnerships” (Morse 2010, p. 234). To this end, boundary organisations can be viewed as structural catalysts driving the development of interorganisational collaborations (Morse 2010) and may include collectives such as cross-boundary taskforces, teams, networks, working groups, and steering and coordinating committees.

2.3.1.2. Processes

Processes are another media through which collaborative leadership is enacted (Huxham & Vangen 2005). These include the “formal and informal instruments—such as committees, workshops, seminars, telephone, fax and e-mail—through which the collaboration’s communications take place” (Huxham & Vangen 2005, p. 205). Morse (2010) draws special attention to the role of boundary experiences in catalysing “integration and collaborative action” (p. 234), where boundary experiences are “shared or joint activities that create a sense of community and an ability to transcend boundaries among participants” (Feldman et al. 2006, p. 94 cited in Morse, 2010, p. 234). This understanding aligns with actor-network theory (Latour 1987, 2005) which asserts that all associations in a network must be accounted for in terms of the manner in which they ‘act’ to influence networks. In actor-network theory “anything that ... modif[ies] a state of affairs by making a difference is an actor” (Latour 2005, p. 71). Therefore, it is suggested that both boundary experiences such as strategic planning activities and boundary objects, which include artefacts such as strategic plans, play a role in catalysing collaborative action (Bryson, Crosby & Bryson 2009; Morse 2010). Boundary objects can form a “facilitative device” (De Geus 1988) that help transform “here-and-now real possibilities to the there-and-then actualities” (Crosby, Bryson & Stone 2010, p. 205). Strategy maps and the process of creating them can help develop shared understandings of the direction and objectives of collaborations (Bryson, Crosby & Bryson 2009). Further, they can surface concerns and then provide dialoguing and decision processes that help collaborators “make sense of their world and ... connect people, ideas, and other kinds of actors into a way forward” (Bryson, Crosby & Bryson 2009, p. 202-203). Processes thus play a significant role in collaborations.

2.3.1.3. Participants

The collaborative leadership role is acknowledged in interorganisational contexts (Williams 2002) where individuals who “engage in networking tasks and employ methods of coordination and task integration across organizational boundaries” (Alter & Hage 1993, p. 46) are referred to as ‘boundary spanners’ (Williams 2002). These ‘boundary spanners’ are also referred to as ‘catalysts’ (Luke 1998) since they provide “a spark or catalyst that truly makes a difference” (Luke 1998, p. 4). However the mere presence of catalyst participants, or particular structures and processes, are not sufficient to effectively enact collaborative leadership. To “make things happen” in the context of complex cross-sector collaborations leadership is required to integrate these elements such they result in an effective collaborative initiative (Crosby & Bryson 2010). Examining the enactment of leadership through these media of structures, processes and participants provides a useful framework through which to explore “what makes things happen in a collaboration”.

2.3.2. Cross-sector collaboration

Many challenging collaborations occur across sectors. Public management research is increasingly focused on cross-sector collaborations as government and organisations from different sectors need to partner to address public problems which they otherwise would not be able to tackle independently (Kettl 2015). While much research has addressed collaboration, less is known about the management of collaborations across sectors that seek to achieve public goals (Babiak & Thibault 2009; McNamara 2011). Definitions of cross-sector collaboration typically emphasise the increasing depth of relationship between organisations from different sectors (see for example Thomson and Perry 2006, Provan and Kenis 2008, Ansell and Gash 2008, Agranoff 2007). Bryson, Crosby and Stone define cross-sector collaboration as “the linking or sharing of information, resources, activities, and capabilities by organizations in two or more sectors to achieve jointly an outcome that could not be achieved by organizations in one sector separately” (2006, p. 44). At times the term “collaborations” is used interchangeably with “partnerships” but this should not be confused with public-private partnerships which refer to a particular type of formal or contractually-based cross-sector collaboration between entities (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). Since overcoming the limitations of siloed-sector action is a rationale for cross-sector collaboration it follows that cross-sector collaboration is a necessary process for addressing complex problems. Simo and Bies (2007) have extended this logic by suggesting that the term ‘cross-sector collaboration’ implies an orientation toward the public good.

The promise of addressing complex problems for the public good has stimulated research into cross-sector collaborations, resulting in several frameworks for understanding the phenomenon. Bryson, Crosby and Stone (2006) were early authors of a framework to understand cross-sector collaborations. Ten years after their seminal article on designing and implementing cross-sector collaborations they reviewed research on the field they helped to shape (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). They identified the most significant theoretical frameworks to be Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2006); Thomson and Perry (2006); Ansell and Gash (2008); Agranoff (2007, 2012); Provan and Kenis (2008); Emerson, Nabatchi, and Balogh (2011); and Koschmann, Kuhn, and Pfarrer (2012).

The earlier of these frameworks (namely Agranoff 2007; Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Provan & Kenis 2008; Thomson & Perry 2006) exhibit similarities and include general conditions antecedent to the collaboration, initial conditions more proximate to the collaboration, internal processes, structural elements, and outcomes of the collaboration (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). Antecedent conditions include the availability of a range of resources with which to support the collaboration, the institutional environment of the collaboration including the political and policy climate, and the need for a cross-sector collaboration to address a complex public issue (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). A synthesis of the frameworks’ initial conditions for successful collaborations includes the availability of leadership, pre-existing networks and relationships between collaborators, and some agreement on the initial aims of the collaboration (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). The key collaborative processes include establishing trust amongst collaborators, using inclusive participation, reaching a shared understanding of the problem which is the centre of the collaboration, developing a commitment to collective goals and actions, and engaging in planning which can be a mix of formal and emergent planning (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). All the frameworks highlight structural aspects such as norms and rules that arise to promote these processes and

build agreement on collective aspirations and targets (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). The frameworks also emphasise the importance of governance in linking processes and structures (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). Some of the frameworks address inherent tensions within cross-sector collaborations, such as power imbalances (Agranoff 2007; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006), differences resulting from various institutional logics (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006), collective versus self-interest (Thomson & Perry 2006), efficiency versus inclusivity, flexibility versus stability, and internal versus external legitimacy (all Kenis & Provan, 2008). While there are differences amongst the frameworks—for example their emphases on leadership roles (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Thomson & Perry 2006), leadership activities (Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008), the embedded nature of structure (Agranoff 2007; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2012; Thomson & Perry 2006), and importance of sector failure (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006)—the above elements represent the main features of the theoretical frameworks (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015).

2.3.2.1. Integrative leadership: leading cross-sector collaborations

Leadership within collaborations has already been discussed (see above 2.3.1. *Leading collaborations*) however it is useful to discuss integrative leadership, which relates to leadership in the context of *cross-sector* collaborations (Morse 2010). Crosby and Bryson (2014) define integrative leadership as "integrating people, resources and organisations across various boundaries to tackle complex public problems and achieve the common good" (Crosby & Bryson, 2014, p. 57). Since most cross-sector collaborations have an element of public interest in the outcome it is also referred to as integrative public leadership. A synthesis of integrative public leadership literature reveals that integrative public leaders catalyse cross-sector collaborations through four dimensions: integrative thinking, integrative behaviour, integrative leadership resources, and integrative structures and processes (Sun & Anderson 2012).

First, integrative thinking shares similarities with "integrative complexity" (Stabell 1978; Tetlock 1983; Wallace & Suedfeld 1988) and "systems thinking" (Alexander et al. 2001; Crosby & Bryson 2010; Novelli Jr & Taylor 1993). This type of thinking involves the cognitive ability to maintain a systems perspective on a collaboration while distinguishing between and understanding the interrelations of the different dynamisms at play within the collaboration (Alexander et al. 2001; Senge 2006; Sun & Anderson 2012). Integrative thinking includes the ability to better understand the dominant logics of different organisations involved in a collaboration (Hartman, Hofman & Stafford 1999). The ability to understand the dominant logics of collaborating organisations provides integrative thinkers with the grounding from which to lead others to question assumptions associated with those logics (Ospina & Foldy 2010). It also enables them to lead others in creatively constructing approaches to solving problems (Ospina & Foldy 2010). Integrative thinking also includes the ability to understand the valued identities embraced by different collaborators and to communicate using language and symbols that resonate with these identities (Hartman, Hofman & Stafford 1999; Ospina & Foldy 2010). Sun and Anderson describe this process as "giv[ing] voice to the diverse identities in the multi-sector collaboration" (2012, p. 314), and it enables collaborations to shape shared identities (Ospina & Foldy 2010). Connecting with the identities of collaborators facilitates emotional engagement of diverse groups in cross-sector collaborations (Redekop 2010). Integrative thinking thus represents an aspect of leadership that helps enable cross-sector collaborations to be effective.

Second, integrative behaviour refers to actions taken to foster semi-permanent connections to achieve public good (Alexander et al. 2001; Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Crosby & Bryson 2010; Huxham & Vangen 2000; Ospina & Foldy 2010; Page 2010; Paul et al. 2001; Silvia & McGuire 2010; Sun & Anderson 2012). Fostering these connections is done by developing relationships with collaborating parties (Ospina & Saz-Carranza 2010) and there is some evidence indicating that integrative leaders have a predisposition towards relational and people-oriented behaviours (Silvia & McGuire 2010; Sun and Anderson 2012). This includes treating collaborators as equals, considering their welfare and celebrating their successes, all of which helps build trust in the relationship (Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Silvia & McGuire 2010; Vangen & Huxham 2003). The ability to rally collaborators toward a shared purpose also helps develop their relationships (Vangen & Huxham 2003). These unifying actions, along with the integrative thinking component of understanding and giving voice to diverse identities, help overcome differences and resolve conflicts (Alexander et al. 2001; Morse 2010; Nielsen 1990; Ospina & Saz-Carranza 2010; Page 2010; Redekop 2010; Umble et al. 2005).

Third, integrative leadership resources refer to the desire to serve the community by bringing in necessary expertise and use of appropriate social connections (Sun and Anderson 2012). Within this, integrative leaders need to be social entrepreneurs capable of identifying opportunities to create public value (Morse 2010) underpinned by a desire to serve the public (Denhardt & Campbell 2006). In addition, integrative leaders need to contribute valuable resources to the collaboration (Goodroe & Beres 1991) such as expertise (Sun & Anderson 2012) and social capital developed through past interactions (Morse 2010; Nosella & Petroni 2007).

Finally, integrative structures and processes refer to the use and embedding of systems, structures and processes so that they can be leveraged in collaborations (Sun & Anderson 2012). Structures can limit or increase the influence of leadership in cross-sector collaborations (Huxham & Vangen 2000). The impact of institutional forces within collaborations needs to be recognised (Huxham & Vangen 2000). Further, integrative leaders need to appreciate the limitations and affordances of collaboration processes and structures, and possess the skills to engage collaborators in the process of co-evolving the collaboration (Crosby & Bryson, 2010; Huxham & Vangen 2000; Sun & Anderson 2012). Finally, integrative leaders must create boundary experiences that facilitate effective communication (Huxham & Vangen 2000) and enable joint decision-making (Page 2010) to increase the involvement and commitment of collaborators (Alexander et al. 2001; Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Crosby & Bryson 2010; Goodroe & Beres 1991; Harmaakorpi & Niukkanen 2007; Huxham & Vangen 2000; Umble et al. 2005; Vangen & Huxham 2003). These four areas identified in existing theory are the dimensions through which leaders catalyse effective cross-sector collaborations.

2.4. Practitioner perspectives on cross-sector collaboration

Theory relating to cross-sector collaborations has principally been developed by analysing the practice of collaborations in various settings. This focus on practice aligns with assertions that a “turn to practice” (Schatzki, Knorr-Cetina & Von Savigny 2001) has taken place in the social sciences (see also Corley & Gioia, 2011; Reckwitz, 2002). Similar to the turn to practice in contemporary social theory, a “pragmatic turn” has taken place in philosophy wherein the practical wisdom of actors is acknowledged (Bernstein 2010; Egginton & Sandbothe 2004; Innes & Booher 2010; Menand 2001).

There has been a focus on practice in cross-sector collaboration research and the significant theoretical frameworks used to research cross-sector collaboration are derived from analyses of case studies (see for example Crosby & Bryson 2010; McNamara 2011; Morse 2010; Page 2010; Silvia & McGuire 2010). Despite this many of these studies “advocate for a variety of research designs and the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods” (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015, p. 650). Some researchers have called for “more precise theoretical models of behavior, and agreement on the measurement of relevant variables” (O’Leary & Vij 2012, p. 507). However, cross-sector collaborations comprise multi-layered and interconnected webs of elements. Such complexity supports arguments that cross-sector collaborations as practice are “richly constituted when done well and not easily reduced to the scaled variables of variance studies” (Crosby & Bryson 2014, p. 61). One may plausibly contend that they do not lend themselves to precise theoretical models and measurement of relevant variables. Although case studies have eclipsed the measurement of variables as the basis for developing cross-sector collaboration theory there have been calls for other approaches to building the body of knowledge. For example, action research has been suggested as a method for constructing and testing theory given the importance of learning in successful collaborations (Eden & Huxham 1996). Research that connects practitioners and researchers has been proposed because the practice of collaboration is more advanced than the scholarship (Popp et al. 2014).

The increasing need to collaborate across sectors to tackle complex problems has driven the development of an industry of cross-sector collaboration practitioners. These practitioners include people working as consultants and partnership brokers designing and facilitating such collaborations. The category can also be extended to include government workers and policy developers who over time work across a range of projects on which they design and facilitate cross-sector collaborations. Because cross-sector collaboration research has drawn upon the views of “practitioners” using case analyses (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Bryson et al. 2008; Lai 2012; McNamara 2011; Provan & Kenis 2008; Simo & Bies 2007) there is an opportunity to explore theoretical understandings of cross-sector collaborations through a broader sample of cross-sector collaboration practitioners.

Examining cross-sector collaboration from the perspective of practitioners aligns with the “turn to practice” in the social sciences and the “pragmatic turn” in philosophy. In addition to these methodological justifications, some have advanced ethical justifications for considering practitioners’ perspectives’. While describing praxis requires ascribing validity to the words of practitioners (Czarniawska 2014), there are arguments that such an act is ethical because we have a duty to listen to practitioners’ accounts, not because of their expertise, but because of our shared humanity (Rorty 1982, p. 202). People need to listen to people because we are all people. Further, this approach would help counter criticisms that the established frameworks “present a normative, structural view of collaboration and do not allow for explicating any underlying values or philosophies of the actors participating in intersectoral collaboration” (Chircop, Bassett & Taylor 2015). Apart from Ospina and Foldy’s (2010) study of collaborative work amongst social change leaders there has been little collaboration research conducted from a constructionist epistemology. This study will therefore use a constructionist perspective to provide further understanding of the work of practitioners in cross-sector collaborations. It seeks to extend existing research by employing an interpretivist theoretical perspective to address the following research problem and research questions.

Research problem: How do practitioners work on cross-sector collaborations?

In addressing this problem the study will examine three research questions. The first question will explore what practitioners identify as the key aspects of cross-sector collaborations.

Question 1: What do collaborative practitioners identify as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations?

The second question will seek to relate these perspectives specifically to existing theoretical frameworks on cross-sector collaborations.

Question 2: Which elements of existing cross-sector collaboration frameworks do collaborative practitioners emphasise?

Given the literature's emphasis on the connection between integrative leadership and effective cross-sector collaborations, the third sub-question will examine practitioners' perspectives on the role of leadership in collaborations.

Question 3: What role do practitioners see leadership playing in cross-sector collaborations?

2.5. Chapter Summary

The literature review began by explaining the nature of complex problems requiring shared-power solutions and the role of collaboration in such problems. It emphasised the role collaborative interactions can play in achieving complex goals and described how this has encouraged research in an attempt to “look inside the black box of collaboration processes” (Thomson & Perry 2006). The literature review then narrowed in on theory addressing cross-sector collaborations and presented an overview of the elements of key theoretical frameworks. These included general conditions antecedent to the collaboration, initial conditions more proximate to the collaboration, internal processes, structural elements, and outcomes of the collaboration. Literature regarding the role of leadership in effective cross-sector collaborations was then examined. It focused on leadership catalysing cross-sector collaborations through integrative thinking, integrative behaviour, integrative leadership resources, and integrative structures and processes. The emergence of an industry of cross-sector collaboration practitioners was noted and an opportunity to extend the theory from the perspective of these practitioners was identified. This opportunity was justified in relation to a focus on practice in the social sciences. The chapter concluded by presenting research questions to extend the theory relating to practitioner perspectives on cross-sector collaborations. The following chapter outlines the design of an appropriate study to answer the research questions derived from the literature.

Chapter 3 Design of the Study

3. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

3.1. Introduction

The literature review chapter identified a need for practitioners' voices to be heard in research on cross-sector collaborations. This chapter sets out the design of the study and begins with a discussion of methodology. The chapter then discusses the specifics of the research design and methods before describing my approach to collecting and analysing the data.

3.2. Methodology

The aim of the study is to provide new understandings regarding the work of practitioners on cross-sector collaborations from a constructionist epistemology. Contemporary theorists suggest that knowledge is socially produced and defined, and this aligns well with constructionist epistemology (Thompson & Campling 2003). Crotty (1998, p. 42) describes constructionism as the view that "all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context." Constructionist epistemology is most starkly contrasted with objectivism, which contends that meaning exists apart from the operation of consciousness (Crotty 1998) and therefore the purpose of research is to uncover these external truths. Proponents of constructionism consider it more suitable to the investigation of social phenomena in the human sciences because it emphasises *understanding* rather than *explanation* of phenomena (Costantino 2008). This thesis accepts that knowledge is constructed and meaning is made through the interaction of human beings with their world.

Building upon this epistemology, I now consider the methodology on which this study is grounded. Methodological paradigms can be considered as philosophical frameworks (Collis & Hussey 2009, p. 55), basic systems or worldviews (Guba & Lincoln 1994, p. 105) that guide the conduct of research. Positivism and interpretivism are the predominant research paradigms in which the social sciences are examined (Carson et al. 2001; Neuman 2003; Veal & Ticehurst 2005), however some commentators further deconstruct interpretivism into symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, hermeneutics and also distinguish critical inquiry from interpretivism (Crotty 1998). Positivism "rests on the assumption that social reality is singular and objective" (Collis & Hussey 2009, p. 56) and therefore aligns with an objectivist epistemological view. It is therefore incompatible with a theory of knowledge contending that meaning is made through the interaction of human beings and the world.

An interpretivist paradigm draws upon constructionism as it considers knowledge to be shaped in social interaction, subjective, personal and, therefore, socially constructed (Eldabi et al. 2002; Saunders et al. 2011). This emphasis on the subjective "social" suggests that interpretative understanding is an appropriate perspective through which to explore social phenomena (Collis & Hussey 2009). As presented earlier (see chapter 2), cross-sector collaboration is an inherently social phenomenon comprising of the interconnected elements of, for example, pre-existing networks of relationships, sponsors and champions, leadership, memberships, rules and norms, power dynamics and conflict (Agranoff 2007, 2012; Ansell & Gash 2008; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2011; Provan & Kenis 2008; Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012; Reckwitz 2002; Schatzki 1996; Thomson & Perry 2006). As previously stated, social phenomena of this complexity are "not easily reduced to the scaled variables" (Crosby & Bryson 2014, p. 61). Such phenomena better align with approaches

that seek to understand the elements and their interactions within an interpretivist paradigm. For these reasons, this study has embraced a constructionist epistemology and interpretivist research paradigm.

3.3. Research design and methods

This section will outline research methods that accord with the epistemological view and research paradigm of the study, and are suitable to answering the research problem and questions developed in the previous chapter, namely:

Research problem: How do practitioners work on cross-sector collaborations?

Question 1: What do collaborative practitioners identify as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations?

Question 2: Which elements of existing cross-sector collaboration frameworks do collaborative practitioners emphasise?

Question 3: What role do practitioners see leadership playing in cross-sector collaborations?

Ospina and Foldy (2010) warn that research conducted from a constructionist approach requires “a careful match of lens, focus and method to ensure the integrity of the [research] design” (Ospina & Foldy 2010, p. 294). Bearing this in mind, this study requires methods that account for the constructed nature of knowledge, the complexity of cross-sector collaborations, and the understanding-oriented inquiry demanded by explorations of social phenomena. Qualitative research methods are useful to achieve the aims of the study.

First, qualitative research is appropriate for understanding complex interrelationships (Denzin & Lincoln 2008), such as those under consideration in this study. As already discussed, cross-sector collaborations are complex, comprise many moving parts and draw together people with many and varied perspectives. Leavy (1994, p. 107) demonstrates the appropriateness of qualitative research to these complex and dynamic environments:

“The focus for [qualitative] study tends to be on processes rather than structures, and on dynamic rather than static phenomena. The emphasis tends to be on description and explanation rather than on prescription and prediction.”

Second, Leavy specifically suggests that qualitative methods are suited to studies of processes. The literature review presents cross-sector collaboration as a process (for example Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006). While some researchers include analysis of structures within cross-sector collaboration frameworks (Agranoff 2007, 2012; Ansell & Gash 2008; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Provan & Kenis 2008; Thomson & Perry 2006), structure is merely one component of the collaborative process.

Third, Leavy also draws attention to the suitability of qualitative approaches for researching phenomena that require description and explanation. This argument has already been presented as justification for adopting a constructionist epistemology and interpretivist theoretical perspective in seeking to answer the “how” aspect of the research problem: How do practitioners work on cross-sector collaborations? Qualitative methods are appropriate to this study because they explore, describe, explain and understand phenomena (Coviello 2005). The qualitative approach also allows the researcher to interact, empathise and interpret the perspectives of the

research participants (Bryman & Burgess 2002). As a result, the researcher and research participant co-construct the research process. Given the role that the researcher plays in a qualitative study, this approach will provide a constructed answer to the research question (Charmaz & Belgrave 2002).

3.3.1. Long interview method

The above reasons are offered as justification for employing a qualitative research methodology. Methods that are suitable to interpretivist research include questionnaires, observation, interviews, focus group and case studies (Crotty 1998). The precise qualitative approach used in the study was the long interview method advocated by McCracken (1988). Similar to a semi-structured interview, this approach allows the researcher to define the area of enquiry while still allowing interviewees to express themselves in a natural manner not permitted by the confines of a structured interview. The balancing of these two aspects leads McCracken (1988) to describe what he calls the long interview method. This method uses a questionnaire comprising of a “set of grand-tour questions with floating prompts at the ready” (p. 37). This enables each interview to cover the relevant material in a similar order for each interviewee but allows for open-ended responses and maintaining a conversational approach that accords with the co-constructed research process of the study. A range of possible follow up or extension questions were developed prior to the interview and used as prompts during the interview. Czarniawska’s quip that “an unaided memory always falters” (2014, p. 30) applies to all parties involved in the interview and planning these prompts helps the interviewer remember important discussion points and keep on track while also enabling the interviewer to remain engaged in the conversation. The long interview approach of imposing some structure on the interview does not undermine the qualitative aspirations of the approach but rather seeks to provide context to interview responses which aids in the analysis of the data. McCracken explains his justification:

It is not the purpose of a fixed interview to abolish the characteristic abundance and “messiness” of qualitative data. Qualitative analysis requires that the interviewer work with substantial chunks of data. Without data of this character it is difficult to see which ideas go together in the mental universe of the respondent, or the “cultural logic” on which the ideas rest. For analytical purposes, it is necessary to capture not just the ideas but also the context in which these ideas occur. The context is, in a manner of speaking, the small amount of seawater that keeps the catch alive” (McCracken 1988, p. 25).

The long interview method of combining pre-defined areas of enquiry with open-ended discussion interspersed with prompting follow-up questions enabled the interviews to remain on track, yet still provide the understanding demanded of an interpretivist approach.

3.3.2. Interview structure

The content of the interview questionnaire (see Appendix B for questionnaire) was designed around key elements of the Bryson, Crosby and Stone (2006) framework relating to the conditions precipitating successful collaborative initiatives and the processes, practices, structures and governance of these initiatives. The overview questions were designed to draw out open-ended responses which addressed these areas, with floating prompts identified to further explore specific elements related to each of these areas. Not all propositions of the framework were explicitly addressed because the complexity and variability within each cross-sector collaboration made this approach impractical. Czarniawska suggests that an appropriately designed fieldwork approach “can also be a way of limiting research material to manageable

proportions—by allowing the practitioners to select material that they find relevant for their practice” (2014, p. 6). Intending this outcome, the following overview questions and prompts were developed:

Question 1 asked about the type of conditions that generally lead to successful cross-sector collaborations. Prompts asked about (1) prior connections between collaborators and (2) agreement about the problem to be addressed.

Question 2 asked about the types of processes and practices that successful cross-sector collaborations follow. Prompts aided clarifying (1) whether these practices and processes were formal or informal and (2) asked if issues of trust, leadership, conflict management and power imbalances mattered.

Question 3 asked how the structure and governance of successful cross-sector collaborations emerge. Prompts related to strengths or weaknesses of these structures and their legitimacy.

3.4. Data collection and analysis

3.4.1. Participant recruitment

The sample size for qualitative research must be sufficient to “assure that most or all of the perceptions that might be important are uncovered, but at the same time if the sample is too large data becomes repetitive and, eventually, superfluous” (Mason 2010, [2]). Consistent with this statement is the concept of theoretical saturation (Glaser & Strauss 1967). Theoretical saturation is reached when the collection of new data does not shed any further light on the issue under investigation (Mason 2010). The concept of saturation is also faithful to the principles of qualitative research which seeks to uncover meaning rather than make generalised hypothesis statements (Crouch & McKenzie 2006). Saturation was reached in the study when the themes presented in the Leximancer results began to stabilise (see section 3.4.3. *Data analysis approach* for more detail on the analysis), which occurred following 21 interviews. This saturation sample is consistent with Green and Thorogood’s (2009, p.120) statement that “the experience of most qualitative researchers is that in interview studies little that is 'new' comes out of transcripts after you have interviewed 20 or so people” (Green & Thorogood 2009).

The participant selection criteria required active participants to have had involvement in the design, delivery or facilitation of at least two cross-sector collaborations, previously defined as “the linking or sharing of information, resources, activities, and capabilities by organizations in two or more sectors to achieve jointly an outcome that could not be achieved by organizations in one sector separately” (Bryson, Crosby & Stone, 2006, p. 44). A passive snowball recruitment approach was employed to recruit interviewees, with participants asked to discuss the study with colleagues and contacts who they thought might be suitable or interested in participating. Snowball sampling is suitable for hard to reach sample populations (Faugier & Sargeant 1997), such as persons who work in the niche field of facilitating cross-sector collaborations. The first two participants interviewed were known to the researcher through contract work conducted with their team at a large multinational information technology and consulting business where they worked for a business unit that designed collaborative processes to solve business problems. These two participants directly initiated contact with seven other participants known to them to have had involvement in cross-sector collaborations. These seven participants “snow-balled” a further six research participants. These 13 participants had varied involvement in cross-sector

collaborative work in roles which covered corporate collaborations, independent consulting, not-for-profit organisations and in the higher education sector. Another person known to the researcher through work done on a leadership workshop initiated contact with two of his managers at a different but similar multinational consulting organisation. The person known to the researcher was not included as a participant due to lack of experience in cross-sector work but the two managers “snow-balled” a further four participants, two of which worked in not-for-profit organisations involved in cross-sector collaborative work, one worked for a similar consulting organisation and the final person worked in government. Twenty-one participants were recruited and interviewed but 5 of these were excluded because the interviewees did not meet the participant selection criteria of involvement in at least two collaborations. These persons had extensive experience in a single cross-sector collaboration which was deemed insufficient to generalise answers about these types of initiatives.

The study initially intended to include within the sample any government workers and policy developers who had worked across a range of projects on which they had to design and facilitate cross-sector collaborations. However, during the course of interviews it became apparent that the context of government-led cross-sector collaborations differed from those not led by government due to the macro-level of much policy development. There was only one interview conducted with this type of respondent and it was therefore excluded because there was no sub-sample with which to make reliable comparisons. Reference to the potential differences between this category and the sample category are discussed briefly in chapter 5.

The final sample thus included 15 interviews. Although this decreased the final sample size it has been suggested that expertise in a chosen topic can reduce the number of participants required in a study (Jette, Grover & Keck 2003). Table 1 provides an overview of the interviews conducted with participants and includes their pseudonym and employment description, as well as the date, duration and location of the interview.

3.4.2. *Conduct of interviews*

The duration of interviews ranged from 30 minutes up to 71 minutes which was sometimes dependent on the time interviewees were available for but was largely driven by the succinctness of responses. Charmaz (2006) suggests that an interview of more than 20 minutes can be classified as an “intensive interview” (p. 25) and all the interviews within the sample can be classified thus. Interviews were conducted face-to-face where possible but on occasion were conducted via video or voice call where participants were in another city or where there were scheduling challenges.

At the commencement of interviews, following the formalities of reading and signing consent forms, the researcher explained his personal interest in the study of cross-sector collaborations and was thereby inserted into the research processes. Given the epistemological view of the research I did not shy away from involvement in the construction of knowledge in the study. Within an interpretivist paradigm social reality is considered to be shaped by the perceptions of people. Since researchers minds cannot be separated from the social world they will be affected by the act of researching it (Creswell 2013; Smith 1983). Researchers thus play an active role in the creation of research within this ‘constructionist’ approach (Charmaz & Belgrave 2002). I acknowledged that as researchers “we participate in the research process with our subjects to ensure we are producing knowledge that is reflective of their reality” (Lincoln,

Lynham & Guba 2011, p. 103). After I explained my personal interest in the study the interviews followed the interview guide outlined above.

Table 1: Overview of interviews

No.	Pseudonym	Employment description	Date	Duration (mins)	Location
1	Bill	Academic	28-06-15	71	Face-to-face
2	Louis	Transformation facilitator	29-06-15	57	Face-to-face
3	Colin	Management consultant	07 -06-15	47	Phone
4	Sophie	Leadership Consultant	17-07-15	33	Face-to-face
5	Trudy	Leadership Consultant	30-07-15	54	Face-to-face
6	Melanie	Collaboration consultant	31-07-15	43	Phone
7	Trina	Academic	10-08-15	40	Video conference
8	Kyle	Transformation facilitator	12-08-15	57	Phone
9	Jill	Project Manager	21-08-15	68	Face-to-face
10	Christine	Collaboration consultant	27-08-15	68	Video conference
11	Jackson	Transformation facilitator	03-09-15	33	Face-to-face
12	Taylor	Collaboration consultant	03-09-15	48	Phone
13	Keith	Collaboration consultant	05-09-15	30	Face-to-face
14	Mary	Collaboration consultant	07-09-15	30	Phone
15	Josh	Transformation facilitator	08-09-15	41	Phone

Audio recordings of all interviews were collected and transcribed by professional transcriptionists. These transcripts were analysed by the researcher. The researcher reviewed small anomalies of inaudible phrases in some recordings, largely due to background noise, but the context of these indicated they did not adversely affect the comprehensibility of the transcriptions. The approach undertaken to analyse the data is described below.

3.4.3. Data analysis approach

Developments in text analysis technologies have driven new methods of concept or semantic mapping (Rooney 2005), allowing for alternative analytical approaches in understanding qualitative data. The interviews in this study were analysed using Leximancer, an advanced software tool that is increasingly used in social science research to assist analysis of texts (Cretchley, Rooney & Gallois 2010; Smith & Humphreys 2006). It uses statistical processes and machine learning to replicate the manual coding procedures often employed for the purposes of qualitative analysis (Smith, Grech & Horberry 2002). Leximancer analysis provides a platform for mapping and interpreting concepts arising within interview transcripts (Rooney et al. 2010). Leximancer has been validated in comparison to traditional best-practice methods and expert hand coding (Smith and Humphreys (2006). Leximancer's ability to code and index concepts, and then easily identify relevant text excerpts, provided a useful approach to the systematic interpretive analysis of text.

Leximancer analysis determines the most frequently used concepts within a body of text and then establishes the relationships between these concepts (Liesch et al. 2011). In doing so, the first level of Leximancer analysis systematically examines the proximity of words arising within the data set to develop a set of concepts. Concepts are semantically significant words that are identified by analysing the occurrence and co-occurrence frequency of words. Words proximate to these concepts are listed in a thesaurus for each analysis. Relationships between concepts are initially established based on direct links between concepts. Leximancer analysis generates a Concept Map that is a visual representation of the concepts as mapped to each other based on the likelihood and proximity of co-occurrence. Within the Map themes are identified by the clustering related concepts. Leximancer analysis also generates themes that are identified by the clustering of related concepts. The second level of analysis involves Leximancer identifying information about the words that are semantically related to the concepts developed and then creating a thesaurus for each concept. Thesauri of the various concepts are then compared to assess indirect links between the concepts. See Smith and Humphreys (2006) for further details on the Leximancer process, its underlying method and statistical structure.

The interview transcripts underwent several adjustments in preparation for the Leximancer analysis. First, the transcripts were de-identified and each interviewee assigned a pseudonym. Second, the interviewer checked the transcripts for inconsistent and incorrect spelling as well as any misunderstandings relating to context, pronunciation, or places made by the transcribers. Finally, some minor adjustments were made to remove identifying words and non-relevant text such as when interviews were interrupted. Once the transcripts were cleaned, the Leximancer analysis was run to produce the concept and themes depicted in the Concept Map. Similar to other studies (for example Dann 2010), the dominant thematic clusters automatically emerged from the transcripts and guided the subsequent textual analysis. This involved reading all excerpts from the transcripts relating to the concepts comprising each major theme and then exercising judgement to distil the essence of the practitioners' perspectives on each theme. Selected excerpts for each theme have been included in the following chapter to help illustrate these perspectives.

3.5. Chapter summary

This chapter presented that a constructionist epistemology, interpretivist research paradigm and qualitative research approach were appropriate for the study. I argued for these in the design of the study because they emphasise understanding rather than explanation of phenomena, which is suitable for investigating social phenomena comprising complex dynamic interrelationships such as cross-sector collaborations. I presented the long interview method as a suitable qualitative approach for the study as it enables each interview to cover the relevant material in a similar order for each interviewee but allows for open-ended responses and maintaining a conversational approach. I suggested that this was consistent with the co-constructed research process of the study. The interview structure was described and designed around key elements of the Bryson, Crosby and Stone (2006) framework. The chapter also described the participant recruitment approach and conduct of interviews. It concluded by describing the data analysis approach where I argued in favour of Leximancer, a text analysis technology with the ability to code and index concepts. This process assists the researcher to easily identify relevant text excerpts and provides a useful approach to the systematic interpretive analysis of text. The analysis and discussion of findings are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 4 Analysis & Discussion of Findings

4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

The previous chapter described the research methodology employed to collect data to answer the research questions. It described the approach to analysing the interview transcripts, including how Leximancer identifies semantically significant words, called concepts, which are generated by analysing the relationships between words and concepts. The first part of the chapter reports the analysis of the data collected. The second part discusses the findings arising from the data. Figure 1 is the Concept Map produced by the Leximancer analysis of the interview transcripts. The concepts are the individual words in black text. The coloured spheres in the map are themes identified in the analysis by clustering related concepts. As described in Chapter 3, the Leximancer analysis has been used to replace traditional methods of coding interview transcripts and serves as a useful approach to systematically analyse practitioners' perspectives by analysing the interview transcripts in relation to the themes identified in the Concept Map. This chapter focuses on the most significant themes identified by Leximancer, namely "people", "process", "collaboration" and "governance". Excerpts from the transcripts relating to these themes are analysed and findings presented in relation to each. It is this analysis at the textual level that is most important in this study. A summary of findings are presented in Table 2. The final part of the chapter discusses the findings of the study in relation to relevant academic literature.

4.2. Data and findings

Figure 1: Leximancer Concept Map

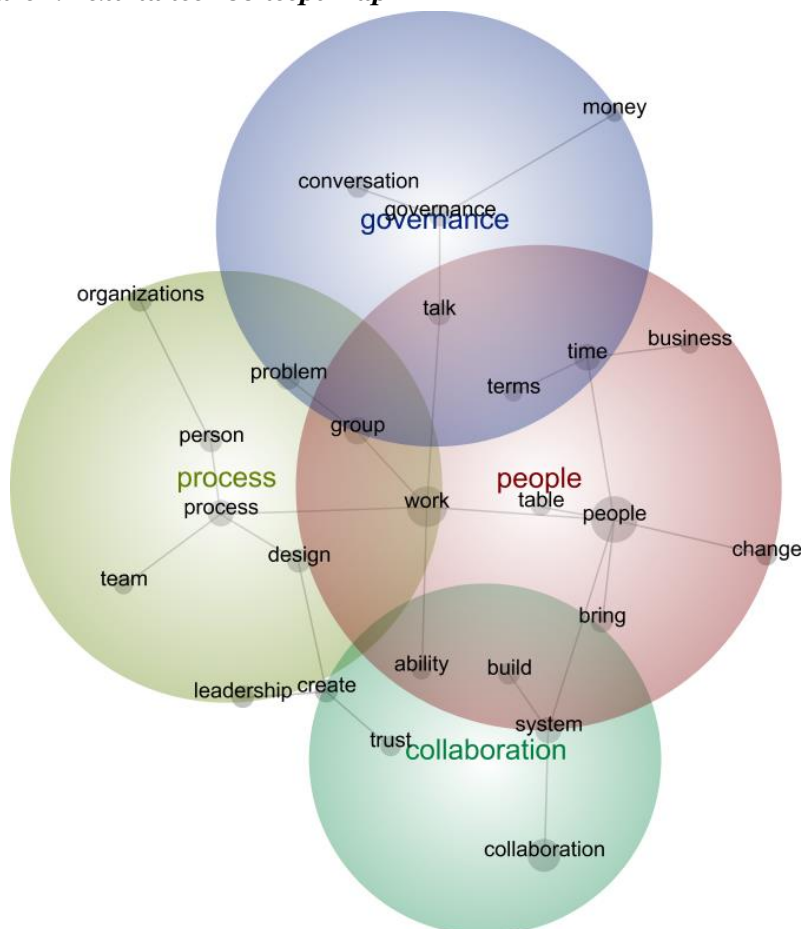


Table 2: Summary of Leximancer Findings

Themes	Concepts	Summary of findings
People count = 346 relevance = 100%	Trust n = 16 likelihood = 36%	Trust between people is necessary for effective cross-sector collaborations.
	Person n = 26 likelihood = 39%	Getting collaborators to see each other as people is important to successful cross-sector collaborations and building trust amongst collaborators. Genuine personal interaction builds shared understandings that help parties collaborate better.
	Table n = 18 likelihood = 45%	Collaborators often need to meet around a metaphorical “table”.
	Conversation n = 21 likelihood = 32%	“Conversation” around the metaphorical table is a process through which collaborators can see each other as people, understand each other’s motivations and ways of thinking, and establish trust amongst collaborators.
	Time n = 39 likelihood = 36%	There is a requisite amount of time to be spent in the conversation phase of a cross-sector collaboration, but the amount of time required varies for each collaboration.
	Change n = 20 likelihood = 36%	Cross-sector collaborations are often driven by people wanting to enact change within their contexts. Part of the change involves a transformation of traditional ways of working by engaging across sectors to solve shared problems.
Process count = 92 relevance = 27%	Design n = 20 likelihood = 33%	Cross-sector collaborations require bespoke development through carefully designed processes that facilitate dialogue, maximise the collective potential of the collaboration and build trust and understanding among the collaborators.
	Leadership n = 9 likelihood = 14%	Practitioners did not have a common conception of leadership but leadership was considered important in cross-sector collaborations. Leadership was considered more important when viewed as more than just positional leadership.
Collaboration count = 224 relevance = 65%	Ability n = 10 likelihood = 33%	Cross-sector collaborators should have humility, curiosity, reflexivity, empathy, and the ability to align personal objectives with the collective purpose of the collaboration.
	System n = 20 likelihood = 20%	Cross-sector collaborators should have an appreciation of the system in which the collaboration takes place and an understanding of their own place within the system.
Governance count = 74 relevance = 21%	Governance is important to the success of cross-sector collaborations. Governance regimes should be widely representative in their decision-making people should authorise these groups to make decisions on their behalf, however achieving this balance is difficult. Individuals involved in governance should possess high-order skills to effectively make decisions on behalf of groups that they might not directly represent and engage these groups in the collaboration.	

4.2.1. People

The theme “people” is prominent in the data and is at the core of cross-sector collaborations, and getting people to work effectively together is seen as important to the success of collaborative initiatives. Specifically, people need to trust each other and this trust is most effectively developed through genuine personal interaction “around a table” where there is time for conversation that builds shared understandings. Trust and understanding enables collaborators to drive change and create solutions to their problems. Each of these aspects relating to “people” are analysed below.

4.2.1.1. Trust

“People” and “trust” are significant concepts in the data. Several practitioners discussed the importance of trust between people as necessary to effective collaborations.

Taylor Trust is one of those things that where, if people don't trust each other yet, they're probably not going to be very honest about what their agendas are.

Mary We talk a lot about collaborations being the answer, in terms of innovation, and I think they potentially can be, but usually only when you see partners who've worked together for a long time, so they can trust each other to take risks. That doesn't happen because you say it will happen. It's a collaboration. It happens when people trust each other, so that they know if they try something and it goes wrong, it's okay. They'll learn from it, and they move ahead.

Trust was identified as contributing to an environment where collaborators feel safe to be honest. Expressing honesty can be a risk but trust was also identified as enabling risk-taking. There is an inherent risk associated with cross-sector collaborations since they entail working with external parties. Pre-existing relationships with collaborators built trust to counteract perceived risk. Mary was of the view that trust is a necessary condition and is usually required prior to commencing a new collaboration. Louis says:

Louis I don't think the project can start without a degree of trust that each individual thinks is acceptable for them. Because it is a non-constraining initiative you only engage ... if the conditions that matter to you are met, and that would include trust. ... Maybe once trust is established, we are going in the right direction with the right people and that is good enough [to start the project].

A non-constraining initiative refers to collaborations being optional to enter into in many cases. This is important because optionality means collaborators can depart a collaboration if they deemed there is not the requisite trust between them and the other participants. The belief that appropriate people are involved in the collaboration can develop trust, which helps retain collaborators in the initiative. Some practitioners pointed to the role physical environment can have in supporting the development of trust, which was connected to psychological safety.

Jackson Your physical environment needs to support trust and safety. Having an environment that feels friendly, open, transparent, all of those things will enable a better collaboration ultimately ... That ability for your environment to support safety, trust, feeling and support visualization and different modes of people expressing their ideas is really important.

That Jackson points to how a place feels and how that influences visualisation and expressing ideas is important. It points to the affective, cognitive and behavioural interactions with physical space that produce place attachment (Scannell & Gifford 2010). Place attachment

can be experienced at a social level, where it has been described as “a community process in which groups become attached to areas where they may practice” (Scannell & Gifford 2010, p. 240). Jackson’s view supports these concepts.

On occasion, peoples’ trust might be based on the perceived trustworthiness of an institution. Trust in an institution based on qualities such as organisational reputation or brand. As Jill says

Jill You know, when I've seen an organization convene people, even though they don't necessarily know each other, there's enough trust in the institution, or authority that that institution has, to go, yeah, okay, we're going to come along and see if we can do something together.

In this case, Jill’s experience says that trust built on long histories of working together is not essential if the institution is trustworthy.

4.2.1.2. Person

Practitioners say that getting collaborators to “be personal” and to see an individual as a person is important to the collaboration process. Revealing part of who collaborators are in terms of their history and motivations helps build a more robust foundation for interpersonal dynamics. Josh elaborated this concept.

Josh "Who am I as a person and why do I do the work I do? What is it I'm trying to do in the world? What's the change I'm trying to make in the world? What motivates and drives me?" That, to me, whenever we've run exercises like that at the beginning of collaborative design work, it changes the nature of and the dynamic of the relationships between the people in the room. Now I don't see you as the Director of X Services or the General Manager of Y Services. I see you as John or Joan the person, and I connect with you in a different way. I understand a bit more about your back-story. About why you see the world the way you do. I have an understanding of why you might believe some of the things you believe. It gives a much richer platform for us to connect as people, to have a degree of trust. That doesn't mean we agree with each other on everything, but the opportunity is we now understand why we see things differently, rather than look at each other across a break-out and go, "I can't believe you're saying these things. How can you possibly see the world that way?"

This richer platform enables healthy disagreement and stronger relationships that can last over the long term despite the tensions that inevitably emerge in such collaborations. Keith expressed a similar sentiment and drew attention to the exposing nature of getting personal. This vulnerability may be seen as another risk, albeit it at a different level, associated with the processes involved in effective cross-sector collaborations.

Keith “Beyond that, we probably need to get into the interpersonal nature of, who are you and why are you here with me? Which almost relates much more to a psychological need for us to feel safe and feel that this person is of good intention. Collaboration essentially requires a level of vulnerability and humility to succeed.”

The concept of humility, raised here in relation to the process of getting personal, was reoccurring in the data and also arose in relation to leadership abilities required in collaborations. Vulnerability in the collaboration context refers to people being open about some aspect of themselves, such as their past or their motivations. Similar to expressing honesty, being open can be a risk and thus requires trust, which I already identified as enabling risk-taking.

4.2.1.3. Table, conversation and time

An interesting co-occurrence of concepts was that of “people” and “table”. Exploring the transcripts revealed “table” was often used in different ways, such as the following:

Christine They're able to assemble people based on that purpose, which is enough to get people to the table initially.

Taylor I think it's really important to raise it and call it if you don't have the right people around the table.

Sophie I got them all to go around the table and explain why they thought they were in that room

Melanie There's the relationships between the people at the table...

Louis [A]n element that I now think is essential is investing in curating the people who you bring to the table.

The table is a place for would-be collaborators to gather around as people and begin the process of developing trust. A place, even a metaphorical place, appears important as a common ground. Cross-sector collaborations may not have a real head-office and so a metaphorical place where the collaboration can be curated is a very useful thing. Once gathered at the table, the next important people-related concepts are “talking” and “conversation”. These are boundary experiences as they are “shared or joint activities that create a sense of community and an ability to transcend boundaries among participants” (Feldman et al. 2006, p. 94 cited in Morse, 2010, p. 234).

In the data “conversations” are a process by which people develop their understanding to a level where they can successfully collaborate in each unique context. As Mary suggests below, conversations form the building blocks of bespoke collaborative arrangements. Developing these arrangements can promote co-creation.

Mary I think that's a real problem in collaborations, where people say, "Oh, here is what someone else did, let's do that." What I would tend to do, when I'm developing agreements with people, is to have a series of conversations under a series of headings, and then basically co-create the agreement. It needs to be specific to the needs of that collaboration.

Trudy expressed a similar sentiment regarding getting collaborators to agree on what the problem being addressed is:

Trudy It's normally untidy. It takes lots of conversations and seeding and have we thought about this that and the other.

This seeding process requires inclusive dialoguing to help reinforce a sense of fairness within collaborations, which is important in counteracting possible power imbalances.

Louis “Me allowing you your voice in that [process] is important, and listening to how you see the system, is really important. Those things allow a fairness, which we all ultimately respond to.”

Cross-sector collaborations bring together people and organisations who can have different opinions, institutional logics and ways of working. The data shows that specific conversations

about differences can help to manage conflict better and to overcome the complexity of cross-sector collaborations. As Sophie says

Sophie I think it's a lot more complex space, and what happens is if you don't have those conversations up front, everything goes slower, because you'll come across them as you're working along, and it'll get problematic. Whereas, the best ones have those conversations up front. The ones I work on, we normally actually draft up a partnering agreement, which is not a contract, it's a description of how people are going to work together, and covers all those sorts of things, and builds in review processes for the collaboration, not just for the project.

Digging deeper into the concepts of “people” and “conversations”, conversation is a boundary experience through which collaborators can see each other as people and begin to develop trust in each other. The extended excerpt from Josh below illustrates this finding in relation to a conversation collaborators had articulating their motivations for entering the catering industry.

Josh The basic premise for all of that conversation is “Tell me the story of your life in the context of the decisions you've made, the people you've met, the places you've been, the experiences you've had which, whether you realized it or not at the time, helped shape and form and guide you to the point you're at now” ... [for] some people it was the normal stuff like I went to catering college. You know, great.

But then people started talking about, “Well, actually, it was my mum. My mum that got me involved and interested in catering.” When you start to unpack that, they go “It was my mum because she was an amazing cook and I've always just had a love of food.” Then the next person would go “That's interesting because it was my mum that inspired me because she was a terrible cook and I couldn't wait until I was able to cook for myself to have some decent food.” Then the next person would go, “Well, you know it was my mum because growing up we didn't have very much money, and I was just sort of blown away by the way in which she was so creative with very little, kind of, to start with. She used to turn these seemingly very basic ingredients into fantastic meals.”

You've now got these different people who are looking at each other, going we've got a shared story here. They are different stories, but they are similar stories, and now the reason why I'm passionate about or invested in, or I care about making a difference through the work I do, you can start to talk about that, rather than well, you know, the problem with the international food and beverage team is X. Well, actually, the reason the problem with them is Y. We're having that conversation while we're talking about our mums. A much more human conversation.

The shared honesty and vulnerability in story-telling is a means by which to have a transparent conversation. This process ties together the previously discussed concepts of trust and being personal in collaborations.

The data also revealed a significant relationship between the concepts “people” and “time”, specifically “time” for “conversation”. The practitioners suggested the process of dialoguing cannot be rushed and requires the deliberate allocation of time.

Jill What typically happens in Australia is, where we sign a contract with a consortium that's been called together really quickly to respond to a call for a tender, none of those conversations are had, and so they start [to collaborate], and then they find out that they disagree with how they're going to do it, or who's going to take responsibility, or what the governance structures going to look like ... I take a preventative healthcare approach [of investing time up front tackling the issues] ...

At the end of it, they'll say, "That was fantastic, it was time really well spent." Sometimes convincing people to make that investment up front is challenging, but it's always worth it.

The data revealed that in cross-sector collaborations, perhaps more than other collaborations, the allocation of time to reach agreement on a shared collaborative intent is a worthwhile investment. Melanie expressed a similar perspective and alluded to the importance of time in establishing trust and relationships by slowly dissolving barriers and rigidities that inhibit good relationships:

Melanie You often start with people who don't know each other, who kind of feel like they already know enough about whatever the issue is, and come at it in a quite rigid or protective, or their boundaries are pretty tight, or whatever. It takes time to get those people to start to even acknowledge that is something that is a little bit of a hurdle.

Summarising the data in relation to “people” and “table”, “conversation” and “time”, the analysis reveals that collaborators need to meet around the metaphorical table and take the appropriate time to engage in conversation with the aim of seeing each other as people, understanding each other’s motivations and ways of thinking, and establishing trust as the basis on which to successfully collaborate. This is a dialoguing process. Moreover, each cross-sector collaboration is unique and requires a patient and bespoke approach to the dialoguing process.

4.2.1.4. Change

The analysis also revealed that “people” and “change” co-occurred. Exploring these concepts in more detail within the transcripts, practitioners indicated that the desire of people to see change in a particular context was an important driver of the need to collaborate across sectors.

Christine [Cross-sector collaborations occur because of] some level of urgency as well. You know that there's a case for change.

Trudy [Cross-sector collaborations occur because of] an understanding that something needs to change. The most successful collaborations that I've seen have actually been as the result of typically one or a very small group of people who've driven it, as opposed to a CEO saying we need to learn how to collaborate.

The desire, understanding and urgency for change create a unified and a strong purpose in cross-sector collaborations. Cross-sector collaborations are often driven by people wanting to see change within their contexts and part of the change involves a transformation of traditional ways of working by engaging with others from different sectors to solve shared problems.

4.2.2. Process

“Process” and the role that “design” and “leadership” play in the process of cross-sector collaboration is interesting.

4.2.2.1. Design

“Process” and “design” co-occurred in the data. Structuring and developing a cross-sector collaboration is a process of design that requires careful bespoke development. The language used by practitioners to discuss the design process is nuanced and alludes to the complexity of cross-sector collaborations.

Trina *The process that we designed for the visioning workshops particularly is for a generation of systemic visions, because we don't really want to be focusing on a particular sub-system, but we would like to look at cities as systems. Our process design reflected that aim. The process itself facilitated, we hope to a large extent, facilitated alignments during the workshop itself, or identification of conflict points among the participants about what is desirable.*

Designing the process for facilitating dialogue to maximise the collective potential of cross-sector collaborations is of paramount importance. The process for facilitating dialogue thus becomes an important boundary experience for collaborators.

Josh: *"It's essential that you give everybody a voice in the collaborative process ... Now, that doesn't mean that, therefore, we're all beholden to incorporate those ideas and thoughts into the solution, but if you don't give people a chance to say it, nobody else will ever know and you lose some of the potential of the collective conversation. That's a really important moment, if you like, in the design process. That's where your maximum divergence, maximum potential value, maximum potential creativity is, you've got the thoughts of everybody. Now you're designing and building possible solutions with all of it, rather than some of it.*

Maximising dialogue, potential value and potential creativity is critical to success and designing processes to do this must be taken seriously. Some practitioners spoke about the process of design in relation to the membership of a cross-sector collaborations. Structures with suitable memberships can thus form boundary organisations which are structural catalysts driving the development of collaborations among different organisations (Morse, 2010). In this data the "sponsor group" manages across organisational boundaries. Jackson asks:

Jackson *"How do you structure the sponsorship [as in sponsor group] for collaborative work? Is representation across the parties that are involved [required], but also looking to have a bit of a diagonal slice of the organizations in the group for the design the process itself? This isn't the preserve of the executive, this is about everybody – from the decision-making authority power holders in a legitimate sense through to the people who are the front-line. Who actually do the work and live the experience. You need all of those voices in the design process."*

Earlier (see section 4.2.1.3. *Table, conversation and time*) Louis spoke of "curating" people and here he talks of "incubating". His view is very organic but he sees the (in vitro) space as one with an architecture that allows for incubation.

Louis *The design process is taking four, give, six meetings to [prepare for] a three day session. From a pure content standpoint, you do not need six meetings to design a three-day session, but what happens is you create the context for the sponsorship [group] to interact in vitro, you create a way to incubate a different behaviour or different way to look at the problem.*

Summarising the data in relation to "process" and "design", the analysis revealed that cross-sector collaborations require bespoke development through a carefully designed process that facilitates dialogue, maximises the collective potential of the collaboration and is instrumental in building cohesion among the collaborators.

4.2.2.2. Leadership

Practitioners placed great importance on the role of leadership with in the collaborative process. The inherent potential of leadership qualities such as humility and generosity but also

ambition accord with integrative behaviours such as proficient interpersonal skills and treating collaborators as equals. Louis points out that

Louis We had a strong understanding that success would be combination of creating the right leadership conditions ... There needs to be an inherent potential, a pre-existing potential that you can build from. If there is not a fair level of humility, ambition, generosity, if there is not a baseline of leadership qualities you are not going to build anything.

Creating leadership conditions is a group responsibility and leadership becomes another builder of potential. Exploring the concepts of “process” and “leadership” in more detail within the transcripts demonstrates that leadership plays an important role within cross-sector collaborations, but that there were varied understandings of leadership. Trudy articulated this view and suggested there was a misunderstanding as to what genuine leadership is:

Trudy I think the first question is to define what does leadership look like in these type of initiatives. I think leadership has become so bastardized, we don't actually really know what it means any more ... If I think about catalytic leadership, big collaborations need many people leading and managing in different ways to make them more successful ... it's not positional leadership, it's the capacity to bring a system together. What's the leadership required to see an opportunity and then be able to bring whoever has the right people in that system, they may not be obvious, together? To be compelling enough to get them to put aside their personal agendas to work together. I think that's a really unique form of leadership, which is back to the late action stages of leadership.

Her view of the necessary role of leadership in cross-sector collaborations aligned with aspects of integrative leadership, such as the systems-orientation of integrative thinking (Alexander et al. 2001; Senge 1990; Sun & Anderson 2012;), the unifying actions of integrative behaviours that foster semi-permanent connections (Alexander et al. 2001; Ospina & Foldy 2010; Page 2010; Silvia & McGuire 2010; Sun & Anderson 2012) and rally collaborators toward a shared purpose (Vangen & Huxham 2003). Trudy's reference to late action stages of leadership accords with integrative thinking as a “high-order” attribute (Sun & Anderson 2012) and along with humility and generosity it connects to wisdom (McKenna, Rooney & Boal 2009). Her view of leadership as “bastardised” is also important. She is pointing to leadership as a reified concept that has a dark or less desirable side (Tourish 2013) when it is not accompanied by humility and generosity.

Practitioners viewed the role of leadership as greater when it was viewed as more than just positional leadership, as Trudy did above. Jackson is also somewhat critical in arguing that:

Jackson In the process, [leadership is] not always necessary. The leadership should be there so they can be part of it, but if you're best place to lead us through this moment and that leads to an epiphany, brilliant. There doesn't need to be a leader during that moment. In fact, actually applying too much leadership within the creative process is one way of destroying it.

Jackson's view is that positional leadership plays a role in legitimising and thus initiating a cross-sector collaboration, and also in implementing outcomes of the collaboration through the allocation of resources. However he conceded that leadership was not always necessary to drive the collaborative process. However, if one were to expand the definition of leadership beyond that derived from the authority of a position, it could be argued that leadership can be exercised by people regardless of their formal position. This nuance was articulated by some practitioners:

Mary *[E]ven using that language of leadership is confusing, because I'm talking about leadership at every level and actually how people prep, you know, the mindset and the way of working and the processes that help people make progress.*

For Mary, leadership is a concrete way of being and doing (preparation, mindset and working). While some practitioners viewed leadership as related to position and authority, others viewed in terms of influencing others regardless of position.

Christine *I think [collaborative leadership] speaks to the nature of whole-system collaboration, that actually everybody has to be taking up a leadership role, because they're all part of creating the solutions to it. So they've got to find a way to bring that in and work together. That's what I would say is leadership, is helping people face the new reality and adapt well to that.*

Taylor expressed an opinion consistent with this view that leadership requires being able to influence people to adapt to the context and ensure collaborators are heard. Giving voice to the diversity of identities in cross-sector collaborations is an integrative thinking capability. The capacity to adapt to context is an integrative process that can be leveraged in collaborations (Sun and Anderson 2012). Integrative leaders need to exploit their high-order awareness of processes and structures to beneficially co-evolve collaborations (Crosby & Bryson, 2010b; Huxham & Vangen, 2000, Sun and Anderson 2012)

Taylor *[Collaborators] need to almost make sure that there are other voices around the table ... in that decision-making capacity who also have the ability to hold that adaptive leadership space.*

Summarising the data in relation to “process” and “leadership”, leadership plays a substantial role in the process of cross-sector collaboration. Practitioners viewed the role of leadership in cross-sector collaboration as greater when viewed as more than just positional leadership. Some practitioners proposed adaptive leadership as appropriate for cross-sector collaborations and referred to it as both the adaptability of leaders to the context and their ability to influence other people to adapt to the context.

4.2.3. Collaboration

Given the subject matter of the practitioner interviews, it is unsurprising that “collaboration” emerged as an important theme. “Collaboration” co-occurred with “ability” and “system”. Exploring these concepts in more detail within the transcripts revealed that practitioners view particular abilities as positively assisting cross-sector collaborations. Particular abilities are important to successful cross-sector collaborations. These abilities focus on aligning personal and collective purpose, and strongly echo the theory on integrative thinking in terms of maintaining a systems perspective on a collaboration and understanding the interrelations of the different dynamisms at play within the collaboration (Alexander et al. 2001; Senge 1990; Sun & Anderson 2012). Christine said:

Christine *We landed on principles [for collaboration] ... which had both a level of awareness and skills to fit purpose, that our ability to know collective and personal purpose ... So purpose, power, role, working with difference, and sustainability as kind of core competencies, if you like. Principles that we need to be aware of around both, I mean, so much of it is the awareness, the systemic awareness, the personal awareness people need to work successfully in collaboration.*

Systemic awareness is a very important ability in this excerpt. However, humility is again proposed as an ability conducive to collaborating, which has already been identified as an integrative behaviour. However, Jackson says:

Jackson [T]here are definitely mindsets that enable collaboration. That humility is really important. That ability is not a prerequisite, but really helps. People with high humility can collaborate very easily. Their sense of self is more balanced ... If you have got the answer and you believe that 100%, you'll not be able to collaborate. That ability to be slightly wrong, or not wrong, or not know, to admit that is one of those conditions required to actually have that collaboration to work.

The ability to be slightly wrong or to “not know” are important and stand in contrast to high-order cognitive skills. But high-order humility skills may be just as important.

Some practitioners emphasised the importance of high-order cognitive skills such as the reflexive abilities and empathetic “place-taking” skills such as being cognisant of the beliefs and perspectives of others. These abilities are form part of integrative thinking.

Trudy [A] lot of the collaborations that work well are when they put in place action research or reflection processes, where they are stepping out of what they're doing constantly to reflect on the process of how they're collaborating ... That ability to step out and reflect, in the moment, even, about how they're working together and what's going on is, in my mind, the work of collaboration, because that's what they're trying to create out in the community.

Christine [T]hey've all got to build the capability to work politically across different beliefs and perspectives.

An awareness of one’s place within the system, the ability to reflect by “stepping out”, and to be politically aware are mentioned as important. Systemic awareness is a significant aspect of integrative thinking (Sun & Anderson 2012; Alexander et al. 2001; Senge 1990) and is endorsed by practitioners such as Keith.

Keith [Important to successful collaborative initiatives] is the ability to articulate the scope and the frame of reference to what you are going to collaborate on ... is essentially creating this collective view of the system, so we can all observe something we can see ourselves in and relate how others are connected, to start to pull together a frame or a scope which we can then attend to what we can collectively collaborate on to improve. With the knowledge of how it connects everyone in that, stakeholders or different parts.

Summarising the data in relation to “collaboration”, “ability” and “system”, the analysis revealed that practitioners advocated for collaborators to have qualities and/or skills such as humility, curiosity, reflexivity, empathy, an appreciation of the system in which the collaboration is taking place, an understanding of one’s own place within the system, and an ability to align personal objectives with the collective purpose of the collaboration. The views of practitioners in relation to “process” and “collaboration” again supported aspects of existing theory relating to integrative structures and processes, integrative thinking and integrative behaviours.

4.2.4. Governance

The final significant theme to emerge from the Leximancer analysis is “governance” and the role it plays in successful cross-sector collaborations. “Money”, “group”, “business”, “organizations” and “work” tended to co-occur with “governance”. While governance may seem

straightforward in theory (“as long as the collaboration is trying to be representative in its decision making, and that people will authorize that group to make decisions on their behalf” – Christine) it is challenging to enact this in practice. The variety of opinions on governance presented below indicates that there is little agreement about what it is and how it should be done. Mary emphasised the finality of their authority within the governing group:

Mary *“It has to make sure a right people sitting at the collaboration table. Say if you've got a governance committee, it helps if they all come from similar levels, in terms of their decision-making authority, because it can be frustrating if someone brings up [that] they must report back to 3 different people before they can make a decision, if everyone else sitting there is a CEO. That can be a bit challenging for governance committees.”*

Other areas of focus related to the representativeness of membership within governance structures, where some practitioners warned of overly inclusive and therefore potentially unmanageable memberships. This recognition of the limitations of structures supports a leadership dimension of integrative structures and processes (Crosby & Bryson 2010; Huxham & Vangen, 2000, Sun & Anderson 2012). Taylor is not sure about the best approach and says:

Taylor *I think there's got to be a median in between representing everyone, and having an effective governance group that can make decisions ... Should it be the most senior executives of the different organizations? Or should it be more diverse?*

Balancing representativeness with manageability can be achieved by having both a sponsorship group comprising persons with formal authority and a group of champions use who informal authority to engage others in the collaboration (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). Ideally champions act as “collaborative capacity builders” which are people “who either by legal authority, expertise valued in the network, reputation as an honest broker, or some combination of the three, has been accorded a lead role in the network’s problem-solving exercises” (Weber & Khademian 2008, p. 340).

Continuing the uncertainty in practitioner perspectives, Jackson is rather vague and abstract in his thinking about governance:

Jackson *We'll use a governance structure up front in the framing [of the collaboration], which will be a representative team of leadership and people who are in the system, but representative of the whole system so they can define the problem in the correct ways. That governance stays all the way through, so they're also accountable for ensuring there's enough resource.*

Louis shows a similar abstractness in suggesting that:

Louis *I think this is essential for ... the little core group that will drive the initiative to be engaged. Their responsibility is then having to connect at the right level [of all affected organisations to ensure some representative engagement] ... if you can hold all the layers [of representativeness] together, then it becomes your responsibility to create the entry steps for every level of conceptualization it may have.*

Furthering describing the challenge of effective governance, some practitioners referred to the important capabilities for collaboration (discussed previously in Section 4.2.3

Collaboration). The expertise demanded of these high-order skills indicates the difficulty in implementing effective governance regimes.

Some practitioners suggested that the challenges in relation to cross-sector collaboration governance models were driving their evolution in an attempt to find better approaches. One particular change relates to making the membership of governance structures more fluid so that they can change as the collaboration progresses through various stages of development. This approach to evolving the collaboration for its benefit is consistent with theory on integrative processes (Crosby & Bryson 2010; Huxham & Vangen, 2000, Sun & Anderson 2012). Christine provides a cogent account of this position:

Christine I do think we're going through a bit of a transition at the moment ... trying to find different [governance] models ... where that [governance] role is rotated, and different people come forward to take it up at different stages ... [with] an initial backbone that's kicked [the collaboration] off and held that [governance] role, but they've then built the capability within the collaboration for others to take that role up. It evolves and rotates.

Summarising the data in relation to “governance”, the analysis revealed that practitioners recognised the importance of governance to the success of cross-sector collaborations. While they believe that governance regimes should be representative, and that people should authorise these groups to make decisions on their behalf, achieving such a regime is difficult in practice. Finally, some practitioners suggested that the difficulties arising in relation to cross-sector collaboration governance models were driving their evolution in an attempt to find better approaches. For the most part, practitioners look uncertain about how to do governance and who should do it. Although governance is prominent enough in the data to be a theme, Leximancer found that few concepts co-occurred with it in a meaningful way indicating that interviewees struggled to find coherent narratives about it (Rooney 2005).

4.3. Discussion of findings

The literature review in chapter 2 discussed Huxham and Vangen’s (2005) theory that collaborative leadership—defined as “what makes things happen in a collaboration” (Huxham & Vangen, 2005, p. 202). The research question of the study seeks to build upon this definition by determining what makes things happen in cross-sector collaborations *according to practitioners’ perspectives*. The discussion of the findings in this chapter follows Huxham and Vangen’s assertion that leadership is enacted through the interconnected media of structures, processes and participants (2005, p. 202) to make things happen. Prior to discussing the findings in relation to these three media, I will focus on the integrative role of leadership in bringing together the various aspects of cross-sector collaborations.

4.3.1. Integrative Leadership

Similar to Huxham and Vangen (2005), Crosby and Bryson (2005) consider what makes things happen in collaborations but define leadership in collaborative contexts as “the inspiration and mobilization of others to pursue collective action in pursuit of the common good” (2005, p. xix). Within the findings there was no common conception of leadership. Some practitioners conceived of leadership in relation to formal position where leadership was considered *within* the collaboration. However others viewed leadership at a more macro level *above* the collaboration, describing it as “catalytic leadership ... [with the] capacity to bring a

system together". This macro-level type of leadership is consistent with the definition of "integrative leadership" as "integrating people, resources and organisations across various boundaries to tackle complex public problems and achieve the common good" (Crosby & Bryson, 2014, p. 57). As presented in chapter 2, integrative leadership relates primarily to cross-sector collaborations (Morse, 2010), and since most cross-sector collaborations have an element of public interest in the outcome it is also referred to as integrative public leadership. A synthesis of the integrative public leadership literature revealed that integrative public leaders catalyse cross-sector collaborations through integrative thinking, integrative behaviour, integrative leadership resources, and integrative structures and processes (Sun & Anderson 2012). I have interwoven integrative leadership into my discussion of findings in relation to structures, processes and participants in cross-sector collaborations. The discussion argues that practitioners view the dimensions of integrative leadership as important in producing an effective cross-sector collaboration, and therefore integrative leadership is an important part of effectively making things happen in a cross-sector collaboration.

4.3.2. Structures

This section discusses my findings in relation to structures and existing theory. First, the findings support existing claims that structural arrangements affect cross-sector collaborations (Alter & Hage 1993). The impact of institutional forces were recognised by practitioners (Huxham & Vangen 2000) and prior relationships between collaborators were seen to be "linking mechanisms" (Waddock 1986) that play a role in the formation of partnerships (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006). The findings of this study are consistent with the literature in this respect and suggest that prior connections play role in establishing trust between collaborators:

"[T]he role of prior relationships or existing networks is also important because it is often through these that partners judge the trustworthiness of other partners and the legitimacy of key stakeholders" (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015, p. 652).

The findings also related trust to risk taking and in this way prior structural relationships between parties were claimed to minimise the risks of collaborating.

Prior structural relationships also help provide a context to the collaboration as they immediately extend the focus of the collaboration beyond one party. The findings suggest that cross-sector collaborators should appreciate the system in which the collaboration takes place and an understanding of their own place within the system. This is because a systemic perspective is considered important for helping collaborators understand how the system connects with a view to solving the shared problem that initiated the collaboration. These findings are consistent with integrative thinking, which involves the cognitive ability to maintain a systems perspective on a collaboration while distinguishing between and understanding the interrelations of the different dynamisms at play within the collaboration (Alexander et al. 2001; Senge 2006; Sun & Anderson 2012). Prior relationships between structures thus help build trust between collaborators and give them a better platform from which to collaborate.

Second, the most significant aspect of structure arising in the findings relates to governance of cross-sector collaborations. Governance structures representative of the various collaborating organisations were viewed as desirable by practitioners who spoke, for example, of the need for "a diagonal slice of the organizations" to be represented in the governance structures. Representativeness was desirable for several reasons because it can help (1) increase

understanding among collaborators, (2) meet the various objectives of the collaborators, (3) engage multiple parties in the collaborative initiative, and (4) maximise the potential of the collaboration. While processes can assist in bringing about these objects, as will be discussed below, the structure of governance regimes serve to reinforce them as well.

The findings of the study have emphasised the importance of collaborators understanding each other's motivations and ways of thinking. Further, the findings suggest that representative governance structures assist in increasing this understanding among collaborators. This finding is consistent with the theory relating to boundary organisations, which are structural catalysts driving the development of collaborations among different organisations (Morse, 2010). Understanding motivations is also complementary to aspects of integrative thinking that promote understanding of collaborators valued identities (Hartman, Hofman & Stafford 1999; Ospina & Foldy 2010). While representative forms of governance structures provide a platform for interactions that increase understanding between collaborators, processes within cross-sector collaborations help accelerate these interactions (discussed in Section 4.3.4 *Processes*).

Related to boundary organisations, the findings suggest that place is connected to integrative behaviours such as visualisation and expressing ideas. As indicated earlier, the table is a place for would-be collaborators to gather around as people and begin the process of developing trust. Place attachment is produced by affective, cognitive and behavioural interactions (Scannell & Gifford 2010) which overlaps with integrative thinking and integrative behaviours. Related to place attachment is place identity, a “pot-pourri of memories, conceptions, interpretations, ideas, and related feelings about specific physical settings as well as types of settings” (Proshansky, Fabian & Kaminoff 1983). Similar to the social level of place attachment (Scannell & Gifford 2010), place identity can be a function of what people do and communicate to each other (Twigger-Ross & Uzzell 1996). The “table/place” acts as a hybrid boundary organisation and boundary experience that creates trust, builds attachment between collaborators and the collaboration, and can unify the various purposes of the collaborators.

The findings also suggest that representative governance structures assist in ensuring that the objectives of all parties entering the cross-sector collaboration are known and considered. This finding relates to claims that structural aspects of collaborations help shape the agendas of collaborations (Huxham & Vangen, 2005). Agendas are set within collaborations to achieve the various objectives of the parties. Interconnected structures, such as representative governance structures, can “determine such key factors as who may have an influence on shaping a partnership agenda, who may have power to act and what resources may be tapped” (Huxham & Vangen, 2005, p. 204). Practitioners spoke of these factors in terms of decision-making authority and indicated that an effective governance structure should have final authority in terms of decision-making.

Another element of the findings was that representative governance structures can help to engage multiple parties by giving a cross-section of collaborating organisations a seat at the table. Even if not all parties can be engaged in the *final* governing structure within the collaboration, practitioners recognise that these parties need to be involved within *some* structure of the collaboration as “you need all of those voices” to contribute. This is consistent with elements of integrative thinking that promote understanding the valued identities of collaborators to “give voice to the diverse identities in the multi-sector collaboration” (Sun & Anderson 2012, p. 314) and develop a shared identity for it (Ospina & Foldy 2010).

My analysis found that memberships of governance structures should possess a degree of fluidity so that they can change as the collaboration progresses through various life-cycle stages. This is consistent with the integrative structures and processes dimension of integrative leadership, which includes being able to appreciate the limitations and affordances of collaborative structures and recognise the need to evolve those structures for its benefit (Sun & Anderson 2012). Possessing the skills to engage collaborators in the process of co-evolving the collaboration is an aspect of integrative leadership (Crosby & Bryson, 2010; Huxham & Vangen 2000).

Finally, the findings also suggested that diversity within structures was important in maximising the collective potential of cross-sector collaborations. This is unsurprising since many cross-sector collaborations are driven by a need for independent parties to work together to address complex public issues (Agranoff 2007; Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006, 2015; Provan & Kenis 2008; Thomson & Perry 2006). Practitioners emphasised structures that give everybody a voice as a means to helping gain “maximum divergence, maximum potential value, [and] maximum potential creativity”. Doing so can connect with the identities of collaborators and help facilitate their emotional engagement in the initiative (Redekop 2010). While structures help bring about these important outcomes in cross-sector collaborators—namely increasing understanding among collaborators, addressing the various objectives of the collaborators, engaging multiple parties in the collaborative initiative, and maximising the potential of the collaboration—structures are closely integrated and supported by processes, which also help achieve these outcomes.

4.3.3. Processes

This section discusses the findings in relation to processes and existing theory. Processes include the “formal and informal instruments ... through which the collaboration’s communications take place” (Huxham & Vangen 2005, p. 205). The research findings extensively covered processes, which is unsurprising given that the interview participant sample focused on cross-sector collaboration practitioners working as consultants designing and facilitating such collaborations—their expertise relates to using processes to bring about a valuable outcome. Much of the findings supported the existing theory relating to the role of processes in effectively making things happen in collaborations. In particular, the findings affirmed the role of boundary experiences in catalysing “integration and collaborative action” (Morse, 2010, p. 234), where boundary experiences are “shared or joint activities that create a sense of community and an ability to transcend boundaries among participants” (Feldman et al. 2006, p. 94 cited in Morse, 2010, p. 234). Practitioners discussed in depth the need for joint activities to transcend boundaries among collaborators.

The findings presented the dialoguing process as a vital boundary experience that catalyses integration and collaborative action. The dialoguing process was identified as the process of convening, often spoken of as “meeting around the table”, and take the appropriate time to engage in conversation with the aim of seeing each other as people, understanding each other’s motivations and ways of thinking, and establishing trust as the basis on which to successfully collaborate. The findings suggested that this process helps “transcend boundaries” (Morse, 2010). Specifically, the boundary experience of conversation between collaborating parties was viewed as important in enabling genuine personal interaction that builds shared understandings and helps parties to collaborate better. Within an actor-network (Latour 1987) conception the

dialoguing process is highly regarded in terms of its ability to influence the network of a cross-sector collaboration.

The findings supported theory relating to integrative thinking which includes the ability to understand the different “dominant logics” of different organisations involved in a collaboration (Hartman, Hofman & Stafford 1999). Overcoming these logics helps build shared identities (Ospina & Foldy 2010) and shared understandings that help facilitate emotional engagement in the collaboration (Redekop 2010). The dialoguing process can also be viewed as an integrative behaviour as it fosters semi-permanent connections (Alexander et al. 2001; Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Crosby & Bryson 2010; Huxham & Vangen 2000; Ospina & Foldy 2010; Page 2010; Paul et al. 2001; Silvia & McGuire 2010; Sun & Anderson 2012), specifically by developing relationships with collaborating parties (Ospina & Saz-Carranza 2010). Interestingly the findings did not place emphasis on the role of boundary objects catalysing collaborative action, which include artefacts such as strategic plans.

Beyond the general dialoguing process discussed above, the findings included specific processes through which collaborative leadership can be enacted. Huxham and Vangen’s (2005, p. 205) suggestion that processes can include workshops was affirmed. Practitioners, for example, discussed how workshops help identify and resolve conflict, and facilitate alignment among collaborating parties. This is consistent with Feldman et al’s (2006, p. 94) conception of boundary experiences as “joint activities that create a sense of community and an ability to transcend boundaries among participants”.

The language of the boundary experiences as a “facilitating” process reveals an important aspect of the processes of cross-sector collaborations, namely that they are nuanced, non-coercive and are intended to fine-tune complex arrangements for optimal performance. This assertion is supported in the findings by the emphasis placed on “designing” processes within cross-sector collaborations. For example, practitioners called for processes to be designed to extract “maximum divergence, maximum potential value, [and] maximum potential creativity” from the structures and participants of cross-sector collaborations. Drawing together differences or diversities of abilities and worldviews provides the basis from which to creatively construct solutions to shared problems (Ospina & Foldy 2010). Furthermore, the findings suggest that participatory design process may assist in developing “trust and alignment” amongst collaborators. The language of alignment also alludes to processes of fine-tuning complex arrangements within collaborations, as do findings that advocate for processes to support “curating the people” tasked with important roles in the collaboration. The claim that boundary experiences in cross-sector collaborations must be nuanced is supported by the practitioners’ emphasis on the need for an appropriate amount of time to be spent in the dialoguing process and that the process for each collaboration should be bespoke. Given the complexity of what they entail, these processes can be referred to as “high-order” attributes of integrative thinking (Sun & Anderson 2012).

4.3.4. Participants

This section discusses the findings in relation to participants (or people) and existing theory. Participants who “engage in networking tasks and employ methods of coordination and task integration across organizational boundaries” (Alter & Hage 1993, p. 46) have been referred to as ‘boundary spanners’ (Williams 2002). While “people” was an important theme within the

data, the findings focused more on the “networking tasks” and “methods of coordination” rather than the specific people engaged in them. This is explained by the interview sample, which is comprised of practitioners whose employment involves designing and facilitating cross-sector collaborations. As a result, practitioners have focused on the elements of the collaborations that they can affect and this did not include “participants”, since practitioners do not select the collaborating parties.

The findings indicate that people wanting to enact change within their contexts drive cross-sector collaborations—they are mobilized by desire for change that will fix a problem. These findings are consistent with the catalytic role of boundary spanners who work and integrate across boundaries to provide “a spark or catalyst that truly makes a difference” (Luke 1998, p. 4). Integrative leadership resources includes the moral desire to serve the community by bringing in necessary expertise and using appropriate social connections in collaborations (Sun & Anderson 2012). However, practitioners did not focus on serving the community while speaking about the desire for change but the fact that practitioners have been engaged for their expertise indicates that the act of their employment might be representative of integrative leadership resources. The motivations of key people who play catalytic roles in collaborations, thus, represent a significant factor relating to participants.

The findings suggest that cross-sector collaborators should have humility, empathy, reflexivity, and the ability to align personal objectives with the collective purpose of the collaboration. These findings are consistent with the literature. The capability of integrative thinking to emotionally engage diverse groups in cross-sector collaborations has already been discussed (Redekop 2010). Extending this, professional empathy is a concept well-established in the design-thinking field where it refers to seeing the world through the eyes of others and using this perspective to guide design decision (Bason 2010; Brown 2009). While empathy is considered a desirable quality among participants, a large part of effective cross-sector collaboration relates to processes that intend to achieve a similar outcome in terms of transcending boundaries and hence it has been discussed in relation dialoguing processes (see above Section 4.3.3. *Processes*).

Related to the concept of empathy, humility has been recognised as a quality of boundary-spanning leaders who take satisfaction in the shared accomplishments collectives and whose ambitions are more directed to collective success than “personal glory” (Linden 2003, p. 154). Described as “ego strength” in the domain of psychology, this refers to people who “don’t have the internal motivation to be in charge of everything ... [but have a] willingness to share credit, which is crucial in forging agreements and sustaining action” (Luke 1998, p. 230–31). Humility or ego strength would thus help align personal objectives with the collective purpose of the collaboration. Integrative behaviours include treating collaborators as equals, considering their welfare and celebrating their successes, all of which helps build trust in the relationship (Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Silvia & McGuire 2010; Vangen & Huxham 2003). The emphasis on humility and generosity indicate that wisdom (McKenna, Rooney & Boal 2009) plays a role in successful cross-sector collaborations. The importance of reflexivity within cross-boundary governance and arrangements is well established (Ansell, Christopher 2011; Jay 2013; Temmerman, De Rynck & Voets 2015). This was supported by calls for participants to “constantly to reflect on the process of how they’re collaborating”.

There was some indication in the findings that practitioners viewed themselves as key participants in the collaborations. This was understandable given the importance of coordinating the collaborative process and employing actions—“designing”, “facilitating”, “curating”—which have been described as nuanced, non-coercive and intended to fine-tune complex arrangements for optimal performance. These actions are the expertise areas of cross-sector collaboration practitioners. One practitioner described her role as that of “coaxing catalyst”. This view of the role of cross-sector collaboration practitioners is consistent with the conception of boundary spanners. It is also consistent with integrative behaviours which are actions taken to foster semi-permanent connections in order to achieve public good (Alexander et al. 2001; Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Crosby & Bryson 2010; Huxham & Vangen 2000; Ospina & Foldy 2010; Page 2010; Paul et al. 2001; Silvia & McGuire 2010; Sun & Anderson 2012). For example, in the findings the coaxing actions of practitioners included “putting a proposition to them [the collaborating parties] and then making it happen because they’re so busy but also because my sense was they didn’t know how to progress it so it didn’t look like every other thing that they’d been involved with or seen before”. Therefore, given that leadership in collaborations is enacted through participants who “employ methods of coordination and task integration across organizational boundaries” (Alter & Hage 1993, p. 46), effective practitioners can be considered a key element of collaborative leadership and making things happen in cross-sector collaborations.

4.4. Chapter summary

This chapter began by explaining the Leximancer analysis of the interview transcripts. It outlined how the Leximancer output directed the systematic analysis of practitioners’ perspectives by analysing the interview transcripts in relation to the identified themes. The analysis of the chapter focused on the most significant themes presented in the Leximancer results, namely “people”, “process”, “process”, “collaboration” and “governance”. Excerpts from the transcripts relating to these themes were analysed and findings presented in relation to each. The final part of the chapter discussed the key findings in relation to existing theory.

The discussion argued that integrative leadership is an important part of effectively making things happen in a cross-sector collaboration. Prior structural relationships were found to help build trust between collaborators and give them a better platform from which to collaborate. Representativeness in structures was advocated for because it can help increase understanding among collaborators, meet the various objectives of the collaborators, engage multiple parties in the collaborative initiative, and maximise the potential of the collaboration. My analysis found that memberships of governance structures should possess a degree of fluidity so that they can change as the collaboration progresses through various life-cycle stages.

The findings also emphasised the importance of collaborators understanding each other’s motivations and ways of thinking, and the need “give voice to the diverse identities in the multi-sector collaboration” (Sun & Anderson 2012, p. 314). The findings affirmed the role of boundary experiences in catalysing “integration and collaborative action” and presented the dialoguing process as a vital boundary experience. The boundary experience of conversation between collaborating parties was considered important in enabling genuine personal interaction that builds shared understandings and helps parties to collaborate better. The language of the boundary experiences as a “facilitating” process revealed an important aspect of the processes of cross-sector collaborations, namely that they are nuanced, non-coercive and are intended to fine-tune complex arrangements for optimal performance.

My analysis found that people wanting to enact change within their contexts drive cross-sector collaborations. The findings also suggested that cross-sector collaborators should have humility, empathy, reflexivity, and the ability to align personal objectives with the collective purpose of the collaboration. Finally, effective practitioners were found to be a key element of collaborative leadership and making things happen in cross-sector collaborations.

The following chapter makes conclusions about the findings in relation to the research problem and questions of the study.

Chapter 5 Conclusions and Implications

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter follows the discussion of the findings in chapter 4 and makes conclusions about the findings in relation to the research problem and questions. Practitioners emphasised many elements important to the success of cross-sector collaborations that were already present in the existing literature. These elements included linking mechanisms such as the presence of boundary-spanning participants (Crosby & Bryson 2010), the ability to frame issues in a manner so that diverse collaborators understand their importance and relevance to them (Cikaliuk 2011), the role that prior connections play in establishing trust between collaborators (Bryson et al. 2011), the need for inclusive structures to help implement the collaboration and facilitate governance (Berardo, Heikkila & Gerlak 2014; Quick & Feldman 2011; Saz-Carranza & Ospina 2010), the importance of trust (Lee et al. 2012) and communication (Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012), the need for both a sponsor and a champion group (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015), and the need for people to exercise leadership at various levels within the collaboration (Agranoff 2012; Baker, Kan & Teo 2011; Clarke & Fuller 2010).

The chapter also discusses implications of the findings for areas of theory, methodology and practice. Implications for theory include the need for the principal governance group working on the cross-sector collaboration to have ultimate decision-making authority, the need for bespoke processes for each collaboration, and the importance of place and place attachment in cross-sector collaborations. Implications for practice includes designing the collaborative environment needs to support trust and safety as a means of enabling integrative thinking and behaviours. The (metaphorical) arena around which collaborators can gather and begin the dialoguing process is an important part of the collaborative environment that needs to be designed by practitioners

Finally, the limitations of the study are presented and possible future research directions are outlined to conclude the chapter. These include further exploration of governance, place and wisdom in cross-sector collaborations, and investigation of government-led collaborations.

5.2. Conclusions about the research problem and questions

The increased belief that cross-sector collaborations have the potential to tackle complex problems has attracted attention from both practice and academia. First, it has driven the development of an industry of cross-sector collaboration practitioners who work to design and facilitate such collaborations. Second, it has spawned academic research on cross-sector collaborations (see Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Thomson & Perry 2006; Ansell & Gash 2008; Agranoff 2007, 2012; Provan & Kenis 2008; Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2011; Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012). However, the existing research on cross-sector collaborations has focused on case analyses and as a result there is an opportunity to explore existing theoretical understandings of cross-sector collaborations through the practical insight of a sample of cross-sector collaboration practitioners. The problem addressed in this research was how practitioners work on cross-sector collaborations.

Conclusions relating to the research problem are presented in Table 3, where elements identified by collaborative practitioners as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations are listed in the first column. The elements that are also present in existing cross-sector collaboration theoretical frameworks are noted in the second column. Elements related to

leadership are italicised in Table 3. It should be noted that practitioners did not share a common conception of leadership but emphasised aspects of both integrative leadership and the interconnect media of structures, processes and participants through which collaborative leadership is enacted (Huxham & Vangen 2005). However, practitioners placed greater emphasis on structures and processes than on participants. I hypothesise that this is due to practitioners focusing on designing and facilitating cross-sector collaborations, which are elements that they can influence, whereas selecting collaborating participants is not within their realm of control. Further, practitioners focused on three dimensions of integrative leadership (Sun & Anderson 2012), namely integrative thinking, integrative behaviours and integrative processes and structures. Integrative leadership resources were not emphasised by practitioners but I hypothesise that the act of employing practitioners for their expertise in relation to cross-sector collaborations represents collaborating parties utilising integrative leadership resources.

Table 3: Research problem conclusions

Elements identified by collaborative practitioners as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations	Elements of existing cross-sector collaboration frameworks emphasised by collaborative practitioners
<i>Practitioners emphasised all three of the interconnect media—structures, processes and participants—through which collaborative leadership is enacted, however the least emphasis was placed on participants.</i>	<i>Leadership in collaborations is enacted through the interconnected media of structures, processes and participants (Huxham & Vangen 2005).</i>
<i>Some practitioners conceived of leadership in relation to formal position where leadership was considered within the collaboration. However others viewed leadership at a more macro level above the collaboration and able to “bring a system together”.</i>	<i>Integrative leadership is a macro-level type of leadership referring to “integrating people, resources and organisations across various boundaries to tackle complex public problems and achieve the common good” (Crosby & Bryson, 2014, p. 57).</i>
Practitioners emphasised the effect that structural arrangements have on cross-sector collaborations. Prior structural relationships between parties were claimed to increase trust and minimise the risk of collaborating.	Structure plays a role of structure in collaborations (Agranoff 2007; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Provan & Kenis 2008) (Alter & Hage 1993; Huxham & Vangen 2005). Prior relationships between collaborators can be “linking mechanisms” (Waddock 1986) that can play a role in the formation of partnerships (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006). Establishing trust amongst collaborators is a key collaborative process (Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008; Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006; Provan & Kenis 2008).
<i>Practitioners suggested that cross-sector collaborators should have an appreciation of the system in which the collaboration takes place and an understanding of their own place within the system in order to better understand how the system connects with a view to solving shared problems.</i>	<i>Integrative thinking involves the cognitive ability to maintain a systems perspective on a collaboration while distinguishing between and understanding the interrelations of the different dynamisms at play within the collaboration (Alexander et al. 2001; Senge 2006; Sun & Anderson 2012).</i>
<i>Practitioners emphasised the importance of collaborators understanding each other’s motivations and ways of thinking. Practitioners indicated that representative governance structures can assist in increasing this understanding among collaborators.</i>	<i>Boundary organisations are structural catalysts that drive the development of collaborations among different organisations (Morse, 2010). Integrative thinking helps promote understanding of collaborators valued identities and thereby increase understanding among them (Hartman, Hofman & Stafford 1999; Ospina & Foldy 2010).</i>
Practitioners emphasised the role that representative governance structures can play in ensuring that the objectives of all parties entering the cross-sector collaboration are known and considered.	Structural aspects of collaborations help shape the agendas of collaborations (Huxham & Vangen, 2005) and interconnected structures can “determine such key factors as who may have an influence on shaping a partnership agenda, who may have power to act and what resources may be tapped” (Huxham & Vangen, 2005, p. 204).
Practitioners suggested that effective governance structures have final authority in terms of decision-making.	

Elements identified by collaborative practitioners as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations	Elements of existing cross-sector collaboration frameworks emphasised by collaborative practitioners
<i>Practitioners suggested that diversity within structures was important in maximising the collective potential of collaborations but one needs to give voice to all perspectives in the collaboration.</i>	<i>Elements of integrative thinking promote understanding of collaborators' valued identities in order "give voice to the diverse identities in the multi-sector collaboration" (2012, p. 314). Giving voice to all can help connect with the identities of collaborators and help facilitate their emotional engagement in the initiative (Redekop 2010). It can also help develop a shared identity for the collaboration (Ospina & Foldy 2010).</i>
<i>Practitioners suggested that the membership of governance structures should evolve as the collaboration progresses through various stages of development.</i>	<i>Integrative structures and processes include being able to appreciate the limitations and affordances of collaborative structures and recognise the need to evolve those structures for its benefit (Sun & Anderson 2012). Governance structures need to change over time in relation to external environments and internal dynamics (Cornforth, Hayes & Vangen 2014; Provan & Kenis 2008; Stone, Crosby & Bryson 2013).</i>
<p><i>Practitioners endorsed the dialoguing process as a vital boundary experience that catalyses integration and collaborative action. The dialoguing process was identified as the process of convening, often spoken of as "meeting around the table", and taking the appropriate time to engage in conversation with the aim of seeing each other as people, understanding each other's motivations and ways of thinking, and establishing trust as the basis on which to successfully collaborate.</i></p> <p><i>The metaphorical table affirms that place attachment can be experienced at a social level. Practitioners viewed the boundary experience of conversation between collaborating parties as important in enabling genuine personal interaction that builds shared understandings and helps parties better collaborate.</i></p>	<p><i>Face-to-face dialogue, trust building, and the development of commitment and shared understanding are crucial within the collaborative process (Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008). Integrative thinking includes the ability to understand the different "dominant logics" of different organisations involved in a collaboration (Hartman, Hofman & Stafford 1999). Overcoming these logics helps build shared identities (Ospina & Foldy 2010) and shared understandings that help facilitate emotional engagement in the collaboration (Redekop 2010).</i></p> <p><i>The dialoguing process can also be viewed as an integrative behaviour as it fosters semi-permanent connections (Alexander et al. 2001; Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Sun & Anderson 2012), specifically by developing relationships with collaborating parties (Ospina & Saz-Carranza 2010).</i></p>
<i>A suitable "place" in the collaboration is related to integrative thinking and integrative behaviours such as visualisation and expressing ideas, and thus can take on the role of a boundary organisation.</i>	
<i>Practitioners emphasised the role workshops can play in identifying and resolving conflict, and facilitating alignment among collaborating parties.</i>	<i>Huxham and Vangen (2005, p. 205) include workshops as a type of joint activity boundary experience that creates a sense of community and can transcend boundaries among participants (Feldman et al. 2006)</i>

Elements identified by collaborative practitioners as important to the success of cross-sector collaborations	Elements of existing cross-sector collaboration frameworks emphasised by collaborative practitioners
Practitioners placed emphasis on “designing” processes within cross-sector collaborations and suggested that participatory design process may assist in developing “trust and alignment” amongst collaborators.	
Practitioners emphasised the need for bespoke processes for each collaboration and that an appropriate amount of time be spent in the dialoguing process.	
Practitioners indicated that cross-sector collaborations are often driven by people wanting to enact change within their contexts and fix a problem.	Boundary spanners play a catalytic role as they integrate across boundaries to provide “a spark or catalyst that truly makes a difference” (Luke 1998, p. 4).
<i>Practitioners emphasised the need for cross-sector collaborators to empathy.</i>	<i>Integrative thinking includes the capability of emotionally engaging diverse groups in cross-sector collaborations (Redekop 2010). Professional empathy is a concept well-established in the design-thinking field where it refers to seeing the world through the eyes of others and using this perspective to guide design decision (Bason 2010; Brown 2009).</i>
<i>Practitioners emphasised the need for cross-sector collaborators to have humility as a means of establishing relationships and building trust.</i>	<i>Humility is a recognised quality of boundary-spanning leaders who take satisfaction in the shared accomplishments of collectives and whose ambitions are more directed to collective success than “personal glory” (Linden 2003) and can help forge agreements (Luke 1998). Integrative behaviours include as treating collaborators as equals, considering their welfare and celebrating their successes, all of which helps build trust in the relationship (Bazzoli, Harmata & Chan 1998; Silvia & McGuire 2010; Vangen & Huxham 2003).</i>
Practitioners emphasised the need for cross-sector collaborators to be reflexive.	The importance of reflexivity within cross-boundary governance and arrangements is well-established (Ansell, Christopher 2011; Jay 2013; Temmerman, De Rynck & Voets 2015).
Practitioners emphasised the ability to align personal objectives with the collective purpose of the collaboration.	The ability to rally collaborators toward a shared purpose is key to collaborating (Vangen & Huxham 2003). Such unifying actions help overcome differences and resolve conflicts (Alexander et al. 2001; Morse 2010; Nielsen 1990; Ospina & Saz-Carranza 2010; Page 2010; Redekop 2010). Humility can help forge agreements (Luke 1998) and align personal objectives with collective purpose.
There was some indication in the findings that practitioners viewed themselves as key participants in the collaborations who play boundary-spanning roles.	

Practitioners emphasised elements important to the success of cross-sector collaborations that were already present in the existing literature, however practitioners did not refer to all aspects of existing models and notably quiet in relation to outcomes and accountabilities (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2006), administration (Thompson & Perry 2006), intermediate outcomes (Ansell and Gash 2008), and the role of authoritative texts in collaborations (Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012).

The first cluster of findings that are present in the existing literature relate to the antecedent conditions of cross-sector collaborations. A complex issue requiring a cross-sector collaboration to solve it is an antecedent condition identified by practitioners (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). Also, some practitioners alluded to the role a supportive institutional environment can play in the emergence of a cross-sector collaboration (Bryson et al. 2008) but they did not emphasise these aspects.

Second, practitioners emphasised linking mechanisms such as the presence of boundary-spanning participants (Crosby & Bryson 2010), the ability to frame issues in a manner so that diverse collaborators understand their importance and relevance to them (Cikaliuk 2011), agreement on the general problem to be solved, the interdependence of collaborators (Simo & Bies 2007), and accepted norms of operation (Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012). The role that prior connections play in establishing trust between collaborators was emphasised (Bryson et al. 2011). Koschmann, Kuhn, and Pfarrer (2012) have suggested that naming the collaboration, and developing a narrative and “authoritative text” can help foster collective agency amongst collaborators but practitioners did not discuss this. Further, requests for things such as proposals, plans and technologies can drive cross-sector collaborations (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2014; Quick & Feldman 2011) but practitioners did not raise these. In terms of structures, practitioners emphasised the need for inclusive structures to help implement the collaboration and facilitate governance of the collaboration (Berardo, Heikkila & Gerlak 2014; Quick & Feldman 2011; Saz-Carranza & Ospina 2010).

Fourth, in terms of trust and communication, practitioners strenuously emphasised the importance of trust, which they consider the heart of successful collaborations (Lee et al. 2012). Practitioners were also cognisant of the fact that collaborations have differing levels of trust between collaborators at the outset but that this has to be continuously developed throughout (Emerson, Nabatchi & Balogh 2012; Nolte & Boenigk 2011; Walker & Hills 2012). The emphasis on humility and generosity indicate that wisdom (McKenna, Rooney & Boal 2009) plays a role in successful cross-sector collaborations. Practitioners placed great emphasis on the importance of communication in terms of the dialoguing process, which is the “complex process of meaning negotiation and construction” throughout the collaboration (Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012, p. 335). They also affirmed the value of face-to-face communication within the collaboration (Ansell, Chris & Gash 2008; Romzek, LeRoux & Blackmar 2012). Practitioners’ emphasis on the metaphorical table suggests that place attachment (Scannell & Gifford 2010) can be experienced at a social level in cross-sector collaborations. However, practitioners also ascribed importance to physical place, which they related to integrative thinking and integrative behaviours such as visualisation and expressing ideas. Physical place can thus take on the role of a boundary organisations, which are structural catalysts driving the development of collaborations (Morse 2010). However the “table” place also acts as a boundary experience that creates trust, builds

attachment between collaborators and the collaboration, and unifies the various purposes of the collaborators.

Fifth, practitioners also recognised the need for both a sponsor and a champion group, the former to provide formal authority in the collaboration and the latter to use informal authority to engage others in the collaboration (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). Some practitioners supported the view that to succeed many people must exercise leadership at various levels within the collaboration and partner organisations (Agranoff 2012; Baker, Kan & Teo 2011; Clarke & Fuller 2010). The role of leadership in creating boundary organisations, shared purpose and boundary experiences was also affirmed (Morse 2010).

5.3. Implications for theory

The conclusions of the study affirm much of the existing theory relating to cross-sector collaborations and the role of leadership in successfully delivering them. Given the comprehensiveness of existing theory it is unsurprising that elements identified by practitioners have been theoretically grounded but it is still encouraging that this stream of research accords with practitioner perspectives. Existing literature recognises that cross-sector collaborations are complex and propositions as to what delivers them successfully are not intended to be a prescriptive list but rather a general set of suggestions that may in any set of combinations deliver a successful collaboration.

Despite the comprehensiveness of existing theory, the study yielded some unique findings. First, practitioners emphasised the need for the principal governance group working on the cross-sector collaboration to have ultimate decision-making authority. It was proposed that not having this level of authority could stall action in the collaboration and cause frustration among other collaborating parties who already possess such decision-making authority. Thus, having a governance group with ultimate decision-making authority can grease the wheels of the cross-sector collaboration by enabling matters to be signed off immediately.

Second, practitioners emphasised “designing” processes within cross-sector collaborations. This design component comprised a large part of the work practitioners do on cross-sector collaborations and practitioners emphasised the need for bespoke processes for each collaboration. A bespoke approach to each cross-sector collaborations allows practitioners to utilise their expertise. Related to this, engaging professional cross-sector collaboration practitioners represents utilising integrative leadership resources in order to serve the community by bringing in necessary expertise and use of appropriate social connections (Sun and Anderson 2012). Furthermore, there was some indication in the findings that practitioners viewed themselves as key participants in the collaborations who play boundary-spanning roles. Practitioners thus act as “collaborative capacity builders” since by a combination of legal authority, valued expertise and reputations as honest brokers, they play lead roles in solving the object problem of the collaboration (Weber & Khademian 2008).

Finally, practitioners’ concern with place manifested in two ways relevant to theory. A conducive “place” is related to integrative thinking and integrative behaviours such as visualisation and expressing ideas, and thus can take on the role of a boundary organisation, which is a structural catalyst driving the development of collaborations (Morse 2010). This place attachment is produced by affective, cognitive and behavioural interactions (Scannell & Gifford 2010) which overlap with integrative thinking and integrative behaviours. The other element of

place is the, sometimes metaphorical, arena around which collaborators can gather as people and begin the dialoguing process. The metaphorical aspect affirms that place attachment can be experienced at a social level, where it has been described as “a community process in which groups become attached to areas where they may practice” (Scannell & Gifford 2010, p. 240). These two elements related to place represent additions to the cross-sector collaboration theory.

5.4. Implications for practice

The findings of this study are all derived from practitioners and are thus relevant to the act of designing and facilitating cross-sector collaborations. Given the complexity of cross-sector collaborations it has been suggested that the best that research can offer practitioners is design guidance (Romme & Endenburg 2006) and “handles for reflective practice” (Huxham and Vangen 2005; Popp et al. 2014). This guidance is likely to be welcome since practitioners highly value bespoke design processes in cross-sector collaborations. The study reiterates the practitioner advice offered by Bryson, Crosby and Stone (2015, p. 647): the collaborative advantage gained by collaborating should clear; collaborations should be treated as complex, dynamic, multilevel systems; a design approach should be taken for each cross-sector collaboration; groups of committed sponsors and champions should be involved throughout; inclusive processes should be used to develop inclusive structures to sustain inclusive processes; and flexible governance structures should be adopted which evolve through the various life cycle stages of the collaboration.

Beyond reiterating the above advice, the theoretical findings have two main implications for practice. First, governance groups will benefit from having as much decision-making authority as possible. This capability can hasten the collaborative process and should be designed into the collaboration. Second, the design of the collaborative environment needs to support trust and safety to enable integrative thinking and behaviours such as visualisation and expressing ideas. The findings show trust and safety is connected to the dialoguing process. The (metaphorical) arena around which collaborators can gather and begin the dialoguing process is an important part of the collaborative environment that needs to be designed by practitioners.

5.5. Limitations and implications for future research

There were several limitations to the study. First, interviews were conducted face-to-face where possible but on occasion were conducted via video or voice call where participants were in another city or there were scheduling challenges. The ability of the interviewer to respond to non-verbal communications may be limited in these instances. Given the time and location constraints of the study this was unavoidable. Second, the complexity of cross-sector collaborations may warrant multiple interviews with each respondent to adequately cover the range of variables that can affect such collaborations. Although the findings support much existing cross-sector collaboration theory there were many aspects of theory that were not discussed and the opportunity to engage further with practitioners may have affirmed more of this theory. Given the time constraints of the study this was also inescapable. Third, although some of the practitioners were experienced internationally, the interview sample was based in Australia and therefore the practitioner perspectives on cross-sector collaborations are not necessarily globally applicable. Fourth, the final sample of the study was reduced because of the need to exclude the interviews of some participants who did not meet the participant criteria relating to the number of cross-sector collaborations they had been involved in. Although

expertise in a chosen topic can reduce the number of participants required in a study (Jette, Grover & Keck 2003) the final sample was below the intended 20 and thus a possible limitation of the study.

Given the complexity of cross-sector collaborations Bryson, Crosby and Stone's (2015) final proposition is that the "normal expectation ought to be that success will be very difficult to achieve in cross-sector collaborations". Their complexity also presents challenges for research:

"Collaboration processes are complex enough as to demand a simultaneous analysis of all its moving parts, a goal that should drive future research efforts in this area"
(Berardo, Heikkila & Gerlak 2014, p. 701).

Future studies that examine practitioner perspectives of cross-sector collaborations should consider conducting observational studies or multiple interviews with each respondent to further explore the full complexity of such collaborations. Alternatively, practitioners' interviews could be supplemented with focus groups in an attempt to extract richer perspectives on the subject matter.

As indicated in chapter 3, the study initially intended to include government workers and policy developers who had worked across a range of projects on which they had to design and facilitate cross-sector collaborations. However, it emerged that the context of government-led cross-sector collaborations differed from those not led by government due to the macro-level of much policy development. Cross-sector research would benefit from future studies comparing government-led cross-sector collaborations with those in which government is not a leader or even a participant at all (although this is uncommon in cross-sector collaborations).

Specific concepts in the findings should be explored in future studies. The variety amongst practitioners' opinions on governance indicates that further research on this specific element of cross-sector collaboration is warranted. "Place" featured heavily in practitioners' perspectives and research on place attachment in cross-sector collaborations will shed new light on this topic. The connection between integrative thinking and wisdom in cross-collaborations is another concept that future research should explore.

Finally, the interdisciplinary nature of cross-sector collaborations necessitates blending multiple theoretical and research perspectives and this presents a challenge to scholarship in the area (Rethemeyer 2005). Public management researchers who consider cross-sector collaborations as networks draw upon rich theoretical foundations and focus on structural variables (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015) but can neglect the dynamic aspects and ongoing process dimensions (O'Toole 2014; Popp et al. 2014). In contrast, it is claimed that scholars who view collaborations as collective action solutions to shared problems do not ground their research in theory to the same extent, but provide greater insight into process dimensions and generate work that is more easily applied in practice (Bryson, Crosby & Stone 2015). To address the inherent complexity of cross-sector collaborations future research must bridge these two perspectives (O'Toole 2014).

5.6. Chapter summary

Finally and in brief, practitioners affirmed much of the existing theory regarding cross-sector collaborations and the role of leadership in successfully delivering them. Despite the comprehensiveness of existing cross-sector collaboration theory, the study yielded some unique

findings relating to the need for the principal governance group working on the cross-sector collaboration to have ultimate decision-making authority and the emphasis practitioners place on “designing” processes within cross-sector collaborations. Further, practitioners viewed themselves as key participants in the collaborations and thought that they played boundary-spanning roles and act as collaborative capacity builders (Weber & Khademian 2008). Areas relating to the limitations of the participant sample, the need for more depth in data collection, exploration of governance, place and wisdom, investigation of government-led collaborations, and bridging different research perspectives offers exciting possibilities for future research.

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6. REFERENCES

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethics approval

Approved - 5201500483

Mrs Yanru Ouyang <yanru.ouyang@mq.edu.au>
To: Professor David Rooney <david.rooney@mq.edu.au>
Cc: Mr Jarryd Daymond <jarryd.daymond@students.mq.edu.au>

25 June 2015 at 16:28

Dear Professor Rooney,

Re: 'Integrative leadership for cross-sector collaborations: case study explorations of a theoretical framework.'

Reference No.: 5201500483

Thank you for your recent correspondence. Your response has addressed the issues raised by the Faculty of Business & Economics Human Research Ethics Sub Committee. Approval of the above application is granted, effective "25/06/2015". This email constitutes ethical approval only.

This research meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007). The National Statement is available at the following web site:

http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/_files_nhmrc/publications/attachments/e72.pdf.

The following personnel are authorised to conduct this research:

Mr Jarryd Daymond
Professor David Rooney

NB. STUDENTS: IT IS YOUR RESPONSIBILITY TO KEEP A COPY OF THIS APPROVAL EMAIL TO SUBMIT WITH YOUR THESIS.

Please note the following standard requirements of approval:

1. The approval of this project is conditional upon your continuing compliance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).
2. Approval will be for a period of five (5) years subject to the provision of annual reports.

Progress Report 1 Due: 25th June 2016
Progress Report 2 Due: 25th June 2017
Progress Report 3 Due: 25th June 2018
Progress Report 4 Due: 25th June 2019
Final Report Due: 25th June 2020

NB. If you complete the work earlier than you had planned you must submit a Final Report as soon as the work is completed. If the project has been discontinued or not commenced for any reason, you are also required to submit a Final Report for the project.

Progress reports and Final Reports are available at the following website:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/forms

3. If the project has run for more than five (5) years you cannot renew approval for the project. You will need to complete and submit a Final

Report and submit a new application for the project. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

4. All amendments to the project must be reviewed and approved by the Committee before implementation. Please complete and submit a Request for Amendment Form available at the following website:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/forms

5. Please notify the Committee immediately in the event of any adverse effects on participants or of any unforeseen events that affect the continued ethical acceptability of the project.

6. At all times you are responsible for the ethical conduct of your research in accordance with the guidelines established by the University. This information is available at the following websites:

<http://www.mq.edu.au/policy/>
http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics/policy

If you will be applying for or have applied for internal or external funding for the above project it is your responsibility to provide the Macquarie University's Research Grants Management Assistant with a copy of this email as soon as possible. Internal and External funding agencies will not be informed that you have approval for your project and funds will not be released until the Research Grants Management Assistant has received a copy of this email.

If you need to provide a hard copy letter of approval to an external organisation as evidence that you have approval, please do not hesitate to contact the FBE Ethics Committee Secretariat, via fbe-ethics@mq.edu.au or 9850 4826.

Please retain a copy of this email as this is your official notification of ethics approval.

Yours sincerely,

Dr. Nikola Balnave
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Appendix B: Interview questionnaire

Question 1: Describe the conditions that generally lead to successful cross-sector collaborative initiatives?

Prompt: Are collaborators connected prior to the initiatives?

Prompt: Are collaborators in agreement as to the problem seeking to be addressed?

Question 2: What types of processes and practices do successful cross-sector collaborative initiatives follow?

Prompt: Are these processes/practice formal or informal?

Prompt: How would you describe the working environment of successful collaborative initiatives?

Prompt: Are there any practices or processes that you believe are important to the success of collaborative initiatives?

Question 3: How do the structure and governance of successful cross-sector collaborative initiatives emerge?

Prompt: Are there any strengths or weaknesses relating to the structure, governance or membership of successful collaborative initiatives that you think are noteworthy?

Prompt: How do cross-sector collaborations gain legitimacy?