THE PARTNERSHIPS
RESOURCE CENTRE

THE COLLABORATIVE PARADIGM

Dealing with the increasing role of partnerships in sustainable development

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Abstract

In the past sixty years thinking about (sustainable) development has been prone to some intense intellectual and practical turmoil. Especially in the first forty years, thereby, markets and firms were seen rather as part of the development problem than as part of its solution. Since the start of the 21st century however, awareness has grown that the complexity of the world's sustainability and development problems, asks for joint approaches. Markets and firms, governments and NGOs, as well as firms and NGOs should work together to address those wicked problems.

1. Introduction: the truth lies in the middle!

Mainstream development and sustainability thinking in the past sixty years has largely gone through four phases. In the 1950s and 1960s, directly following the de-colonisation process, the development agenda was primarily formulated by governments and aimed at the provision of ‘public goods’. Development aid was a bilateral and intergovernmental activity and state-led development set the tone. In a second phase during the 1970s and 1980s, the role of civil society organisations (non-governmental development organisations) matured. Civil society organisations (CSOs) in development built on the traditional involvement of citizens in charitable causes – but now on a global scale. The idea of development ‘cooperation’ was born. Aid remained primarily bilateral, but was complemented with NGO efforts. Civil society – often representing the middle class – became a complementary force for development. Development NGOs focus on providing aimed at the provision of ‘club goods’ such as schools, water projects for local communities, thereby complementing government-to-government aid flows with aid directly aimed at the people themselves. Throughout most of this period, markets and firms were more often seen as part of the development problem than as part of its solution. A third phase commenced in the course of the 1990s, as one of the outcomes of the new stage of ‘globalisation’, which opened up many of the former plan economies to integration in the world market. At this time, the role of foreign direct investment and multinational corporations in development became increasingly prominent. Consequently, the development agenda was rephrased into providing and producing ‘private goods’ as well. The unilateral flow of investments was supported by bilateral investment treaties. Most societal parties or actors involved in these three phases engaged in relatively uniform (often ideological) ways of thinking over what the necessary conditions for development are or should be. The Washington consensus became one of the leading international paradigms, and sustainable development became related to sustainable markets and competitive advantages.

The start of the 21st century signalled the one-sidedness of most of these approaches, not in the least because many of the world’s sustainability challenges showed remarkable resilience. None of the actors could successfully claim anymore to be the primary agents of development (cf. Reed & Reed, 2009). Governments, civil society organisations and companies had fallen prey to various forms of ‘failure’. These include governmental or governance failure in achieving many of the official goals of development aid (in particular in Sub-Saharan Africa), civic failure in reaching the poorest parts of populations in a more or less efficient manner by development NGOs (marking the inefficiency of good intentions), and market failure in creating sustainable business models and providing public goods for impoverished people in developing countries (cf. Van Tulder, 2008). The distinctive characteristic between NGOs and companies has also been formulated as a ‘demand-side bias’ for firms versus a ‘supply-side bias’ for NGOs. Addressing failure or bias in this sense implies that the actual challenge of sustainable development lies somewhere in the middle: in between the public and the private sector, and the profit and non-profit sector. Sustainable development is confronted with a considerable national and international ‘institutional void’ or ‘governance gap’ and, consequently, has the characteristics of a ‘stuck in the middle’ problem.

The 21st century has also given way to a more pragmatic approach towards sustainable development, in particular in the form of cross-sector partnerships between private and public actors and between for-profit and non-profit actors. The search was originally for governance without governments (Rosenau & Czempiel, 1992) or for forms of self-regulation, but has increasingly moved towards collaborative governance arrangements based on stakeholders that engage in interactive problem-solving (Bitzer, 2010). The partnership message for sustainable development is that not only governments through official development aid, but all relevant actors/parties in society can and need to contribute to solving development problems in collaboration. Partnering thereby becomes less of a luxury and more of a necessity to all actors/parties involved. Austin (2000: 44) labelled partnerships as the “collaboration paradigm of the 21st century” needed to solve “increasingly complex challenges” that “exceed the capabilities of any single sector”. Partnerships have moved from being a luxury – an add-on philanthropical activity – towards a necessary precondition for sustainable development. The seven original UN Millennium Development Goals that were formulated at the start of the century, were therefore quickly complemented with an eighth goal: partnering for development. Partnering has filled the institutional void left by the failure of the traditional three sectors. The challenge (void) has become an ambition (partnering space).

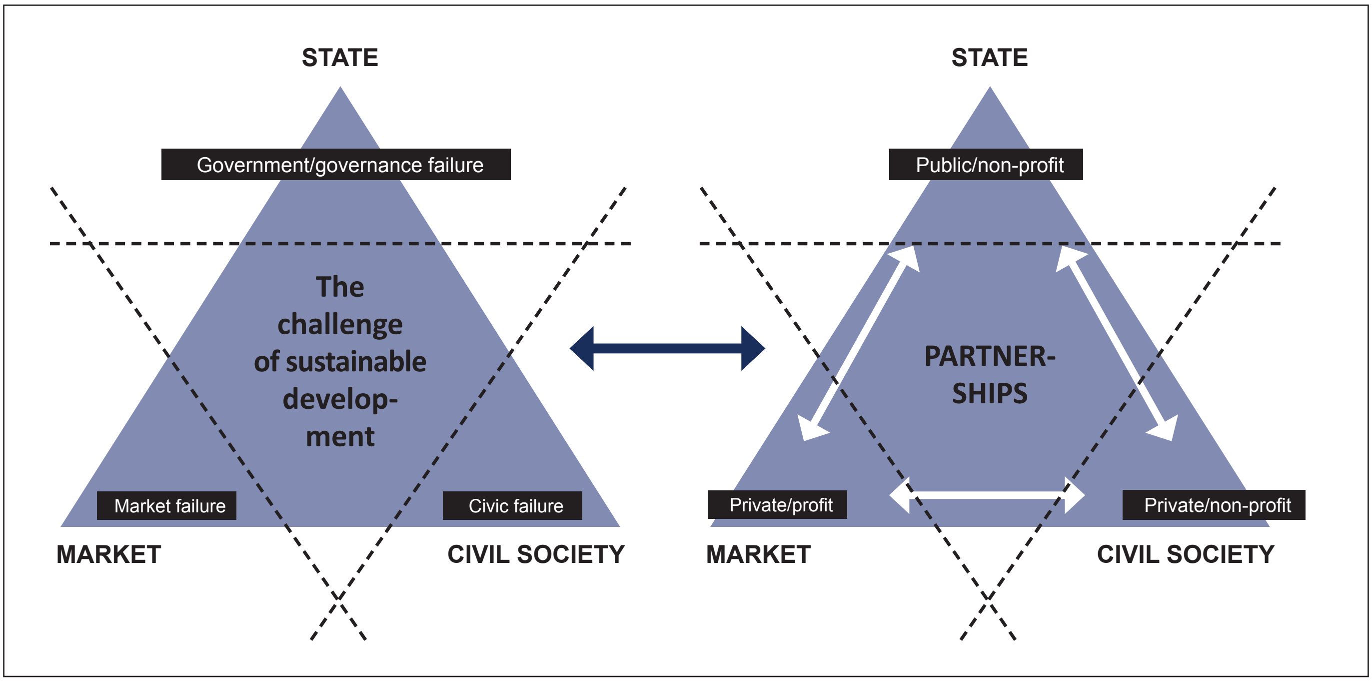

Figure 1 - From Challenge (Void) to Ambition (Space)

2. Impediments to learning

However, the most recent (present) phase of development thinking is also the least understood. Development thinking clearly mirrors a movement towards more multiform approaches which includes complementary roles of various actors in society instead of uniform, one-size-fits-all development paths or prescriptions for governmental policies in trade, aid or investment. Development processes become context dependent and contingent on the role of institutions, firms and ('good') governance. This makes the conceptualising and implementing clear development paths simultaneously more challenging. The present phase of development thinking also seems to profit from a much better and much less biased understanding of the previous institutional, technological, political and social preconditions for economic growth in the 'developed' countries themselves. Development prescription can no longer be based on the 'western' model only, as has been proved by the Asian countries that have successfully developed without development aid and which have employed different models of governance than those that prevailed in the West. Instead, successful Asian countries have taken a very pragmatic approach towards development and have only partly adopted the prescriptions of the World Bank, for instance, as regards the 'openness' of the economy (cf. Rodrik, 1999).

Moreover, the western model of 'development' has proven ecologically (and financially) unsustainable and therefore prone to criticism from within. Furthermore, new sources of development finance have become available, in particular through direct financial transfers of citizens and corporations themselves. At present, the volume of the value of remittances (from citizens to citizens across borders) isconstitute 2.5 times the value of official development assistance (ODA) by governments. Nevertheless, the problem of development and poverty has persisted. Recently adjusted figures of the World Bank show that the number of absolute poor people in the world – defined as those living on 1.25 dollars a day or less - amounts to around 1.4 billion. The number of people living on 2 dollars a day has remained stable or has even increased. All these developments combined have created the need for new and perhaps smarter development models. Rather than defining universal paradigms or models, delineating the road towards achieving particular development goals seems one of the biggest challenges. Arguably the biggest challenge thereby lies in understanding the positive and/or negative roles of business as 'change agents' in this trajectory. Whether or not this phase will lead to further chaos or more appropriate approaches depends on the ability of development thinkers to delineate the contours and mechanisms of a 'smart development approach'.

3. New principles and levels of analysis

In a contribution to the Dutch Scientific Council for Government Policy (WRR; cf. Van Tulder & Fortanier, 2009), the general contours of such an approach were delineated. They consist of the following four principles:

I. From uniform to multiform approaches, in which development is contingent upon context and circumstances. No one-size-fits-all models, but rather tailor-made approaches to specific issues and contexts.
II. From macro to micro approaches, in which the involvement of individual actors/parties (firms, NGOs) is taken into greater account and in which development is considered an investment rather than a subsidy challenge.
III. From general to specific approaches, in which the strategic management of corporations across borders is brought into direct relation with their business models and potential contribution to sustainable development in general and poverty alleviation in particular.
IV. From passive (go-it-alone) strategies to active collaborative strategies, in which cross-sector partnerships for development are implemented that increase the effectiveness of the development effort of each individual actor/party by actively searching for complementary interests, aims and competencies. The development agenda becomes a joint-investment agenda.

However, research will also have to introduce new levels of analysis. At least six levels can be added to the national level of analysis that is normally applied to development studies [which are therefore dominated by comparative – country by country – research]:

- The multinational enterprise level: How do core corporations manage risk and responsibilities across borders through a portfolio of partnerships with so-called 'non-market' actors?
- The international or global value chain level: How are specific value or commodity chains across borders influenced by the strategic behaviour of a limited number of core or 'lead' companies, that increasingly engage in partners to set e.g. sustainability standards?
- The community level: What is the impact of 'home' and 'host' companies on local development? Can a partnership between companies and governments create new institutions (for instance in case of fragile states)? Particularly at the local community level, the problem of 'crowding-out' plays a role when firms take over the responsibilities of governments, thereby contributing to maintaining weak institutions.
- The partnership level: What complementary competencies do partnerships add to the participating actors?
- The supranational or global level: What is the impact of supranational or international organizations on the operations of multinationally operating corporations in particular?
- The issue level: To what extent can multinational corporations – in interaction with civil society and governments – be considered part of the problem or part of the solution of global issues such as poverty, global warming or human rights' violations?

4. Modest state of affairs

On all accounts, we have witnessed changes in thinking about development, but the pace remains relatively slow, fragmented and without clear direction. First, as regards the movement from uniform to multiform approaches, there is growing agreement that the 'Washington consensus' has become obsolete. Efforts by Rodrik (2007) and others to come up with more 'open' diagnostic methods and recipes that allow for scenario-type approaches which take into account more indicators and country-specific idiosyncrasies are noteworthy. Sachs (2008) and Collier (2008) are other leading thinkers in this area who are proposing more diversified approaches which take the context of countries and regions into greater account. Efforts to reclassify groupings of developing countries – either as the 'bottom billion' (Collier, 2008) or in terms of their degree of regional integration as is pioneered in the EPA strategy of the European Union – are illustrations of the practical elaborations of these new approaches. One problem related to some of the more popular elaborations – in particular that of Collier – is that there is no clarity in the exact composition of the groups of countries studied. So, major methodological problems still remain. The same applies to the increasingly popular rankings of countries as introduced by the World Bank (Index on Quality of Governance and or Ease of Doing Business Index) or by other organisations such as Freedom House (Index of Economic Freedom) or Transparency International (Corruption Perceptions Index) which all contain conceptual and methodological biases whilst their methods are not always transparent.

Secondly, as regards the movement towards a more micro approach, there is some progress in measuring direct and indirect impacts of firms on economies. In particular, the global value chain approach has been introduced (Gereffi et al., 2005), which can involve not only corporations but also non-profit organisations and which have an impact on particular issues. The Fair Trade movement has matured and is stimulating further studies and the introduction of new 'benchmarks' to increase the development impact of trade. One of the issues in this respect is how to develop appropriate 'governance' mechanisms in these value and commodity chains. A particularly promising area here is the idea of 'upgrading' (e.g. Humphrey & Schmitz, 2002) in which the benchmark for development is becoming the degree to which smallholders upstream can grab more value (and so called 'rent') from the chain by either moving upwards or diversifying into other chains. The management and development literature is only slowly taking stock of these new approaches. Since most statistics in the world are organised on a national basis, in particular the empirical elaboration of global value chains remains relatively superficial.

Third, as regards the movement towards a more strategic elaboration of development at the corporate level, the discussion centres around the corporate social responsibility (CSR) policies of core (multinational) firms of major multinationals' ore core/lead firms in that orchestrate global value chains. One of the challenges is to operationalize the 'development' or 'poverty alleviation' dimension of firms and understand what distinguishes an inactive from a more active approach and whether this could be portrayed as a viable business model (Van Tulder, 2009). The search for new business models has materialised in increasingly popular concepts such as 'the bottom of the pyramid' (Prahalad, 2005), 'inclusive business' (World Bank Group, 2007), 'social business'(Yunus, 2009) or more in general on how firms should or could deal with 'wicked problems' such as poverty (Hart & Sharma, 2004). Management schools and management scholars have repeatedly stressed the importance of including the dimension of 'development' and poverty alleviation in their research, but have not yet come up with sufficiently detailed concepts nor empirical studies. Furthermore, the benchmarks for 'sustainability' at the firm level are still not very sophisticated particularly as regards development. In the area of 'environment', the deficiencies are slowly disappearing, with the Carbon Disclosure Projects rankingwith CDC ranking, concepts like 'carbon footprint' and the like, which make it possible to judge the performance of firms in these areas. But for the more complex area of 'development', detailed concepts still need to be developed. Standardisation initiatives such as the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) still have relatively limited elaboration of the social and development impact of corporations. The ISO 26000 guideline, finalised at the end of 2010, is providing somewhat more guidance, but cannot be used as a standard. As a result, the discussion on whether firms can be and are really involved in CSR is still in its infancy.

5. Partnering as most relevant area for policy development and research

Finally, as regards cross-sector partnerships, a wide variety of initiatives have been founded, all rather uncoordinated and superficially evaluated. Following the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg, more than 300 partnerships had been registered by the UN Secretariat by the end of 2006. The actual knowledge on the nature, dynamism and effectiveness of development partnerships at the moment is rather limited, whilst the number of systematic partnership studies remains scant (cf. Kolk et al., 2008; Van Tulder & Kostwinder, 2008; Rondinelli & London, 2003; Samii et al., 2002 ; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Warner & Sullivan, 2004). This is further complicated because partnerships come in a variety of forms. They are interchangeably dubbed 'cross-sector', 'PPPs', or 'multi-stakeholder' partnerships. A first scan of the annual reports of the 400 largest financial and non-financial firms in the world shows that two-thirds to three- quarters of these firms explicitly state their quest for partners beyond their sector (Figure 2).

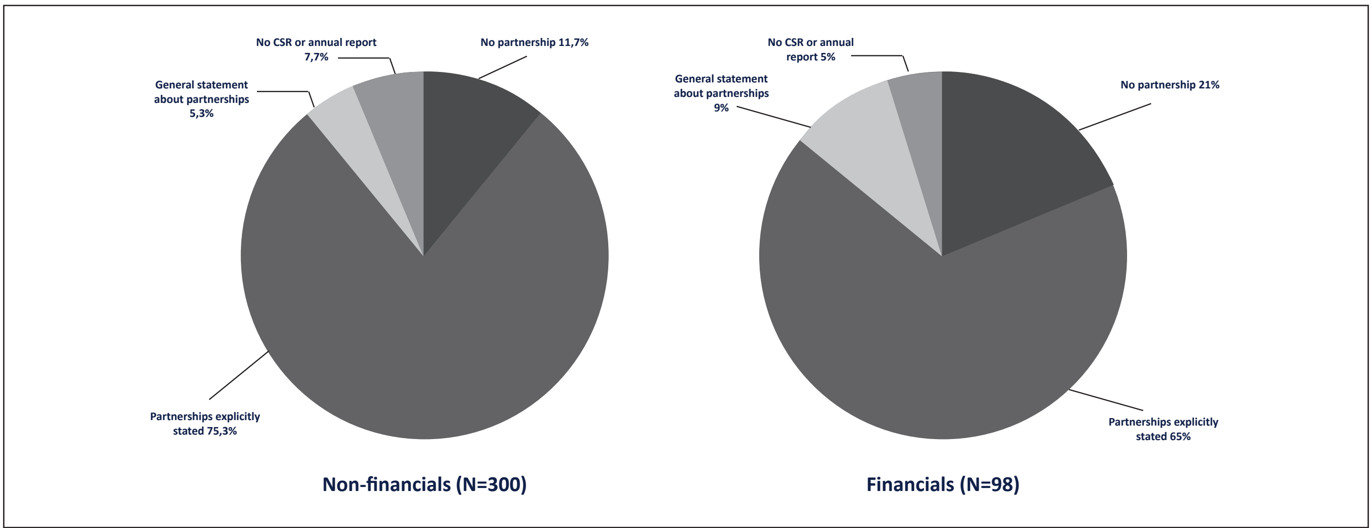

Figure 2 – Corporate Partnerships (2009) - Source: Partnerships Resource Centre (PrC)

The confusion of terms is illustrative for the present stage of partnership development. Three basic types of partnerships and consequently three different partnership rationales can be distinguished:

[1] Bipartite: Public-private partnerships (PPPs) address the inadequate (private and public) provision of public goods. This is also known as the 'policy rationale' for partnerships (cf. OECD, 2006, p.19) or as the 'underinvestment' problem in which neither the state nor companies invest sufficiently. This problem has been particularly tangible in utility sectors (cf. Megginson and Netter, 2001). A selection of UN databases registered around 233 partnerships for the public good (PPGs), more than half of which were created in the health sector (Figure 3).

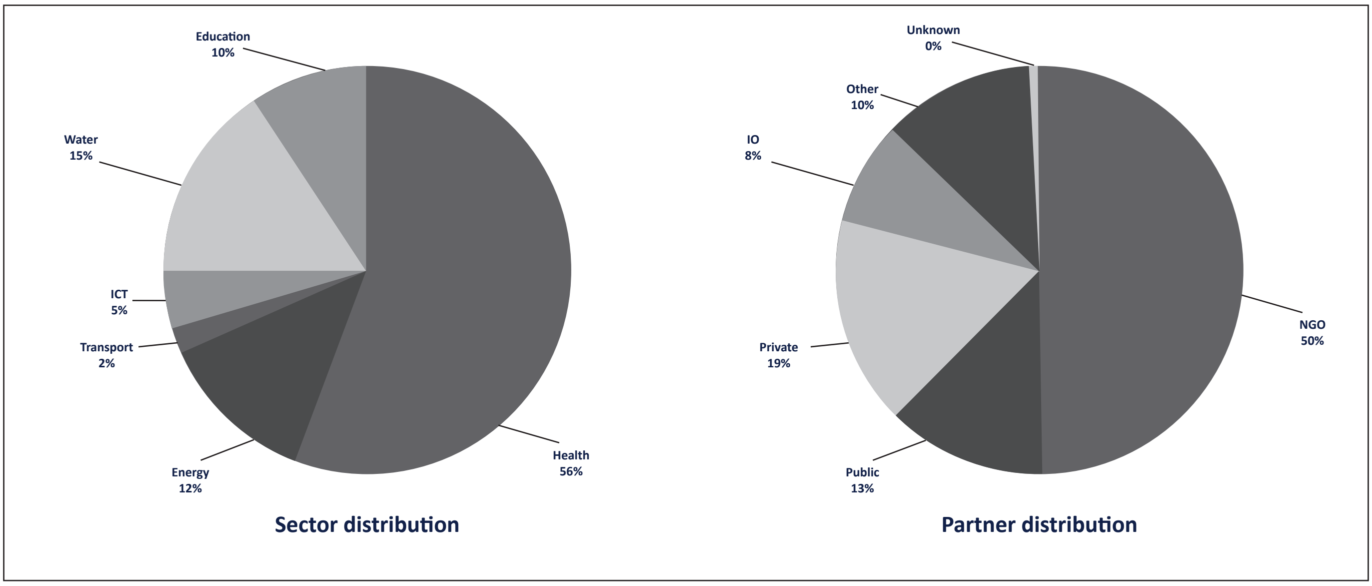

Figure 3 Partnerships for the Public Good (PPGs) - Source: Partnerships Resource Centre

[2] Bipartite: Private (for-profit)/non-profit (PNP) partnerships focus on the underinvestment in the 'social capital' of a country that results from the trade-off between the efficiency of the market and the equity orientation of civil society (cf. Putnam, 2000). Bipartite partnerships are increasingly struck between NGOs and firms in order to set a number of standards that governments are not able or willing to engage in. This applies primarily to commodities. In three of the most international commodity chains (coffee, cocoa and cotton) 125, 50 and 25 partnerships respectively were found that involve two or more parties from either state, civil society or the market (Bitzer, 2010:26). Other examples include topical areas such as sustainable fisheries or health.

Figure 4 For-Profit & Non-Profit Partnerships (PNPs)

[3] Tripartite partnerships (TPPs) include all three parties: state, companies and civil society (non-profit or non-governmental organisations). They focus on the problems that result from the 'institutional void' that develops due to retreating governments and weak governance structures (Van Tulder with Van der Zwart, 2006). Global tripartite partnerships have been formed for palm oil (RSPO: the Roundtable on Sustainable Palm Oil), malnutrition (Gain), water and sanitation and ecology.

Figure 5 Trilateral Partnerships (TPPs)

Exemplary evidence of the partnership approaches adopted by a number of companies (Van Tulder, 2008) shows that European firms have embraced partnerships more and in a much more (pro)active manner than leading American firms. An interesting example is Unilever, which has adopted a integral sustainable strategy for its future global operations. The company acknowledges that this strategy requires an external alignment strategy with a large number of non-market parties in a large number of seemingly unrelated areas [Figures 4 and 5 all include one exemplary European company: Unilever]. In turn, American firms embrace partnerships more often and more (re)actively than leading Asian firms. This pattern corresponds with the general CSR strategies of these three varieties of capitalism. This conclusion is also further supported by other studies.

6. Monitoring

One of the most pressing problems with collaborative initiatives is that there are a large – and often competing – number of tools introduced by a multitude of institutions and consultants to monitor their impact and efficiency. But no single tool has yet been validated or implemented in a large enough number of (completed/consummated) partnerships to be considered predominant. This means that monitoring and exchange of knowledge remain difficult, solid description is lacking and a proliferation of 'prescriptive' approaches can be witnessed that may not help in making partnerships into a sophisticated (smart) approach towards development. In order to deal with this problem, we have proposed a conceptual and monitoring model that has been developed in order to support this transition. This relatively simple monitoring model should help players/parties that engage (or want to engage) in partnering to ask the most important questions and deal with the most important barriers linked to effective partnering.

One of the problems with monitoring progress in partnerships is that each partnership is different, with different partners, locations and objectives. Nevertheless, most partnerships go through largely similar stages, thus allowing for a comparable analysis of the various dimensions of the process. These might be labelled as (0) issue appraisal; (a) input; (b) throughput; (c) output; and (d) outcome. In addition, partnerships can be evaluated on (e) efficiency; and (f) effectiveness. Figure 6 gives an overview of these elements, which we will explore below, especially raising questions that may be further considered by those interested in the theory and practice of partnerships (cf. Caplan, 2003; Van Tulder & Kostwinder, 2007).

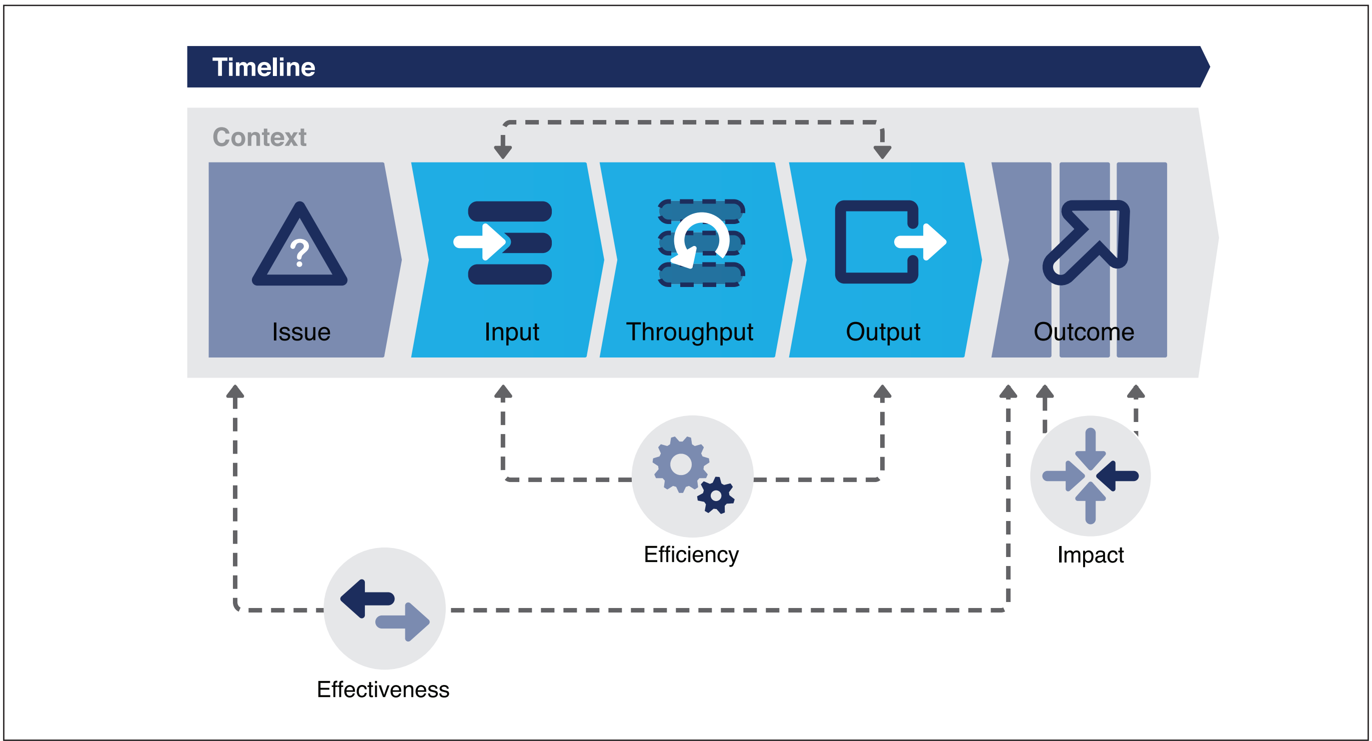

Figure 6: Framework for monitoring and evaluation of partnerships

[0] Issue Appraisal. The phase before the actual start of the partnership always relates to a problem that cannot be solved by any of the traditional actors alone. The issue requires a sort of shared problem ownership. The nature of the issue also defines the nature of the partnership. If the issue 'falls' in between public and private (profit) sectors, such as infrastructure, a bilateral PPP seems to be the most logical approach. If a private issue 'falls' in between profit and non-profit, such as health, a bilateral PNP seems to be the most logical approach and in case nobody 'owns' the issue, as is the case in a financial crisis, a trilateral TPP is needed. Consequently, the country and cultural context play an important role in the appraisal phase.

[A] Input. The input of partnerships consists of the means that are necessary to carry out the process, which can either be material (money) or immaterial (knowledge). Furthermore, individual partners have specific goals and motives for joining the partnership that are strongly influenced by their societal background (profit or non-profit, public or private) and by their morality or virtues. At a more instrumental level, it may be important to understand to what extent the partners are already convinced of specific types of failure before commencing the partnership. If partners are well aware of these failures, the basis for a partnership becomes broader, the willingness to cooperate larger and the chance of success higher. Questions include: Why do partners perceive the project to be necessary and what is their expected return on the project? Did partners have any choice about taking part or not? Where do the 'roots' of the partnership come from? Do companies see partnerships as part of their corporate social responsibility or do they frame this differently, for example, as merely business-driven? Some research has been done on the impact on monetary versus in-kind inputs on the output of the partnership. The dominating role of the 'donor' of money (often a government or a firm) negatively affects the feeling of 'ownership' of the collaborating partners, which in turn has a negative effect on its output and outcome. This problem is increasingly acknowledged by international organisations, but has been difficult to address.

[B] Throughput: This comprises the actual dynamics, execution and implementation process/procedure of a partnership. This dynamism depends on the (1) number and nature of participants, (2) the roles that can be adopted by the participants, (3) the arrangement and degree of internal dependencies chosen, which in turn is influenced by (4) the position of participants as primary or secondary stakeholders in the project (cf. Fransen & Kolk, 2007). Depending on their goals and motivations, partners can decide upon particular roles in the partnership, which affect whether the partnership in question may, for example, broaden from being project oriented to serving broader and multiple development goals.

[C] Output: This consists of the activities undertaken by the partners such as goods and/or services, but possibly also in redefined goals for the partners due to the accumulated experiences in the project. A first output criterion is the extent to which the individual objectives of each participant have been achieved. Did the partnership fulfil the participants' original objectives or not, or did it perhaps even exceed those objectives? Did the project adequately address the sources of 'failure' that were at the basis of the partnership? A second output criterion is the extent to which the project objectives have been achieved. Did the partnership result in concrete and tangible results? What are the 'benefits' for each of the participants (in terms of, for example, profits, members, legitimacy, exposure, moral capital)? Is there evidence of institutional change as a result of the partnership, for instance, changes in codes of conduct, trademarks or other new rules of engagement between the partners that might have an impact beyond the project at hand (and thus fill the 'institutional void' from which many countries and markets suffer)? Finally, the sustainability of the project is an important criterion. Did the partnership bring about sufficient goal alignment to make it sustainable? What are the possibilities to scale-up the project? The sustainability of the project can also be dependent on the 'exit' possibility for certain participants. A project might not be sustainable if it remains dependent upon the continued financial support of governments or other partners. So another question might be whether the period of engagement of each individual partner has been sufficient to guarantee the sustainability of the project.

[D] Outcome. The changes, benefits and results brought by the partnership to the wider society can be seen as the final and ultimate outcome of the partnership process. Often these goals are formulated as relatively vague 'inspiration' for the project, but are not further specified. A serious evaluation, however, is necessary to make these goals as concrete as possible. For partnerships for development, objectives can best be assessed by their direct and indirect impact on the Millennium Development Goals. To this end, quantitative measurements, for which approaches have been developed recently (particularly NCDO, 2006), could be combined by (perceived) assessments of external stakeholders and project participants.

7. Monitoring and Evaluation

Partnerships for sustainable development must ultimately also be evaluated in terms of their efficiency and effectiveness. This dimension is the most difficult to measure and therefore most often ignored, which in turn is starting to have negative effects on the legitimacy of partnership projects.

[E] Efficiency. Efficiency can be seen as the internal value added by the partnership, and this may be assessed using a cost-benefit analysis. What were the total costs of the partnership, and what specific costs (transaction costs, operating costs) can be attributed to the partnership? For example, more complex negotiations with a large number of stakeholders initially incur more costs for the participants, but – in case of successfully institutionalised relationships – can later lead to considerably lower operating costs. Weakly elaborated contracts between the cooperating parties can result in significant additional costs if the partnership becomes problematic. The extent to which the overall goal of the partnership is aligned with the individual goals of the partners for joining the partnership can also be studied. How do the partners distinguish themselves with respect to the critical success factors for managing a partnership and how well have they been able to cope with them and learn from them?

[F] Impact. The attribution problem of partnerships is, in particular, how to make the link from the partnership's output to the societal outcome. This can also be referred to as the Return on Investment (RoI) of the partnership. Novel evaluation techniques have to be developed that measure the direct, but also the indirect effects of the partnership. The (anticipated) impact question will prove to be particularly relevant for in-between monitoring and feedback efforts. For instance, the questions for intermediary upscaling or downscaling of activities is closely related to impact assessments.

[G] Effectiveness of partnerships can be seen as the added value and the impact of the partnership compared to individual activities of the different partners. In other words, does the partnership provide additional ways of achieving the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs) that would not have been possible otherwise? Were other objectives possible through the partnership? Were more resources allocated than otherwise possible? Did the partnership project trigger other activities of the participants that proved relevant for obtaining (some of) the MDGs? Is an alternative partnering (or non-partnering) approach possible that would have brought about comparable results? To what extent is the present experience reproducible? What would have happened in case the partnership project was not implemented? This is an area in which partners also should actively search for the counterfactual argument, even when this in practice is not easy (or sometimes even impossible) to empirically check.

8. First lessons learned

In past, evaluation protocols were developed and monitoring missions were undertaken to a large number of locations (see below for further details). Major barriers to effective partnering were identified, which all include either one or a combination of the following five 'unclarity' factors:

1. Role(s): If the roles are not well specified in the partnership, identities can easily become confused; i.e. financier, broker, sponsor, facilitator. This relates to the usual roles adopted by the partners but these may require adjustment to make the partnership effective.
2. Interests: Lack of clear goals for the partnership in advance creates problems. If the partnership does not lead to 'goal alignment', problems occur. Lack of clear understanding of why a partnership is needed ('failure factors') has a strong negative influence on the effectiveness of the partnership. Defining the five-year business model helps in the process of goal alignment.
3. Phasing: Roles in partnerships (need to) change over time in order to render the partnership effective. Although entry conditions are mostly specified, the 'exit conditions' remain obscure. This omission affects the dynamism of the partnership long before its actual termination.
4. Monitoring: Partnerships that do not make a 'zero-measurement' or try to define what they consider to be 'effectiveness' are impossible to monitor and consequently much more difficult to manage. A number of the most important 'value added' factors of the partnership, however, are not measurable in a quantitative sense, e.g. 'learning', 'capacity building', 'goal alignment'. However, this should never be an excuse not to address them.
5. Trust: Partners from complementary sectors are likely have a low degree of trust in and understanding of each other. The partnering, however, should teach them the conditions under which to trust and/or collaborate with each other. The dictum should not be 'we collaborate because we trust each other', but 'we trust each other because we collaborate'.
6. Ownership: A successful partnership starts with a shared 'problem/issue-ownership' and aligning the problem/issue to the choice of partners is vital. Most development partnerships bring unequal partners together and this creates the challenge how to make the project move from 'donor ownership' to one of 'local ownership'. The actual lesson learned is that this can be achieved in the throughput phase by applying techniques that facilitate 'co-ownership'.

9. Making it practical

In October 2009, a group of leading NGOs, companies, ministries of the Dutch government and knowledge institutions came together to facilitate further progress in the new area of development thinking. They founded the Partnerships Resource Centre. This open resource centre strives to facilitate further knowledge accumulation and learning in the area of development partnerships.
For more information: www.partnershipsresourcecentre.org

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