Understanding the Strategic Engagement of Partner Organizations in Large Cross-Sector Social Partnerships Implementing Community Sustainability Plans

by

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A thesis

presented to the University of Waterloo

in fulfilment of the

thesis requirement for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Social and Ecological Sustainability

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2018

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Author's declaration

This thesis consists of material all of which I authored or co-authored: see Statement of Contributions included in the thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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Statement of Contributions

I am the sole author of Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 7 of this dissertation, and I am the lead author of Chapters 4, 5 and 6, which are papers for which the journal submissions are co-authored with Dr. Amelia Clarke.

This research is part of a larger project entitled “Cross-sector Social Partnerships for the Implementation of Community Sustainability Strategies: A Study on the Relationships between Collaborative Structures and Outcomes” led by Dr. Amelia Clarke and funded by her Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada – SSHRC Insight Grant.

My work as part of the larger project started by analysing a pilot survey used in a previous stage of the project that was conducted in Canada; the survey used in this research was based and then adapted from the pilot survey. This research also used an initial list of partnerships the larger project had worked with in earlier stages. This initial list was analysed and while three of its partnerships were included, a fourth not from this list was considered for the final group of partnerships addressed in this research.

From that point, the practical and intellectual work developed throughout this research is my own, including the introduction to the topic, identification of scope, definition of research questions, selection of bodies of literature, selection criteria and relationship with the partnerships, survey adaptation, design and development of the data collection processes, definition of quantitative and qualitative methods, data analyses, presentation of results, discussions and conclusions.

Abstract

Sustainability is a grand challenge that diverse communities of interest all over the world are currently focusing on at the local and global level. At the local level, thousands of cities have decided to address their sustainability goals through local cross-sector social partnerships, while at the global scale, governments of the world have agreed on the universal aim of achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by 2030. Cross-sector social partnerships have also been identified by researchers and policy makers as a way to address sustainability challenges, with partner organizations from across sectors playing a key role in the achievement of their sustainability goals. Organizations partnering for sustainability are the focus of this dissertation.

Many researchers from diverse disciplines claim that organizations join partnerships for strategic reasons, and that sustainability is a strategic opportunity. Integrated literature on strategy, partnerships and sustainability, however, is sparse, and the strategic engagement of organizations in partnerships has been mostly assessed qualitatively. This dissertation draws on strategic management, cross-sector partnerships and sustainability literature to examine the strategic engagement of organizations partnering across sectors for community sustainability. Building on strategic management literature, this dissertation bases its research on three key variables: strategic goals represented as drivers for organizations to join sustainability partnerships, organizational structural features which reflect how organizations structure to implement the partnership's collective sustainability strategy, and organizational outcomes as what organizations gain from partnering for sustainability. Drivers and outcomes are studied through the management perspective of resource-based view (RBV), that is complemented with a community capitals approach often used in the public policy literature, and structural features are examined through contingency theory drawing from management literature. The questions this

dissertation aims to answer are focused on the strategic engagement of organizations in sustainability partnerships through the understanding of organizational structures, the value organizations assign to drivers and outcomes to assess resources through RBV, the implemented structural features to examine contingency theory, and the strategic relationships among these variables.

This research collects data through a survey from 224 organizations partnering in large cross-sector partnerships. Each of these partnerships has an approximate minimum of one hundred partners implementing community sustainability plans; these are found in: Barcelona (Spain), Bristol (UK), Gwangju (South Korea), and Montreal (Canada). The survey reached a response rate of 26% allowing findings to be generalizable, showing good reliability, and with unbiased responses across organizations, partnerships, and types of organizations. Within this data set are responses from 71 businesses on their drivers to partner, structural features for partnering, and partner outcomes, which was complemented with qualitative content analyses to study the relationships between businesses partnering for local sustainability, and the SDGs as a proxy to global sustainability.

Findings from this research show that organizations implement structures when partnering for sustainability. However, the findings further reveal that structures do not affect the relationships between goals and desired outcomes, and being highly structured is not imperative for achieving valuable outcomes. Results also show that society-oriented resources such as contributing positively to environmental challenges or collaborating with society are the most valuable drivers and outcomes for organizations; informal structural features are the most implemented for addressing sustainability partnerships (for example implementing plans and policies, or partnering with other organizations); and organizations achieve the goals that drive them to

partner. No statistically significant relationships were found between drivers and structures, nor between structures and outcomes. Finally, research on businesses shows a positive relationship between business' drivers and outcomes and the SDGs, representing an opportunity for businesses to achieve their goals and for business outcomes to contribute to global sustainability.

Findings from this dissertation contribute to organizational strategic management, partnerships and sustainability literature by confirming quantitatively that sustainability partnerships are strategic for organizations. This dissertation also contributes to the strategy literature by highlighting the key roles of structures and context in the achievement of strategic goals, presenting a theoretical model that integrates different schools of thought. This research also contributes to the refinement of RBV by highlighting with empirical evidence how valuable societal resources are to organizations, and to contingency theory by confirming that informal structural features are how organizations address uncertain and complex environments such as sustainability. Another contribution from this research is to the partnerships literature by highlighting the power that large cross-sector partnerships have in the achievement of organizational goals. With respect to the business literature, this research also contributes to the understanding of businesses in the context of their engagement in local and global sustainability.

From these specific contributions, two main conclusions and theoretical contributions arise. First is the relevance of large cross-sector sustainability partnerships, highlighting the contextual role they play, which together with organizational structures, lead organizations to achieve their strategic goals. And second is the value of societal resources, which can be considered strategic for organizations due to the importance that contributing to society has for organizations, and the way these resources are pursued through organizational engagement in cross-sector partnerships.

Acknowledgements

Working for the last 4 years in this research has been a process that I have deeply enjoyed. I have not only had the opportunity of learning, improving my skills, and exploiting some of the abilities I did not know I had, but also of meeting and collaborating with many people who have helped me on this research, and without whom this project would not have been possible.

First and most importantly, I thank Sole, Tomás and Martín who are always by my side, supporting me, making me laugh, and loving me. They are the constant and wonderful reason of my life with whom I share dreams and every minute of my life. Thanks for letting me dream and for giving me a wonderful family.

I thank my supervisor Dr. Amelia Clarke for believing in me and giving me the chance of pursuing one of those things I always wanted but never thought I was going to be able to do. Thanks for your strategic guidance, academic support, and for constantly pushing me to go further and improve my work. It has been a pleasure working with you.

I thank the members of my committee: Dr. Mary Louise McAllister, Dr. Olaf Weber, and Dr. Derek Armitage. You have helped me improve my work and challenged me to be a better scholar. I will try always to keep your advice handy as I progress in my future endevours. I hope you have enjoyed this work.

I would like to thank Marta Cuixart from Barcelona, Vicki Wooley from Bristol, Denise Yoon from Gwangju, and Danielle Lussier and Melina Planchenault from Montreal. Thanks for your collaboration with this research and for helping me during these long years. I hope this research will help improve your work and the sustainability of your cities.

I also thank Megan Meaney and Ewa Jackson from ICLEI Canada, and Mitacs for the opportunity of doing an internship and getting to know the practice of sustainable cities as well as the Canadian market better. I want to also thank the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada (SSHRC) whose support through Dr. Clarke's grant, has allowed me to pursue this PhD program.

Finally, I would like to thank the School of Environment, Resources and Sustainability, and the School of Environment, Enterprise and Development at the University of Waterloo for their support and funding through these years.

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List of Abbreviations

B+S: Barcelona + Sustainable

BGCP: Bristol Green Capital Partnership

CIC: Community Interest Company

CSSP: Cross-sector Social Partnership

ERQ: Empirical Research Question

FinPhy_Goals: Financial/Physical Goals

FinPhy_Out: Financial/Physical Outcomes

Formal_SF: Formal Structural Features

GCSD: Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development

GHG: Greenhouse Gases

HDI: Human Development Index

HumOrg_Goals: Human/Organizational Goals

HumOrg_Out: Human/Organizational Outcomes

ICLEI – Local Governments for Sustainability: International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives

Informal_SF: Informal Structural Features

Internal_Out: Internal Outcomes

KICSD: Korean Institute Center for Sustainable Development

LA21: Local Agenda 21

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

NGO: Non-governmental Organization

PI: Principal Investigator

RBV: Resource-based view

SD: Standard Deviation

SDG: Sustainable Development Goals

SM: Sustainable Montreal

Societal_Out: Societal Outcomes

TRQ: Theoretical Research Question

VRIO: resources that are Valuable, Rare, and Inimitable, for which organizations must be Organized to fully exploit

Chapter 1

1. Introduction

The practice of partnering has been considered to be at the core of organizational strategies, allowing organizations to achieve goals not readily achievable independently (Bryson, Crosby, & Stone, 2006; Selsky & Parker, 2005). Partnering can assist organizations to obtain resources (Lotia & Hardy, 2008; Vurro, Dacin, & Perrini, 2010) and share risks (Brinkerhoff, 2002; Gray & Stites, 2013), representing opportunities to enhance their legitimacy (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Koontz, 2006), gain new competencies (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Selsky & Parker, 2005), and improve their competitive advantage (Lavie, 2006; Lotia & Hardy, 2008). This dissertation studies the strategic engagement of organizations in large cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs) implementing community sustainability plans. This research is particularly relevant in the context of the thousands of cities all over the world partnering with organizations from across sectors to implement sustainability plans (Rok & Kuhn, 2012) and the international community working to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by 2030 (United Nations Development Programme, 2018).

Many researchers assert that the engagement of organizations in partnerships is strategic (e.g. Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray, 1989; Lin & Darnall, 2015; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Vurro et al., 2010; Waddock, 1989; Wassmer, Paquin, & Sharma, 2014). Furthermore, it has been suggested that addressing sustainability offers a strategic opportunity for organizations (Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; Fiksel, Bruins, Gatchett, Gilliland, & ten Brink, 2014; Wassmer, Pain, & Paquin, 2017). However, despite its importance, the engagement of organizations in partnerships has been only partially assessed from a strategic perspective, and the strategy and partnerships literature have not been well integrated into the relevant bodies of literature that

study organizations and sustainability. Furthermore, large CSSPs, whose condition of having many partner organizations is a key for achieving the transformational purpose of addressing sustainability challenges and changing society (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Worley & Mirvis, 2013), have become increasingly popular for addressing local sustainability challenges (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013), but are still understudied and poorly understood compared to small partnerships (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Moreover, communities, understood as a group of diverse people and organizations with social ties who share common views, and engage in collective action in a specific place (e.g., a city) (MacQueen et al., 2001), is one of the scales where sustainability is being practiced by organizations sharing common interests (Barrutia, Aguado, & Echebarria, 2007). Hence, thousands of local governments address their sustainability challenges through local partnerships (Garcia-Sanchez & Prado-Lorenzo, 2008; Rok & Kuhn, 2012), understanding that challenges such as climate change, poverty or economic development are too large and multifaceted to be addressed by them alone (Bryson et al., 2006; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Waddock, 1991).

Examples of cities addressing their sustainable development strategies in partnership with many organizations from diverse sectors are the following large CSSPs, which are also the subjects of this research initiative:

- Barcelona + Sustainable[1], a large CSSP that is aiming to make Barcelona (Spain) a more equitable, prosperous, and self-sufficient city, is currently partnering with more than 1,000 organizations from the three sectors of society (Cuixart Tornos & Franquesa, 2018);

[1] Real name in Spanish: Barcelona + Sostenible

- Bristol Green Capital Partnership, a collaboration of 800 partner organizations, directed towards assisting the City of Bristol in the United Kingdom to become a low-carbon city with a good quality of life (Bell, Croft, & Sear, 2016);
- the Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development[2] from Gwangju in South Korea, a partnership of 111 organizations (Yoon, 2018), has expanded its strategic scope from solely environmental to economic, social and cultural issues (Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development, n.d.); and
- Sustainable Montreal[3], a partnership of more than 280 organizations from across sectors (Lussier, 2018), aims at seeing the City of Montreal in Quebec, Canada become a low-carbon, equitable and exemplary city (Ville de Montréal, 2016).

If organizations join partnerships for strategic reasons and sustainability is viewed as a strategic opportunity (as many researchers have argued), then strategic goals should drive organizations to join and remain in partnerships for sustainability (Brinkerhoff, 2002). Moreover, for an organization to succeed, its strategy must include considerations on how the organization interacts with its environment[4] in order to achieve its goals and survive (Hofer & Schendel, 1978), with organizational structures playing a fundamental role in the achievement of strategic goals and organizational success (Andrews, 1980; Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012).

Organizations partnering for sustainability are part of an environmental context in which they have interests and with which they engage for resources in order to survive through the creation

[2] Real name in Korean: 광주광역시 지속가능발전협의회
[3] Real name in French: Montréal durable
[4] Environment refers to the context organizations are part of and not just the natural environment

of structures that are aimed at matching those organizations' need to succeed (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Scott, 2003). In fact, contingency theorists argue that organizations structure themselves formally when facing certain contexts such as technical-economic or market environments (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Conversely, when the environment organizations face is uncertain and complex such as one presented by sustainability challenges (Dentoni, Bitzer, & Pascucci, 2016; Rühli, Sachs, Schmitt, & Schneider, 2017), their structures are more flexible and less formal (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Then, to support strategic goals, organizations must be structured to achieve their desired outcomes by interacting with the environment through the interchange of resources.

If there are no clear objectives or organizations are not structured appropriately, their reasons for partnering would not be strategic, and any considerations to approach the partnership strategically would not have been foreseen. If, however, partnering is strategic as suggested by scholars, structures must be implemented playing a key role between drivers to join partnerships as a proxy for strategic goals (Brinkerhoff, 2002), and partner-centric outcomes gained from partnering (Clarke & Fuller, 2010), as proposed by the strategy literature.

Management literature is extensive with respect to reasons for organizations to partner and about what they gain from partnering, especially using the resource-based view (RBV) (Arya & Lin, 2007; Barrutia & Echebarria, 2015; Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lavie, 2006). However, research on strategic partnerships has mainly focused on business-related resources that would improve organizations internal competencies, not studying resources that would contribute to society (Barney, Ketchen Jr., & Wright, 2011; Hart, 1995) such as the objectives of sustainability partnerships. Exceptions are those with society-oriented motivations for making changes in society towards sustainability as

noted by Gray and Stites (2013), and by Clarke and MacDonald's (2016) organizational capitals related to increasing the impact on community sustainability. Furthermore, little is known about how organizations value resources, specifically those in the context of large sustainability partnerships. In general, the literature on the structures that organizations implement as a result of sustainability partnerships is very limited, just like the strategic relationships between drivers and structures, structures and outcomes, and drivers and outcomes.

Finally, since businesses are major players in the achievement of sustainability challenges (Moore, 2015; Sachs, 2012), this research studies their engagement in local sustainability partnerships, assessing what drives them to partner, what they gain from partnering, and how they are structured when partnering for sustainability. Furthermore, this dissertation studies how their engagement partnering for local sustainability relates to global sustainability by assessing their contribution to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (United Nations Development Programme, 2018), perhaps the greatest global agreement ever achieved between governments on sustainability challenges (George, Howard-Grenville, Joshi, & Tihanyi, 2016).

1.1 Research Purpose

The purpose of this dissertation is to understand the strategic engagement of organizations in large cross-sector social partnerships implementing community sustainability plans through the understanding of the following considerations:

1. whether organizations engage strategically in large cross-sector partnerships for implementing community sustainability plans;

2. how organizations and businesses value resources that drive them to join partnerships (drivers) and those resources they gain from partnering (outcomes);
3. what are the organizational and business structural features through a contingency lens in the context of large sustainability partnerships;
4. what are the strategic relationships between organizational and business drivers to partner for local sustainability, outcomes gained from partnering, and organizational structural features; and
5. how does business engage in large sustainability partnerships, and how does their engagement relates to the global SDGs.

1.2 Research Questions

This dissertation aims to answer the following theoretical and empirical research questions (TRQ and ERQ) through three manuscripts in Chapters 4, 5, and 6 (see Table 1).

1.2.1 Theoretical Research Questions

- Strategy, Partnerships, and Sustainability Literature
  - TRQ1.1: Are partnerships strategic for organizations as argued by scholars?
  - TRQ1.2: Do organizations see sustainability partnerships as a strategic opportunity?
  - TRQ1.3: Are structures a key to the achievement of strategic goals as proposed by the strategy literature? And if so, are they a necessary and sufficient condition[5] for organizations to achieve their goals?

[5] A condition that must be met and which can bring an outcome to occur (Leischnig, Kasper-Brauer, & Thornton, 2017)

    - TRQ1.4: Is there a strategic relationship between drivers, structures, and outcomes in the context of large sustainability partnerships, as suggested by the strategy literature?
- Resource-based view
    - TRQ2.1: Is the RBV capable of explaining why organizations and businesses join large local sustainability partnerships?
    - TRQ2.2: Is the RBV capable of explaining what organizations and businesses gain as outcomes when partnering in large local sustainability partnerships?
- Contingency Theory
    - TRQ3.1: Do organizations and businesses approach large community sustainability partnerships through a contingency approach, i.e., by implementing informal structures to face uncertain contexts such as those proposed by sustainability challenges?

1.2.2 Empirical Research Questions

- Organizational structural features implemented when partnering for community sustainability:
    - ERQ1.1: Are structures implemented by organizations when partnering for local sustainability?
    - ERQ1.2: Do organizational structures influence the achievement of goals (outcomes) when partnering for local sustainability?
    - ERQ1.3: What type of structures do organizations and businesses implement the most and the least when partnering for community sustainability?

    - ERQ1.4: Which structural features do organizations and businesses implement the most and the least when partnering for community sustainability?
- Organizational drivers to join community sustainability partnerships:
    - ERQ2.1: Which types of resources do organizations and businesses value the most and the least when considering joining large sustainability partnerships?
    - ERQ2.2: Do organizations and businesses value joining large local sustainability partnerships to obtain resources to improve their strategic positions and gain competitive advantage, as suggested by the resources literature, more than they value to contribute to sustainability?
    - ERQ2.3: Among community capitals[6], which ones are the most and the least valuable drivers for organizations and for businesses to join large sustainability partnerships?
    - ERQ2.4: Do organizations achieve the goals that drive them to join large sustainability partnerships?
    - ERQ2.5: Do drivers lead to the implementation of structural features?
- Organizational outcomes obtained when partnering for community sustainability:
    - ERQ3.1: Which types of resources do organizations and businesses value the most and the least as outcomes obtained from large sustainability partnerships?
    - ERQ3.2: Do organizations and businesses value obtaining resources to improve their strategic positions and gain competitive advantage as outcomes, as suggested by the literature, more than they value contributing to society when partnering for local sustainability?

[6] Contributing to the sustainability goals of the partnership, to ecological, social, and economic challenges, and/or to the sustainability of the community. Please refer to Appendix I to see the list of community capitals included in the survey, also included in Figure 13

- ERQ3.3: Among community capitals[6], which ones are the most and the least valuable outcomes obtained by organizations and by businesses partnering for sustainability?

- Business and the SDGs:
  - ERQ4.1: What is the relationship between businesses partnering for local sustainability and the SDGs?

Table 1: Research Questions Organized per Research Purpose and Manuscript

Purpose	Manuscript 1	Manuscript 2	Manuscript 3
1	TRQ1.1 TRQ1.2 TRQ1.3 ERQ1.1 ERQ1.2		
2		TRQ2.1 TRQ2.2 ERQ2.1 ERQ2.2 ERQ2.3 ERQ3.1 ERQ3.2 ERQ3.3	TRQ2.1 TRQ2.2 ERQ2.1 ERQ2.2 ERQ2.3 ERQ3.1 ERQ3.2 ERQ3.3
3		TRQ3.1 ERQ1.3 ERQ1.4	TRQ3.1 ERQ1.3 ERQ1.4
4		TRQ1.4 ERQ2.4 ERQ2.5	ERQ2.4 ERQ2.5
5			ERQ4.1

1.3 Methods

Through a cross-sectional survey, this research collected data between June 2015 and June 2017 from a sample of 224 organizations from the private, public and civil society sectors, all partnering in large CSSPs for the sustainability of Barcelona, Bristol, Gwangju, or Montreal. Data collection was focused on organizational drivers to partner for local sustainability, the implemented structural features for partnering for sustainability, and the outcomes organizations gain from partnering. Based on the literature, drivers and outcomes were classified according to RBV (Barney, 1991, 1995) and community capitals (Gray & Stites, 2013), as well as structural features were classified according to the degrees of formalization proposed by contingency theory (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). To assess whether sustainability partnerships are strategic for organizations, the implementation of structures when partnering for sustainability was measured and statistically tested.

Data collected through the survey was used to understand how organizations value resources that drive them to join sustainability partnerships (drivers), how organizations value resources they gain from partnering (outcomes), and how they are structured when partnering for local sustainability (structural features).

Finally, mixed methods were used to assess the engagement of businesses in local partnerships and their relationships with the SDGs. Data on drivers, structural features, and outcomes collected through the survey from 71 businesses were used to understand how businesses value their drivers to partner for local sustainability and the outcomes they gain from partnering, as well as the structural features they implement when partnering for local sustainability. Then, qualitative context analyses were performed between drivers, outcomes, and the SDGs' descriptions and targets, determining if the SDGs represent an opportunity for businesses to

achieve their society-related drivers, and if the society-related outcomes they most value obtaining from partnering can contribute to the achievement of the SDGs.

1.4 Contributions

Six key contributions to literature have been identified from this research. This research has confirmed that sustainability partnerships are strategic for organizations (Fiksel et al., 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005), contributing to the strategy, partnerships, and sustainability literature through quantitative analyses. This research also contributes to strategy literature by integrating different schools of thought and merging their views into a single model that relates organizational goals, structures, and outcomes, with the environmental context of sustainability partnerships, presenting the interactions required among these variables for organizational success. Results from this research contribute to contingency theory by confirming its view that organizations face uncertain contexts such as those presented by sustainability challenges (Rühli et al., 2017), through flexible and less formal structures (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). This research also contributes to the resources literature by refining RBV's focus on capitals highlighting societal resources as another strategic resource for organizations, identifying as well how organizations value resources and differentiating among internally versus externally focused RBV capitals. The power of large cross-sector partnerships has been also emphasized, contributing to the partnerships literature. Finally, this research contributes to the business, partnerships, and sustainability literature by understanding the engagement of businesses in sustainability partnerships, and linking them with the global SDGs.

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

This dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter 1 includes the introduction to the main purpose of this research, the research questions, a summary of methods, and contributions; Chapter 2 presents a literature review on the main bodies of knowledge relevant for this research; and Chapter 3 is the methods section, which highlights quantitative and qualitative processes. Three manuscripts are then presented focusing on the role of partner-level organizational structures in large strategic partnerships (Chapter 4); understanding the strategic engagement of organizations in large sustainability partnerships (Chapter 5), and assessing the contribution of businesses through local partnerships to global sustainability (Chapter 6). Chapter 7 includes final conclusions, including discussion of results, contributions to theories and literature, and future research.

Chapter 2

2. Literature Review

Three main bodies of knowledge are relevant for this research: collaboration focusing specifically on cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs); strategy including organizational theory; and sustainability, in particular, that of communities implementing sustainability plans.

CSSPs set the context in which organizations engage with others to contribute to the achievement of community sustainability goals. CSSPs are key for the achievement of sustainability (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005) and are part of the collaboration literature, specifically that on partnerships. Although this research does not focus directly on partnerships, but on partnering organizations, CSSPs create a favourable collaborative environment for organizations to partner and contribute to the success of community sustainability initiatives (Clarke & Fuller, 2010). Furthermore, it can be argued that large CSSPs are more powerful than small partnerships due to the diversity and large number of partners from all sectors of society, which helps to address the variety of sustainability topics targeted through community sustainability plans (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). The following section (2.1) introduces the general concept of collaboration and the role organizations have in it, being followed by subsections on partnerships (2.1.1) and partnerships across sectors (2.1.2). While collaboration is a broader process that encompasses partnerships, partnerships are more specific requiring conditions that would allow them to contribute to the achievement of common goals for the partnership and for partner organizations.

As mentioned, organizations are the units of analysis of this research, and since it has been largely argued by many researchers that organizations engage for strategic reasons, strategic

management is the second area of knowledge considered in this research (2.2). In this respect, organizations are assessed from different perspectives, focusing on them specifically as open systems since they interact with the environmental context of community sustainability (2.2.1). Then, three key components of strategy are highlighted from the strategy literature in the context of organizations partnering for community sustainability: strategic goals, organizational structures, and partner-centric outcomes (2.2.2).

Finally, since the end goal of these CSSPs is the sustainability of communities, sustainability literature is presented in general (2.3), from the perspective of local initiatives based on Local Agenda 21 (2.3.2.1) and implemented currently as local sustainability partnerships (2.3.2.2). Furthermore, the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are also introduced as the international framework under which sustainable development is being currently framed (2.3.3) and which, as presented in Chapter 6, relates well with community sustainability initiatives.

2.1 Collaboration

Collaboration has been studied for decades by researchers seeking to understand what it means, always highlighting the key role of collaborating stakeholders. In the 1960s, collaboration was understood as the exchange of activities between organizations that would have consequences with respect to specific goals (Levine & White, 1961). This definition refers to activities that are not necessarily reciprocal, widening the concept beyond the exchange of goods, and emphasizing the voluntary engagement of organizations as one of the main characteristics of collaboration (Levine & White, 1961). A couple of decades later, Barbara Gray, one of the most influential scholars on collaboration, expanded the concept by suggesting that it refers to the pooling of

resources by stakeholders to solve "indivisible" problems, which neither of them could solve alone (1985), arguing that collaboration is "a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain" (1989, p. 227). Collaborating stakeholders are interdependent actors who own decisions, assume responsibility for the future of a problem, and can deal with differences to find solutions (Gray, 1989).

The definition of collaboration continued to evolve into the 21st century. Koontz (2006) argued that stakeholders collaborate in the setting, planning, implementation, and evaluation of solutions to address a problem. By working together, collaborating stakeholders achieve a "comprehensive understanding of problems and possible remedies" (Koontz, 2006, p. 16), whose relationship does not rely on market or hierarchical mechanisms, depending instead on ongoing negotiations (Lotia & Hardy, 2008). These negotiations are what Gray (1989) calls a negotiated order "created among stakeholders to control environmental turbulence by regulating the exchange relationships among them" (1989, pp. 227–228). Collaborating stakeholders shape collaborations into social entities since organizations relate when collaborating, into political figures because they play a dual role as collaborators and individual stakeholders, and into dynamic systems in that the roles of the parties evolve over time during the collaborative process (Lotia & Hardy, 2008).

Collaborating stakeholders must understand the purposes of the parties and their roles in the accomplishment of goals for collaboration to be effective (Levine & White, 1961). Then, for collaboration to be successful, it requires that stakeholders are identified and their commitments agreed to (problem-setting phase of collaboration), agreements among stakeholders are reached (direction-setting phase), their tasks are designed, and their roles are assigned (implementation-phase) (Gray, 1985; Trist, 1983). Thus, for collaboration to happen relevant stakeholders must be

engaged with each other around a problem domain through rules, norms, and structures (Gray & Wood, 1991). They must be capable of sharing power, decisions, resources, values, strategy, and a sense of mission, their legitimacy and interdependence, as well as the importance of the issue must be agreed, and their roles and values must reflect the complexity of the problem for collaboration to succeed (Huxham, 1993). However, collaboration is not necessarily effective when focusing on highly contested and complex environmental issues (Bodin, 2017).

2.1.1 Partnerships

As stated by Gray and Stites (2013), most authors do not make a clear distinction between collaborations and partnerships. Partnerships are a form of collaboration that is certainly closer in its definition to that of Lotia & Hardy (2008), who talk about social non-hierarchical inter-organizational relationships, than to Levine & White's (1961), especially with respect to collaborations not being necessarily reciprocal exchanges. Partnerships are understood as a coordinating configuration of stakeholders from different sectors of society working in collaboration for the achievement of common social goals, requiring the commitment of resources from the partners (Glasbergen, 2007; Waddock, 1988). Partnerships, such as the ones considered in this research, are non-hierarchical and voluntary (Glasbergen, 2007; Pinkse & Kolk, 2012), although there are others that can be mandatory (Selsky & Parker, 2005). While partnerships are "collective strategies" focused on a shared vision with specific arrangements among stakeholders to address identified problems, collaboration is a broader process for stakeholders to work together that includes partnerships (Gray, 1989, p. 184).

Partnerships are an alternative to "state-centric" initiatives, where governments lead processes for addressing common issues of society, representing a "pluralistic approach" that involves

stakeholders contributing with their strengths to address societal problems (Glasbergen, 2007, p. 1). Partnerships can be considered a new form of collaborative governance whenever governments become smaller and public administration loses credibility; corporations expand and take political positions, getting involved in social, environmental and economic matters; and civil society is more professionalized with great social capital (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Glasbergen, 2007). Partnerships represent an opportunity for organizations to address public pressure, for businesses to comply with expectations on socially responsible behaviour (Selsky & Parker, 2005), improve their reputation and reduce their environmental footprint (Gray & Stites, 2013); for NGOs to be more efficient and accountable (Selsky & Parker, 2005), taking up roles that the public sector is no longer able to fulfill (Gray & Stites, 2013); and for governments to provide more benefits and services, while improving transparency (Selsky & Parker, 2005).

Organizations form partnerships when an issue emerges that affects something they depend on, they perceive beneficial to address, and they consider it to be relevant to their interests (Gray, 1985; Waddock, 1988). However, the types of partners and their relationships are key to the success of a partnership (Glasbergen, 2007), being more likely to succeed if they are focused on areas interdependent for the partners, so that they would all gain something that is larger than the costs of participating (Gray, 1985; Waddock, 1991). Nevertheless, since the partners may not have interacted before the partnership and may not even understand what it means to partner or what the partnership is about, potential for failure is great (Waddock, 1988). In fact, lack of commitment from the partners, gaining less than expected (Waddock, 1988), as well as asymmetries of power among partners (Bodin, 2017) are some of the reasons for partnerships to fail.

2.1.2 Cross-sector Social Partnerships (CSSPs)

As societal interactions become more complex and society faces increasing turbulence, partnerships focused on social matters have flourished all over the world (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013), recognising them as a way to address and achieve sustainability goals (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005). Furthermore, since sustainability challenges such as climate change, poverty eradication or economic development are too large and complex to be addressed by any single organization alone (Bryson et al., 2006; Selsky & Parker, 2005), it has become essential to engage a variety of stakeholders from across sectors in partnerships with the purpose of achieving sustainability goals (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005). These are the partnerships used in this research.

In general, there are four types of CSSPs: those led by governments partnering with the private sector and the civil society; those between businesses and the public sector; those between the private sector and the civil society, and those between governments and organizations from the civil society (Glasbergen, 2007; Selsky & Parker, 2005). Some of them are large partnerships with multiple partners from all sectors, while others are small with just two or three partners from different sectors (Rühli et al., 2017), with large partnerships being limitedly studied and poorly understood in comparison to small partnerships (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Large partnerships across sectors, which are the ones considered in this research, have been called multi-stakeholder partnerships (Pinkse & Kolk, 2012), cross-sector collaborations (Bryson et al., 2006), social alliances (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014), multi-stakeholder cross-sector partnerships (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016), or cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs) (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005), among other names. CSSPs is the term used in this research.

Deepening the types of CSSPs presented, they have been classified based on their level of problem salience and organizations interdependence (Table 2), according to their timeframe, level of openness, and interest (Table 3), and from a corporate perspective (Table 4).

Table 2: Types of CSSPs based on Problems Addressed and Level of Interdependence

CSSPs[7]	Programmatic	Federational	Systemic
Problems	Relatively structured	Specific to a group of organizations	Relatively indivisible
Level of Interdependence	Low: interaction of very few organizations	Medium: interaction of few organizations	High: interaction of many organizations

(based on Waddock, 1991)

Table 3: Types of CSSPs based on Timeframe, Openness Level, and Interest Oriented

CSSPs[8]	Transactional	Integrative	Developmental
Timeframe	Short-term	In between transactional and developmental	Long-term
Openness level	Constrained		Open-ended
Interest oriented	Largely self-interest oriented		Largely common-interest oriented

(based on Selsky & Parker, 2005)

[7] "Social partnerships (or public-private partnerships)" (Waddock, 1988, p. 481)
[8] Partnerships between NGOs and businesses, between governments and businesses, between governments and NGOs, and partnerships involving actors from all the three sectors (Selsky & Parker, 2005)

Table 4: Types of CSSPs from the Corporate Perspective

CSSPs[9]	Transactional	Transitional	Transformational
Corporate stance with respect to society	Giving back	Building bridges	Changing society
Corporate tactics	Donations, infrastructure, volunteering, information	Dialogues, consultations, meetings	Joint projects and decision-making, co-ownership
Communication	1-way: Firm to community	2-way but mainly firm to community	2-way: bi-directional
Number of partners	Many	Many	Few
Frequency of interaction	Occasional	Repeated	Frequent
Nature of trust learning	Limited	Evolutionary	Relational
Control over process	Firm	Firm	Shared
Benefits and outcomes	Distinct	Distinct	Joint

(adapted from Bowen, Newenham-Kahindi, & Herremans, 2010)

According to the classifications presented, the CSSPs considered for this research are systemic (Waddock, 1991), developmental (Selsky & Parker, 2005), and transformational (Bowen et al., 2010). They are systemic because sustainability is a complex wicked problem part of complex interactions within uncertain environments that can be considered indivisible (Rühli et al., 2017) being addressed through many stakeholders. They are developmental since sustainability is a long-term, open-ended and common-interest issue. Finally, they may be considered transformational since the CSSPs' purpose is to change society, with joint projects and decision-making processes among the different partners, communicating in all directions, with frequent interaction, relational trust, shared control over processes, and benefitting with outcomes all the partners. The only variable that does not fit with this last classification is the number of partners

[9] Partnerships between firms and the community (Bowen, Newenham-Kahindi, & Herremans, 2010)

since the partnerships studied in this research are large, a condition that has been argued to be fundamental for achieving the transformational purpose of addressing sustainability challenges and changing society (e.g. Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Worley & Mirvis, 2013).

Partnering across sectors is a key component of sustainable development involving diverse stakeholders in decision-making processes for shaping social and environmental conditions (Koontz, 2006). CSSPs are also a way to address local sustainability challenges with partners from the private, public, and civil society working collaboratively to address common social issues (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005). CSSPs require not only sharing of information, resources, activities, and skills (Bryson et al., 2006), but also commitments (Gray & Stites, 2013; Waddock, 1988) by multiple partner organizations to jointly achieve outcomes (Bryson et al., 2006; Gray, 1989).

Since CSSPs focus on societal issues, they position partner organizations in the public arena, requiring their active involvement through the commitment of resources as well as in the planning, organizing, evaluating and implementation of activities defined as necessary for the success of the partnership (Waddock, 1988, 1991). CSSPs are positioned "in the midrange of how organizations work on public problems", in between organizations hardly relating to each other and those that have merged into new entities, whose main aim is to create public value that cannot be created by individual actors alone (Bryson et al., 2006, p. 44).

The CSSPs contexts of this research are large voluntary initiatives among many partner organizations focused on addressing sustainability challenges at the community level. However, as it can be seen in Chapter 3, two of the four large CSSPs can be split into two still large groups

in terms of their partners' level of engagement. A first group contains those partner organizations actively involved committing resources to the success of the partnership (Waddock, 1988, 1991), while the second clusters organizations that have manifested their intention to be part of the partnerships but have not committed resources nor got involved in the partnership's activities. The first group, i.e. those actively involved in the collaborating process (Gray, 1985; Gray & Wood, 1991), are the partner organizations focus of this research.

2.2 Strategic Management

2.2.1 Organizations

It is important to understand organizations not only because they are a "prominent … dominant characteristic of modern societies" (Davis, 2006; Scott, 2003, p. 3), but also because people spend most of the time in them, they are everywhere (March & Simon, 1966), and there are of so many different kinds (Boone & van Witteloostuijn, 1995). Organizations perform many and diverse tasks, being part of every area of social life (Scott, 2003). They persist over time, are reliable in performing the same tasks over and over again, and are accountable within a framework of rules (Hannan & Carroll, 1995). They are diverse and complex, compounded by a social structure and participants, with goals and objectives for which they need to work (Scott, 2003), subject to context and environments which they must adapt to and focus on in order to develop and survive (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

Organizations have been studied for many years including examination of characteristics such as their structures, links to other organizations, hierarchies, environments, and as key members of society (Davis, 2006). While several authors studied the use of human beings in the context of

industrial organizations during the 20th century (e.g. March & Simon, 1966), the study of formal organizations can be traced back to the 1940s in the field of administrative sciences through Max Weber and his theory of bureaucracy, the theory of the firm in microeconomics, and Coase's theory of firm boundaries (Davis, 2006). However, organization theory as a domain of sociology started in the 1950s at the Carnegie School expanding it as well to the fields of economics, political science, and psychology, approaching organizations from a transdisciplinary perspective (Davis, 2006). Foundational works on organizational theory include Weber's *Theory of Social and Economic Organization* translated from German into English in 1947, Peter Blau's *The Dynamics of Bureaucracy* from 1955 and *Organizations* by March and Simon from 1958 (Pugh & Hickson, 2007), and Barnard's *The Functions of the Executive* from 1968 (Godfrey & Mahoney, 2014), among others.

Max Weber is considered by many to be the father of organizational theory due to his theories on the functioning of bureaucracy, as "the dominant administrative system that emerged with capitalism" (Lounsbury & Carberry, 2005, p. 503). For Weber, an organization is "a system of continuous purposive activity of a specific kind", defining formal organizations as social groups involved in the pursuit of clear and publicised objectives through coordinated actions (Weber, 1964, p. 151). Furthermore, organizations have a hierarchical authority structure, a specialised administrative staff, differentiated rewards according to office, limited objectives, a performance emphasis, segmental participation, and compensatory rewards (Weber, 1964). Weber's view of organizations was later classified as a rational system perspective being followed by several authors (Scott, 2003).

Different schools of thought have studied organizations proposing four main perspectives for their understanding: a rational, a natural, an open systems perspective, and a combination of

them (Scott, 2003). The following section will briefly present these views highlighting the open systems perspective since it reflects the organizations studied in this research as part of CSSPs implementing community sustainability plans.

2.2.1.1 Rational System Perspective

From the rational system perspective, organizations have been defined as a "coöperation among men that is conscious, deliberate, [and] purposeful" (March & Simon, 1966, p. 4) formally designed to achieve specific goals (Scott, 2003). Organizations have been described as collectivities with a purpose, where the idea of goal orientation "is one of the most commonly found aspects of the definition of organizations" (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967, p. 23). From a rational perspective, organizations are "collectivities" designed with the purpose of achieving specific goals through formalized social structures (Scott, 2003, p. 27).

2.2.1.2 Natural System Perspective

A different view known as the natural system perspective highlights that organizations are formed by individuals who do not necessarily do what it is planned for them to do (Scott, 2003). From this perspective, organizations are "complex systems of co-ordinated human activities" (Blau, 1963, p. v), highlighting the role of participants who pursue multiple interests working towards the survival of the organization (Scott, 2003). Organizations are systems of interrelated behaviours of people who perform different tasks (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Contrary to the rational view that holds better in more stable environments, the natural systems perspective of

organizations is more appropriate to dynamic situations with individuals as key actors (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1986).

2.2.1.3 Open System Perspective

The rational and the natural system perspectives view organizations as closed systems separate from their environment, which is not the case of the organizations studied in this research. On the contrary, the open systems perspective views organizations as "activities involving coalitions of participants with varying interests embedded in wider environments" (Scott, 2003, p. 30), such as CSSPs. Accordingly, an organization cannot be understood without understanding its environmental context, as they must engage with it in order to survive, what Pfeffer and Salancik call "the ecology of the organization" (1978, p. 1). The open systems perspective focuses its attention on the interdependence of the organization and its environment as the source of materials, energy, and information, all vital for the survival of the organization (Scott, 2003). In the context of this research, it can be argued that the partnership and the other partners are the environmental contexts of the studied organizations.

The open systems view is based on two assumptions: without inputs from the environment, i.e. the CSSP including the other partners, a system fails (entropy); and inputs are transformed into outcomes to be used by another system (throughput) (Katz & Kahn, 1978). As seen from Figure 1, inputs, throughput, and outcomes form a cycle representing a system part of the environment, i.e., the organization part of the CSSP. The main purpose of an open system is its self-maintenance (Boulding, 1956), emphasizing the relationship between the system's structure and the environment (Katz & Kahn, 1978), reason for its dependence on the environment, and its contribution to it.

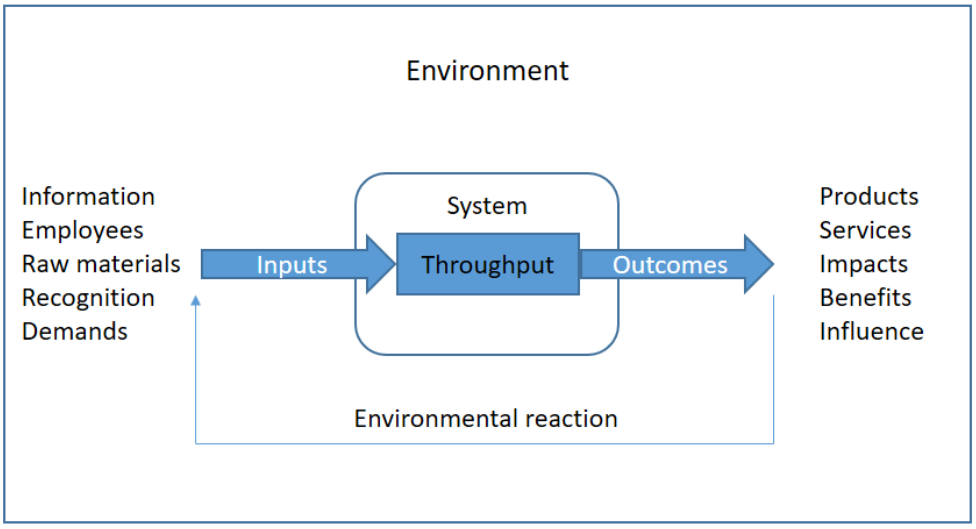


Figure 1: Open System

2.2.1.4 Combination of Perspectives

Finally, combinations of these perspectives have appeared through the years: the structuralist approach is a synthesis of the rational and the natural schools, arguing that while the rational focuses its attention on the distribution of power among organizational positions, the natural argues that power relies on people (Etzioni, 1964); the contingency view which sees the rational and the natural system perspectives as useful to identify different types of organizations that vary as they adapt to diverse environments (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967), defining organizations as the "coordination of different activities of individual contributors to carry out planned transactions with the environment" (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1969, p. 3); and the view that the rational, natural and open system perspectives are correct and applicable at different levels, the first to technical levels, second to managerial levels, and the last to institutional levels (Thompson, 2007).

From these perspectives and in the context of organizations partnering across sectors for community sustainability, it can be argued that organizations have a goal they address through structures that contain hierarchies, processes, and resources, as well as people who contribute with their visions and approaches to the achievement of those goals. Moreover, organizations are not isolated systems but part of an environment (the CSSP) they depend on and which they contribute to, interchanging resources to achieve their final purposes.

2.2.2 Organizational Strategy

As mentioned, scholars argue that organizations join partnerships for strategic reasons (e.g. Selsky & Parker, 2005; Wassmer et al., 2014), and that sustainability is a strategic opportunity for organizations (e.g. Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; Fiksel et al., 2014).

Strategy theorists assert that to survive and succeed in complex environments, organizations must adapt their strategies according to the dynamics of their environment (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Mintzberg, 1978), by finding the right match with their strategy, structure, and processes (Astley & Fombrun, 1983; Hunger & Wheelen, 2011). This research addresses organizations from a strategic perspective involving the study of goals, structures, and outcomes achieved in the context of large sustainability partnerships.

Schools of thought have grouped the evolution of strategic management into two categories: the prescriptive school, which sees strategy as a formal and planned process supported by experts and professionals to match the organization's strengths and weaknesses with the environment's opportunities and threats; and the descriptive school, which argues that strategy is based on

individuals' intuition, cognition, influence, and culture to respond to the challenges presented by the environment (Mintzberg & Lampel, 1999). It can be argued that both categories follow an open system perspective in relationship with the environment, with the prescriptive closer with respect to organizational structure to the rational system perspective, while the descriptive approach relies more on individuals, which is similar to the natural system perspective of organizations, although not as closed but as open systems.

Definitions of strategy almost always include guidelines for determining decisions into the future (Mintzberg, 1978). From a prescriptive perspective, Chandler (1962) defines it as "the determination of … long-term goals and objectives …, and the adoption of courses of action and … allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals" (Hofer & Schendel, 1978, p. 16); while for Andrews (1965, 1971) it "is the pattern of objectives, purposes or goals and major policies and plans for achieving these goals, stated in such a way as to define what business the [organization] is in or is to be in and the kind of [organization] it is or is to be" (Hofer & Schendel, 1978, p. 16). Others from descriptive schools define strategy as the "fundamental pattern of present and planned resource deployments and environmental interactions that indicates how the organization will achieve its objectives" (Hofer & Schendel, 1978, p. 25), or a "set of consistent behaviors by which the organization establishes for a time its place in its environment" (Mintzberg, 1978, p. 941). Furthermore, according to Andrews (1980), the essence of strategy is pattern, with Mintzberg (1978) stating that an emergent strategy is a deliberative plan designed to make decisions. These strategic decisions would determine objectives, generating the adequate structural conditions and identifying the necessary resources for the achievement of objectives, as well as defining the value to be created for the environment (Andrews, 1980).

A strategy is determined with an objective ahead, and in order to achieve such objective resources are mobilized and structures are needed (Andrews, 1980). Then, if there is a strategic reason for partnering for sustainability as argued by scholars, organizations must have a clear objective, for which a determined structure is to be set. Otherwise, if there are not clear objectives nor structures, the reason for partnering may not be strategic. According to Hunger and Wheelen (2011), strategic decisions are unusual without any precedents, require substantial resources demanding a great commitment from the organization, and set precedents for other decisions and future actions. Thus, it becomes relevant to understand the reasons that make organizations join partnerships, and whether their engagement in sustainability partnerships is a strategic decision to be followed by a structure in order to achieve determined objectives.

For an organization to be both effective and efficient, its strategy must consider the scope of interactions with the environment, the resources, and skills to deploy in order to achieve its objectives, its competitive advantage, and the joint effects to be achieved from the deployment of resources and the scope decisions (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Certainly, partnering with other organizations for community sustainability could be understood as strategic. Indeed, it has been argued that organizations that jointly combine resources in unique ways gain competitive advantage over others who would try to do it alone, i.e., outcomes only generated through partnering are possible thanks to the exchange of distinctive resources from partners (Dyer & Singh, 1998). However, organizations also aim to be unique (Mintzberg & Lampel, 1999; M. E. Porter, 1996), it then becomes unclear whether the involvement of organizations in partnerships would create competitive advantage through resources that are to be shared with and acquired by other partners as well. Furthermore, as organizations become more alike, especially if others are perceived to be more successful and their resources needed (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983),

resources could become common instead of unique reducing their capacity to create competitive advantage, in contrast with the argument of strategic partnering.

In summary, strategy is a pattern of decisions (Andrews, 1980) that would determine long-term objectives through adequate structures and resources for the achievement of goals (Wheelen & Hunger, 2012), in interaction with the environment (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Then, it can be argued that strategy is formed by four main elements: (1) goals towards the future of the organization (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012); (2) structures that are needed to achieve goals, which include resources, plans, policies and actions (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012); (3) outcomes that are achieved thanks to the implementation of structures (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978); (4) and the environment as the context organizations interact with for resources and to which they must adapt to survive (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Scott, 2003).

Through the understanding of strategy, this research aims to assess why organizations join sustainability partnerships through their drivers for partnering as a proxy for strategic goals (Brinkerhoff, 2002), how organizations are structured to partner for sustainability and whether their structures are aligned with their goals, and what organizations gain from partnering for sustainability. At the end, one of the aims of this research is to understand whether the decision for organizations to join partnerships is strategic, testing through a quantitative analysis the statement claimed by several scholars that organizations partner for strategic reasons (e.g. Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lin & Darnall, 2015), and that sustainability is a strategic opportunity (e.g. Fiksel et al., 2014; Wassmer et al., 2017).

2.2.2.1 Reasons for Organizations to Join Partnerships - Drivers to Partner

Human society is based on collaboration (Melis, 2013), one of the main factors that have enabled humans to dominate the Earth (Harari, 2016).

Some scholars suggest that organizations collaborate when they are faced with problems they are unable to solve alone, when their methods are not good enough, or during crises or conditions of scarcity (e.g. Gray, 1985; Levine & White, 1961). Similarly, others argue that organizations collaborate to reduce uncertainty caused by competition, growing demands by stakeholders, globalization, technological as well as social and ecological changes (e.g. Gray, 1989; Lotia & Hardy, 2008). Organizations collaborate when unanticipated and dissonant consequences, which are problematic for independent organizations (Astley & Fombrun, 1983), are created (Gray, 1985), making themselves interdependent on each other to address problems (Gray, 1989).

Organizations partner because they see a potential to solve social problems affecting the private, public, and not-for-profit world, arguing that they expect to gain more by being part of the partnership than being alone since the partnership has more chances of success tackling the problem that organizations independently (Waddock, 1988). Joining others around common issues of concern would prevent the escalation of problems, as well as opening up opportunities since stakeholders recognize the advantages of achieving something that could not be reached independently (Glasbergen, 2007; Huxham, 1993). While Waddock (1989) argues that altruistic reasons do not motivate organizations to partner, but obtaining tangible and specific benefits beyond reputation or development of goodwill, others assert that organizations partner only if it is impossible to get “what they want” alone (Bryson et al., 2006, p. 45), and that organizations collaborate only for their own interests (Bodin, 2017).

Organizations partner either when they are in vulnerable positions so they need resources that can be obtained through partnerships, or when they are in good positions to engage and attract other partners (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996). Organizations join partnerships to have access to certain critical resources they need to achieve their objectives (Ansell & Gash, 2008; Lotia & Hardy, 2008), to improve their strategic positions (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Selsky & Parker, 2005), and to gain legitimacy or image (Googins & Rochlin, 2000; Gray & Stites, 2013), knowledge and prospects for sharing ideas (Butler, 2001) and competitive advantage (Lavie, 2006; Selsky & Parker, 2005), as well as to respond to pressures (Waddock, 1991; Wassmer et al., 2014), threats and uncertainty (Gray, 1989; Gray & Wood, 1991). Organizations join partnerships to acquire competencies they cannot develop alone (Selsky & Parker, 2005), or because partnerships are the way to create real change for society and the environment (Koontz, 2006), and address collective social and environmental problems (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Waddock, 1988). Some argue that businesses seek to maintain control over competitive resources as a way to be ahead of competitors (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993), not-for-profits seek reputation, innovation and higher returns on their respective area of development (Austin, 2000), and organizations from the public sector aim to improve their relations with the community and gain human capital (Koontz & Thomas, 2012). Others argue that many resources are similar across sectors (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Partnering with others creates collaborative advantages, the achievement of something that could not have been created by organizations independently, but through collaboration (Huxham, 1993).

Drivers for organizations to partner have been classified into two large groups: collaborating for resolving problems, and for advancing towards shared visions, a classification which has a focus on the exchange of information or the creation of joint agreements as intended outcomes (Gray,

1989). More specifically, drivers have been grouped into four groups: legitimacy-oriented drivers for building reputation, image and social licence; competency-oriented drivers, which include knowledge, skills and capabilities; resource-oriented drivers referring to having access to networks, sharing risks as well as financial and social capital; and society-oriented drivers in respect to making changes in society (Gray & Stites, 2013).

From a strategic perspective, an organization's main purpose is to "organize the use of its 'own' resources together with other resources acquired from outside" to survive (Penrose, 1959, p. 31). Consequently, resource-based view (RBV) scholars, who focus on strategic resources for achieving competitive advantage, define resources as "anything which could be thought of as a strength or weakness" (Wernerfelt, 1984, p. 172) in the formulation and implementation of a strategy (Barney, 1991). Resources are the building blocks of an organization (Hunger & Wheelen, 2011), which they use to relate with the environment (Penrose, 1959). RBV classifies resources into tangible and intangible (Wernerfelt, 1984) including physical machines and manufacturing facilities, human experience and knowledge, financial resources such as debt and earnings, and organizational resources such as culture, trust, and history (Barney, 1995). These resources are assessed through this research as assets that drive organizations to join cross-sector partnerships for community sustainability.

According to RBV, one of the most widely used and powerful theories for explaining organizational relationships and competitive advantage (Barney et al., 2011), organizations are heterogeneous entities that achieve competitive advantage by controlling a unique set of resources, which must be *v*aluable, *r*are, *i*nimitable and non-substitutable, for which they must be *o*rganized to exploit their full potential (VRIO framework) (Barney, 1995). This rationale is based on the assumption that resources are not mobile among organizations, giving organizations

advantages and positioning them better due to the resource they control (Barney, 1991). Organizations possess a bundle of resources such as technical know-how, management skills, capital, and reputation (Arya & Lin, 2007), partnering for reducing uncertainty from their environment and gaining competitive advantage through acquiring critical resources (Lotia & Hardy, 2008). RBV has been considered for this research because it is one of the most powerful and used theories for understanding organizations and competitive advantage (Barney et al., 2011), it groups resources in a useful and clear manner, and it is an organizational-management perspective that focuses on competitive advantage as the main driver. Table 5 summarises drivers to partner as argued by scholars being classified according to Gray and Stites (2013) and RBV.

Table 5: List of Drivers Identified by Scholars Organized According to Gray and Stites (2013)'s and RBV

Gray & Stites (2013)	Drivers to Join Partnerships	Resource-Based View
Legitimacy	• Gain or improve legitimacy or image (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Galaskiewicz, 1979; Googins & Rochlin, 2000; Gray & Stites, 2013; Koontz, 2006) • Trust (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Koontz, 2006)	Human Organizational
Competency	• Improve strategic positions (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Selsky & Parker, 2005)	Financial Physical Organizational
	• Address uncertainty (Gray, 1985; Gray & Wood, 1991; Levine & White, 1961) by o Spreading risks (Arya & Lin, 2007; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lotia & Hardy, 2008) o Reducing costs (Gray & Stites, 2013; Lotia & Hardy, 2008) and o Increasing efficiency (Lotia & Hardy, 2008)	Organizational Human Financial Organizational
	• Acquire competencies they cannot develop (Selsky & Parker, 2005)	Human
	• Respond to socio-environmental pressures (Gray, 1989; Lin & Darnall, 2015; Lotia & Hardy, 2008; Waddock, 1991; Wassmer et al., 2014) • Control, manipulate, or influence environmental outcomes (Fombrun & Astley, 1983)	Organizational
	• Solve problems (Glasbergen, 2007; Huxham, 1993; Waddock, 1988)	Organizational
	• Achieve competitive advantage (Lavie, 2006; Lotia & Hardy, 2008; Selsky & Parker, 2005)	Organizational
Resource	• Acquiring resources (Ansell & Gash, 2008; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Levine & White, 1961; Lotia & Hardy, 2008; Vurro et al., 2010) such as: o Technology (Arya & Salk, 2006; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray & Stites, 2013; Lotia & Hardy, 2008) o Information (Leach, Pelkey, & Sabatier, 2002; Lotia & Hardy, 2008)	Organizational Human Financial

Gray & Stites (2013)	Drivers to Join Partnerships	Resource-Based View
	○ Knowledge, training and skills (Arya & Lin, 2007; Butler, 2001; Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk, van Dolen, & Vock, 2010; Leach et al., 2002; Lotia & Hardy, 2008) ○ Reputation (Arya & Lin, 2007; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005) ○ Access to partnerships and partners (Arya & Lin, 2007; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010; Leach et al., 2002; Selsky & Parker, 2005) ○ Social capital (Kolk et al., 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005) ○ Organizational goals (Leach et al., 2002) ○ Financial resources (Arya & Lin, 2007; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010; Leach et al., 2002) ○ Increase organizational power (Lotia & Hardy, 2008) ○ Influencing policy (Gray & Stites, 2013; Leach et al., 2002) ○ Improving relationships with stakeholders (Gray & Stites, 2013) ○ Investing in stakeholder management (Hillman & Keim, 2001) ○ Market opportunities (Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; Lotia & Hardy, 2008)	
Society	• Create real change for society and the environment (Koontz, 2006) • Address collective social and environmental problems (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Fombrun & Astley, 1983; Waddock, 1988) • Improve social and environmental conditions and the sustainability of society (Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010; Koontz, 2006) • Gain collaborative advantage (Huxham, 1993) • Contribute to the purpose of the partnership (Leach et al., 2002) • Sustainability of society (Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010; Koontz, 2006)	

As can be seen from Table 5, Gray and Stites' (2013) classifications group all types of drivers including those considered for organizations' internal benefit (legitimacy-oriented drivers, competency-oriented drivers, and resource-oriented drivers), as well as those society-oriented drivers. However, the RBV perspective does focus only on drivers that are internally-focused (organizational, human, financial, and physical) not considering those which would benefit the society such as socio-ecological resources (Barney et al., 2011; Hart, 1995). This limitation was addressed by MacDonald (2016) identifying these resources as the impacts on the social and environmental goals of a partnership from organizations from the public sector and the civil society (Darnall & Carmin, 2005; Koontz & Thomas, 2012), as well as from the private sector (M. E. Porter & Kramer, 2011). This research aims to contribute to the refinement of RBV and the resources it identifies. While society-related resources are not typically addressed by RBV, it can be argued that among human and organizational resources two distinct groups can be seen, with some resources more focused on an external relationship with stakeholders such as sharing experiences or collaborating with the community, others aim to increase the access to resources for internal benefit such as improving reputation or gaining knowledge. This research aims to give some light to this issue and contribute to the refinement of RBV.

2.2.2.2 How Organizations Are Structured to Partner for Sustainability – Structural Features

As concluded from the definitions of strategy and the different schools of thought, structure is one of its main components for the achievement of organizational objectives (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978), playing a key role for matching strategy with the changes happening in the environment towards organizational success (Hunger & Wheelen, 2011). Structures can be understood as an arrangement of stable, determined and regular roles, procedures, and of

interacting processes (Ranson, Hinings, & Greenwood, 1980). They include goals, roles, rules, processes, and norms that regulate relationships (Bryson et al., 2006). Structures drive the design and implementation of organizational agendas, determining what people do through the assignation of resources (Huxham & Vangen, 2000). They control interactions in a complex manner (Ranson et al., 1980) that, as supported by the strategy literature, organizations need to survive (Mintzberg, 1980).

Similar to the rational, natural, or open systems perspectives presented on how scholars see organizations, theorists see different types of structures. Those with a rational view of organizations argue that they consist of hierarchical structures with administrative staff and differential rewards (e.g. Weber, 1964), highlighting the relevance of formalized structures for the achievement of organizational goals, as a way to predict behaviour through standards and rules (Scott, 2003). Others argue that the rational view fails to focus on new elements such as informal relations that arise in the course of operations influencing structures (e.g. Blau, 1963), elements which are necessary to the operation of organizations (Barnard, 1968), consistent with the natural systems perspective. Natural systems theorists argue that only by understanding what people do and their informal interactions, can organizational structures be understood (Scott, 2003). Alternatively, other scholars assert that the rational and the natural views coexist as organizational structures describe the prescribed frameworks proposed by the rational view, and the configuration of interactions from the natural view (Ranson et al., 1980). Furthermore, researchers who see organizations as a combination of both views recognize them as open systems asserting that organizations are part of an environment they depend on for resources that supports, influences and shapes their organizational structures (Scott, 2003). The open systems

approach leads to the view that structural design depends on the environment, i.e. a contingency approach (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

Contingency theory has been widely used for approaching organizational design and to study organizations, arguing that for organizations to be successful, their structures must match the demands of their environments (Scott, 2003). Contingency theory focuses on the design of effective organizations with structures capable of coping with contingencies derived "from the circumstances of environment, technology, scale, [or] resources" (Ranson et al., 1980, p. 9). Therefore, organizations that are faced with certain environments develop highly formalized structures, while those confronted with uncertain, flexible and more complex contexts have lower degrees of formalized structures (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). While highly formalized organizations pursue clearly defined goals, less formalized organizations rely on the qualities and initiatives developed by participants, pursuing less clear and sometimes even conflicting interests (Scott, 2003). Furthermore, organizations would arrange their structures according to the situations they face, i.e., while the overall organization would deal formally with a certain environment, a subunit would approach a flexible environment through an informal or less formal structure (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Similarly, institutional theorists see organizations as open systems influenced by their environment via rules and norms that exercise control over their structures and on how they operate, determining their survival in the respective environment (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). Organizations would follow social norms and rules to be perceived as legitimate (Meyer & Rowan, 1977) responding to other organizations on which they are dependent or cultural expectations from society (coercive isomorphism), to uncertainty by modelling others perceived as more legitimate (mimetic isomorphism), or following normative pressures from the environment (normative isomorphism)

(DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). The partner organizations studied in this research can be classified as open systems interacting with other organizations partners in the same partnership, as well as with the challenges being addressed through the community sustainability plans.

Researchers have identified structural features that are relevant for organizational success. According to the contingency view of organizations, structural features can be categorised as highly formal or barely formal (or informal) based on structural characteristics such as span of control, number of levels to a shared supervisor, frequency and specificity of review of performance, and importance of formal rules and procedures (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Formal structural features include a hierarchical structure (Weber, 1964), with staff (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016), incentives (Worley & Mirvis, 2013), and resources such as information systems (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), and infrastructure (Weber, 1964). While informal structural features consist of having norms (Gray & Stites, 2013), processes (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016), and management practices (Worley & Mirvis, 2013), as well as roles (March & Simon, 1966), and activities (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), with a responsible and accountable leader (Gray & Stites, 2013) who would for example implement environmental policies (Clarke, 2011; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Table 6 summarises formal and informal structural features as presented in the literature.

Table 6: Formal and Informal Structural Features

Types of Structural Features	Examples of Structural Features
Formal	Hierarchical structure (Weber, 1964) Staff (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Weber, 1964) Incentives (Weber, 1964; Worley & Mirvis, 2013) Physical resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Worley & Mirvis, 2013) Infrastructure (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Weber, 1964)
Informal	Activities (March & Simon, 1966; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) Norms (Gray & Stites, 2013) Roles (March & Simon, 1966) Leadership (Clarke, 2011; Gray & Stites, 2013; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) Processes (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013) Practices (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013; Worley & Mirvis, 2013) Policies (Clarke, 2011; MacDonald, 2016)

2.2.2.3 What Organizations Gain from Partnering for Sustainability – Partner-centric Outcomes

For CSSPs to be successful, a collaborative strategy is required that includes the determination of a long-term vision and goals for addressing a problem, with the necessary courses of actions at the collective and partner organizational levels, plus the allocation of resources to achieve the proposed goals and the agreed vision (Clarke & Fuller, 2010). The actions developed by a CSSP and its partners lead to different types of outcomes at different levels, among them are partner-centric outcomes, which contribute to learning and changes in the structure and behaviour of partner organizations (Clarke & Fuller, 2010).

From a social perspective, Gray (1989) argues that collaborating organizations achieve benefits such as a broad comprehensive analysis of problems thereby improving the quality of solutions, a more diversified response capability, assistance in reopening hard negotiations, risks of impasse are minimized, the interests of each stakeholder are considered, ownership of solutions

is developed, relationships improve, and mechanisms for coordinating future actions among stakeholders are established. Based on partners' objectives, potential partner-centric outcomes are classified into four categories: how satisfied are organizations in meeting their drivers, the existence of evidence in meeting motivations, enhanced performance in pursuing their own missions, and in satisfying their constituencies (Brinkerhoff, 2002). Moreover, according to Bryson et al. (2006), partners experience outcomes at three levels: immediately discernible outcomes such as the creation of social, intellectual and political capital; the formation of new partnerships, join actions, learning, and the implementation of agreements; and more collaboration among partners, with results on the ground, and the creation of new institutions, norms, and new modes of discourse.

While studying partnerships between businesses and not-for-profits, Austin and Seitanidi (2012) identify four types of partner-centric outcomes which they refer to as values: associational value, the value of transferred resources, the value of interaction, and synergistic value. The value of association is that achieved by an organization from collaborating with others such as credibility, respect, and perceptions; the value of transferred resources refers to those acquired by an organization as a transferring from another, including assets such as money, products or skills; interaction value are intangibles accomplished from the process of partnering (reputation, trust, relational capital, learning, and knowledge); and synergistic value is the one created while partnering since organizations sharing their resources achieve more in partnership than alone, including social, environmental and economic value (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012).

From the management perspective, partner-centric outcomes have been viewed as resources with some researchers grouping them as strategic, including securing unique resources that they cannot develop alone, the creation of knowledge, and political resources influencing others

(Hardy, Phillips, & Lawrence, 2003). Using RBV, one of the most common approaches used to understand partners-centric outcomes (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014), Clarke and MacDonald (2016) studied partner-centric outcomes from four CSSPs clustering their findings into physical, financial, human, and organizational capitals. Among those classified as financial outcomes are cost savings; improved efficiency as physical outcomes; knowledge as human outcomes; and relationships and social capital, improved reputation, gained influence, accessing marketing and business opportunities, increased capacity and new processes and programs, and impacting community sustainability as organizational capitals (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Table 7 presents a summary of partner-centric outcomes as argued by the social-public and management literature.

Table 7: List of Outcomes Identified by Scholars from the Social-Public and Management Literature, Organized According to RBV

Category (RBV)	Outcomes	Social-Public Literature	Management Literature
Physical/Financial capital	Cost savings, funding, improved efficiency, new markets, risks sharing	(Brinkerhoff, 2002; Rotheroe, Keenlyside, & Coates, 2003)	(Arya & Lin, 2007; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lavie, 2006)
Human capital	Learning and knowledge	(Austin & Seitanidi, 2012; Bryson et al., 2006; Gray, 1989; Selsky & Parker, 2005)	(Arya & Lin, 2007; Hardy et al., 2003; Selsky & Parker, 2005)
Organizational capital	Reporting systems, relationship building, reputation, recognition, influence, social capital, marketing and business opportunities, community sustainability	(Austin & Seitanidi, 2012; Bryson et al., 2006; Gray, 1989)	(Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Hardy et al., 2003; Lavie, 2006; Seitanidi & Crane, 2009)

(adapted from MacDonald, 2016)

The literature shows that most research on outcomes has been done on small partnerships (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016), focused on social instead of environmental outcomes (Koontz & Thomas, 2012). In contrast, this research focuses on large partnerships implementing community sustainability plans, where social, economic, and environmental issues are addressed.

2.2.2.4 Relationships between Organizational Drivers, Structures, and Outcomes

The strategic management literature provides theoretical suggestions around the relationships between organizational drivers, structures, and outcomes, as explained in section 2.2.2. However, research on how these variables relate to each other in the context of CSSPs for implementing community sustainability plans is limited. Research on CSSPs proposes that when the partnership goals are aligned with those of the partners, organizations structure for learning and building relationships as outcomes (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). MacDonald (2016), while assessing relationships between partners' structures and partner-centric outcomes, found that when partner organizations make changes to their internal structures in order to achieve their goals, they gain more resources than others who do not make those internal changes. Similarly, when drivers and structures fit, partners from the private sector and the civil society make their 'business case', validating their engagement in partnerships (Gray & Stites, 2013).

Research is also very limited with respect to the relationship between drivers for organizations to partner and organizational structures for addressing sustainability partnerships. Among the very little research available, scholars have found that whenever organizations change their internal structures by hiring someone to be responsible for sustainability, or when modifying their processes to achieve a goal such as reducing their greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (Clarke &

MacDonald, 2012), they contribute to the achievement of their goals, as well as those of the partnership (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016).

With respect to the relationships between partners' drivers and partner-centric outcomes, Tables 5 and 7 do show many similarities between what it has been found through the literature on drivers and outcomes. Specific research relating these two variables, however, is very limited. Among the findings is the improvement of reputation level in businesses and NGOs when partnering, which has been identified as one of the drivers for organizations to partner (Gray & Stites, 2013).

Similarly, there has been limited research on the relationships between organizational structures and partner-centric outcomes (Arya & Lin, 2007; Clarke & Fuller, 2010). While most of it has been focused on small partnerships with two or three partners (MacDonald, 2016), very few have addressed these issues for partners in CSSPs (Babiak & Thibault, 2009), a need largely identified (Babiak & Thibault, 2009; Schreiner, Kale, & Corsten, 2009). According to MacDonald (2016), RBV's VRIO Framework explains the connection between partners' structures and partner-centric outcomes once organizations are structurally prepared to achieve the full potential of their resources and capabilities (Barney, 1995). The literature shows a few examples supporting this claim: partners that make structural changes for getting the most from partnering are more organized for achieving outcomes than those organizations that do not make structural changes (Schreiner et al., 2009); when top managers and employees engage in CSSPs, businesses' corporate image and reputation enhance, product sales are higher, and companies become more attractive to potential new employees (Gray & Stites, 2013); when NGOs provide broader services, they gain more resources from the partnership (Arya & Lin, 2007); and when partners make internal structural changes according to the sustainability plan and support goals such as

creating sustainability positions, departments or processes like internal communication, and reporting or monitoring, they achieve more gains than others who do not (MacDonald, 2016). Finally, research has found that greater investments in the partnership lead to greater outcomes (MacDonald, 2016).

2.3 Sustainability

2.3.1 A Brief History of Sustainable Development

Indigenous beliefs and traditional wisdom can be considered at the base of sustainability in respect to the challenge of "living in harmony with nature and in society" (Mebratu, 1998, p. 498).

The concept of sustainability was presented for the first time in 1713 by Hans Carl von Carlowitz, Director of Mines in Saxony, in his "Sylvicultura Oeconomica" by proposing a continuous, permanent and sustainable use of the forest, arguing that this was the way to save European society from economic and social disaster (Vehkamäki, 2005). Although ideas referring to the "circulation of essential nutrients within ecologies" with a concern on "the disruption to circulatory processes [that] could lead to permanent degradation" date back to the 17th century (Warde, 2011).

Later in the 18th century, the impacts of the industrial revolution struck Thomas R. Malthus, an economist who expressed concerns on how uncontrolled population growth would not be able to be satisfied due to the limited land available for producing food (Dresner, 2008), linking for the first time growth and resource scarcity (Mebratu, 1998). Then, in the first half of the 20th century, Aldo Leopold, a forester considered to be the founder of conservation, presented

sustainability as a “fair distribution of interests between the present and future generation” (Vehkamäki, 2005, p. 6), highlighting that people are members of a community of interdependent parts (Quilley, 2009). Then, “Silent Spring”, the seminal book written by Rachel Carson which led to the eventual banning of DDT and the creation of environmental regulations in the US, was published in 1962, highlighting the impacts and responsibilities of organizations from across sectors on the environment (Carson, 1962).

In more recent times, at the UN Conference on Human Environment in Stockholm in 1972, it was recognized for the first time the importance of environmental management (Mebratu, 1998), putting on the international agenda the relevance of environmental problems (Dresner, 2008). The same year “The Limits to Growth” reported on the state of the natural environment, emphasizing that society was going to exceed ecological limits within decades if current trends of economic growth continued (Meadows, Meadows, Randers, & Behrens III, 1972). Then, the book “Small Is Beautiful” (1973) by Ernest F. Schumacher expressed worries about the depletion of natural resources and the environment (Mebratu, 1998), while soon after in 1974, the concept of sustainable society was first used at the World Council of Churches with a focus on building a better society (Dresner, 2008).

In 1980 the concept of sustainable development was defined by the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources as part of the World Conservation Strategy, as *“*the integration of conservation and development to ensure that modifications to the planet do indeed secure the survival and well-being of all people” (Dresner, 2008, p. 33). Two main concepts arose from this definition, both concerning organizations: Conservation as “the management of human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future

generations", and development as "the modification of the biosphere and the application of human, financial, living and non-living resources to satisfy human needs and improve the quality of human life" (Dresner, 2008, p. 33). Later on through "Our Common Future", also known as The Brundtland Report, the international community presented the definition currently in use for the concept of sustainable development as "development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), 1987, p. 43). This seminal report proposed sustainable development as a new development calling for a convergence between economic development, social equity, and environmental degradation (Dresner, 2008; Mebratu, 1998; Rangreji, 2013), certainly inviting all types of organizations to get involved.

Sustainable development includes human and social progress beyond economics and the environment, requiring the participation of diverse stakeholders with different ideals and goals towards action to achieve multiple values, promoting local and global efforts to reach a sustainable world (Kates, Parris, & Leiserowitz, 2005). Its definition implies the need for economic growth, so the poor would get their fair share of resources, equity led through political systems that allow citizen participation and democracy in decision-making processes (Dresner, 2008). Moreover, sustainable development is a matter of equity between and within generations (Dresner, 2008). However, the process for reaching sustainability has not been easy, and the number of people living in poverty is still more than 700 million (The World Bank Group, 2018b), GHG emissions keep increasing (Olivier, Schure, & Peters, 2017), and inequality is still a huge burden (Roser, 2016). All these issues require the leadership and responsibility of organizations from the private and public sector, alongside with the civil society (Sachs, 2012). Governments must assume new regulating roles ensuring the rights of future generations;

businesses must address their social and ecological impacts through their policies, processes, and engaging their stakeholders; and the civil society must participate in the design, monitoring and accountability of a new agenda for sustainability (Moore, 2015; Sachs, 2012).

2.3.2 Agenda 21

One of the outcomes from the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 was Agenda 21, a global program for action on sustainable development (Yates, 2012). Agenda 21 is a comprehensive action plan at global, national, and local levels "in every area in which human impacts on the environment" (UN-DESA, 2015, p. 1), seeking the integration of environment and development concerns for the fulfillment of basic needs, the improvement of living standards for all, better protected and managed ecosystems and a safer, more prosperous future (United Nations, 1992). The goals proposed by Agenda 21 required new global partnerships that include governments, as main responsible of its successful implementation, international, regional and subregional organizations, the participation of the broad public, and of NGOs, the private sector, academia and other major groups[10] (United Nations, 1992).

Since many of the problems and solutions addressed by Agenda 21 happen at the local level, the leadership of local authorities is fundamental in the role of promoting sustainable development (Freeman, Littlewood, & Whitney, 1996). Then, as a way to lead the implementation of sustainable development at local levels, Agenda 21 proposes that each local government enters

[10] UN Major Groups: Business & Industry, Children & Youth, Farmers, Indigenous People, Local Authorities, NGOs, Scientific and Technological Community, Women, and Workers & Trade Unions (UN-DESA, n.d.)

"into a dialogue with its citizens, local organizations and private enterprises" in order to adopt a Local Agenda 21 (LA21) (United Nations, 1992, para. 28.3).

2.3.2.1 Local Agenda 21

LA21 is "a participatory, multi-sectoral process to achieve the goals of Agenda 21 at the local level through the preparation and implementation of a long-term, strategic action plan that addresses priority local sustainable development concerns" (ICLEI, 1997, para. II). LA21 promotes democratization and the development of innovative methods for working with multiple sectors, underlying processes of consensus building and mutual decision making (Freeman et al., 1996). LA21s are a key tool for the implementation of sustainability policies at the local level, bounded by geographic limits under the responsibility of local authorities (Barrutia et al., 2007). However, since local authorities do not always have the necessary resources to implement LA21s, collaborative approaches become relevant to promote local common interests among stakeholders, as an adequate context for the implementation of local sustainability agendas (Barrutia et al., 2007). Moreover, since sustainability challenges such as biodiversity loss, water scarcity or gender inequality are too large and complex to be addressed by local authorities or any single organization alone (Bryson et al., 2006), it is essential to engage a variety of stakeholders in partnerships with the purpose of achieving sustainability goals (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014). However, one of the limitations of the LA21 approach is that some sustainability challenges such as watersheds or climate change are part of socio-ecological systems that go beyond the jurisdictions of cities and their authorities (Clarke, Ordonez-Ponce, et al., 2018).

Over the years, thousands of cities across the world have embraced local sustainability (Rok & Kuhn, 2012) with varied sustainability visions. For example Auckland aims to be the world's most liveable city (Auckland Council, 2012), Barcelona wants to be a more equitable, prosperous, and self-sufficient city (Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, 2012), Bristol works to be a low-carbon city with a high quality of life (BGCP CIC, n.d.), Singapore aims to be a liveable and sustainable city with a good quality of life for its citizens (Ministry of the Environment and Water Resources & Ministry of National Development, 2014), and Montreal's sustainability vision is being a low carbon, equitable, and exemplary city (Ville de Montréal, 2016).

Most probably these sustainability partnerships are not all successful in reaching their goals. However, whether successful or not, the engagement of organizations from across sectors is a fact that must be better understood so the design and implementation of sustainability partnerships can be improved, increasing the chances of reaching their goals. After all, partner organizations are probably the only ones capable of contributing through their practices, to the sustainable development of their communities.

2.3.2.2 Local Sustainability Partnerships

Partnerships have been identified as a key to addressing sustainability challenges (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014), and in particular community sustainable development (Clarke & Ordonez-Ponce, 2017). Moreover, considering the large number of local sustainability initiatives existing in the world (Rok & Kuhn, 2012), their aggregation contributes to the achievement of global sustainability (Griggs et al., 2013).

Research shows that there are several issues of concern being addressed through CSSPs implementing local sustainability plans, in all of which organizations have a role to play. These

topics include unemployment, and economic development (MacDonald, Clarke, Huang, Roseland, & Seitanidi, 2018), education, health care, poverty alleviation/financial security, and environmental issues (Selsky & Parker, 2005) such as water, air, and ecological diversity (MacDonald et al., 2018), climate change, corruption, and organized crime (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014), safety, and sustainability challenges such as energy, waste, transportation, land use, food security and social infrastructure (MacDonald et al., 2018).

2.3.3 The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

The latest comprehensive approach to defining sustainable development at a global level are the SDGs. Once the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) plan was due in 2015, having reduced hunger and extreme poverty by half (Sachs, 2012), the UN and 195 countries launched in September 2015 the SDGs. The SDGs are a new set of 17 global goals to end poverty, protect the planet and ensure peace and prosperity for all by 2030 (United Nations Development Programme, 2018). The SDGs are indivisible and integrated, balancing the social, environmental, and economic dimensions of sustainable development (United Nations, 2015) in permanent interaction with each other according to specific contexts (Capon et al., 2017). The SDGs are presented in Figure 2.

(United Nations Development Programme, 2018)

Figure 2: The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals

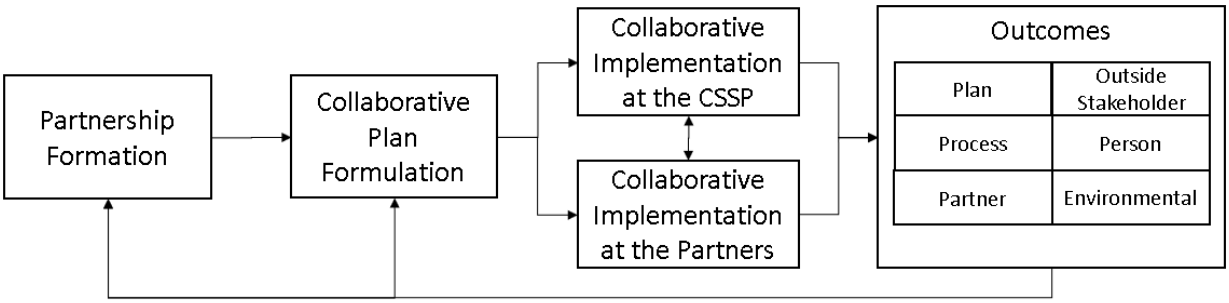
The SDGs are possibly the most universal and broad agreement achieved between governments on socio-ecological challenges (George et al., 2016), proposing a common vision of progress for a safe, just and sustainable future for humanity (Osborn, Cutter, & Ullah, 2015). The SDGs are global with respect to their impacts and to those responsible for their achievement (Osborn et al., 2015), including governments, organizations from the civil society, and businesses (Sachs, 2012).

Businesses have been identified as particularly relevant for the achievement of the SDGs (McGraw III, Danilovich, Ma, Wilson, & Bharti Mittal, 2015), with influential scholars such as Jeffrey Sachs (2012) arguing that without them, the SDGs will not be achieved. With this in mind, in Chapter 6 businesses are analysed independently of the other organizations partnering for local sustainability highlighting their drivers, structures, and outcomes in the context of local

sustainability partnerships, and relating as well their engagement at the local level with the SDGs, and through them to global sustainability.

From the understanding of organizational strategy and CSSPs for sustainability, a collaborative strategic management process is presented for understanding where partner organizations fit in the process of partnering for community sustainability. This process is based on the work developed by Clarke and Fuller (2010).

CSSPs require a strategic process to work towards the achievement of their goals (Clarke & Fuller, 2010). As presented in Figure 3, this process involves the understanding of the environmental context the partnership aims to approach, to which it responds by forming the partnership, which includes the identification of partners and the needed resources. Then, a collaborative plan is formulated and implemented at the partnership level, as well as at the partner-level. As mentioned earlier, this collaborative process leads to several outcomes, among which are those centred on partner organizations. Since this research studies partner organizations, it focuses on implementation at the partner-level through the understanding of their structural features, and on partner-centric outcomes. Furthermore, and expanding the model proposed by Clarke and Fuller (2010), this research assesses drivers as a proxy for organizational goals (Brinkerhoff, 2002), which are an external variable to the model since they are not part of the collaborative process, but which lead to the engagement of organizations in the CSSPs. A modified process including organizational drivers to join CSSPs for sustainability is presented in Figure 7 (Chapter 4).



(Adapted from Clarke & Fuller, 2010)

Figure 3: Collaborative Strategic Management Process

2.4 Summary

The presented bodies of literature put together the three areas of main interest for this research and through which the proposed research questions are addressed. While collaboration and cross-sector social partnerships in particular are part of the context needed to be understood since these play a key role for organizations to address sustainability, organizations are studied from a strategic perspective based on the argument presented by many scholars with respect to how they see partnerships and sustainability. Thus, the incorporation of strategic management with a focus on organizations and strategy in this literature review. Finally, since the main focus of the partnerships, engaged organizations, and of this research is related to sustainability, literature on the topic is presented to understand what it means and what it implies.

The next section presents the methods used for answering the research questions, including research design and site selection process, as well as the developed quantitative and qualitative analyses.

Chapter 3

3. Methods

This research is part of a larger international project whose main objective is to determine the most effective way to design CSSPs to achieve sustainability goals by developing and testing models on the relationships between collaborative strategic plans, implementation structural features and plans´ and partners´ outcomes (Clarke, MacDonald, & Ordonez-Ponce, 2018).

Based on the bodies of literature, Figure 4 presents the three variables of interest argued earlier as key for the strategic engagement of organizations in CSSPs implementing community sustainability plans. Drivers and outcomes are organized according to RBV's four types of capitals (Barney, 1991, 1995) plus community capital (society-oriented drivers as proposed by Gray and Stites (2013)). Community capital includes the natural RBV proposed by Hart (1995), but Gray & Stites (2013) approach goes further Hart's firms' strategies to relate to the environment which are not only business focused, but also for firms operating at scales larger than the community level this research is focused on. Structural features are clustered according to their level of formality, as proposed by contingency theory (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

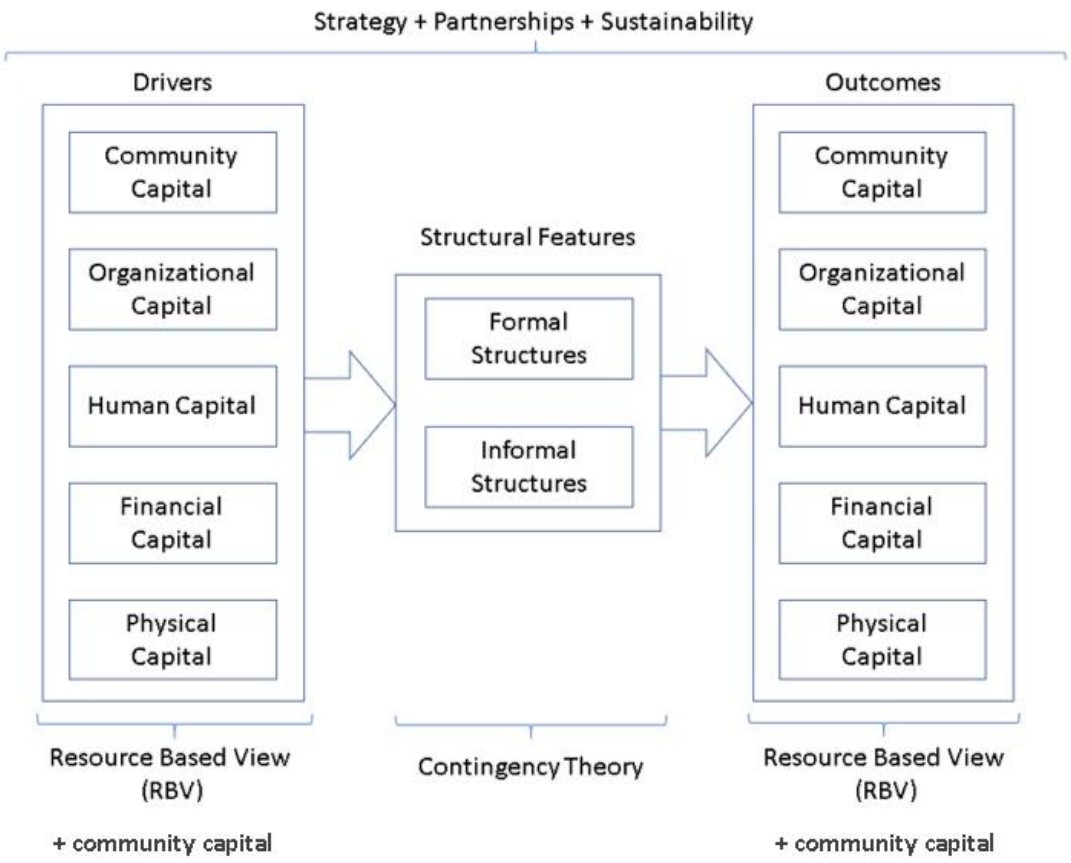


Figure 4: Theories and Variables Used in this Research

3.1 Research Design

This dissertation uses quantitative analysis to study the role of structures in the achievement of strategic goals (Manuscript 1 - Chapter 4); to understand organizational drivers, structural features, and outcomes organizations achieve when partnering for sustainability (Manuscript 2 - Chapter 5); and to assess these three variables specifically for business (Manuscript 3 - Chapter 6). Additionally, it uses qualitative content analysis for exploring the relationships between businesses' drivers and outcomes, with the SDGs (Manuscript 3 – Chapter 6).

3.1.1 Site Selection

In order to answer the proposed research questions and testing the hypotheses, the research started with the selection of community CSSPs. The selection process was as follows:

From a list of 111 international CSSPs implementing community sustainability plans, which the larger project surveyed at earlier stages, those from similar[11] developed countries[12] and who declared to the previous survey having at least one hundred partner organizations were initially selected. Then, either through their websites or contacting them directly, the following information was sought:

1. Their number of partners to confirm they have at least one hundred from across sectors;
2. Their plan time horizons since the research aims to work with those partnering for at least twenty years;
3. The size of the community impacted by the partnership because the research aims for CSSPs impacting from 1 to 2 million people;
4. The level of engagement of their partners since the research focuses on partner organizations engaged in an active manner, i.e., committed to contributing to at least some of the sustainability goals of the partnership (Waddock, 1988, 1991)[13];
5. And the partnerships' and the partners' willingness to participate in the research.

The rationale for the respective criteria are: (1) that large cross-sector partnerships are still understudied (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014), have increased in numbers (Clarke & MacDonald,

[11] Countries with very high Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme, 2016).
[12] Those most advanced according to the OECD (OECD, 2016)
[13] This criterion excluded those initiatives that relate with their partners unidirectionally through consultation processes that do not consider their engagement beyond asking for their views or opinions.

2016), and have been identified as a key for achieving sustainability (Worley & Mirvis, 2013); (2) studying long-term partnerships so the relationship between what initially drove organizations to join their partnerships and what they have gained throughout the years can be contrasted; (3) partnerships from comparable cities in terms of population since more than 40% of the cities are today, and are expected to remain, in the range from 1 to 5 million people (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2016); (4) assessing organizations actively committed to the sustainability of their cities (Waddock, 1988, 1991); and (5) organizations from whom information could be collected. Partnerships from developed countries were selected because having larger budget correlates with addressing sustainability priorities (Hawkins, Krause, Feiock, & Curley, 2016) and because 83.7% of the cities previously approached by the larger project were from developed countries, facilitating access to information and contacts who could provide support when inviting the partners. The process for selecting CSSPs finished with a formal invitation sent to every selected partnership.

This process resulted in a list of eleven partnerships. This initial group included Arlington County (USA), Barcelona (Spain), Calgary (Canada), Greater Sudbury (Canada), Incheon (South Korea), Montreal (Canada), Newcastle (Australia), Northampton, MA, Phoenix, AZ, and Portland, OR (USA), and Reykjavik (Iceland). However, as seen from Table 8, most of these partnerships did not comply with some of the requirements.

A second search for sustainability partnerships from developed countries was implemented this time through the Internet, using keywords such sustainability plans or sustainable development strategies from cities from developed countries. This analysis led to partnerships from Australia (Adelaide, Brisbane, Melbourne, and Sydney), New Zealand (Auckland, and Nelson), and

Singapore (Singapore). All were contacted via email, but they did not comply mostly with the required number of partners, active participation, or willingness to participate (Table 8).

Out of the first two searches, two partnerships were identified: Barcelona + Sustainable (Spain), and Sustainable Montreal (Canada). While identifying the other two communities to be added to the research, these first two were contacted. Information about Barcelona + Sustainable was found in the Municipality's website and staff working in the partnership was contacted via email. First, Ms. Teresa Franquesa, Director of Strategy and Culture of Sustainability at the Municipality of Barcelona's Department of Urban Ecology, and then through her, Ms. Marta Cuixart Tornos from the Division of Sustainability at the Department of Urban Ecology as the main contact from the partnership. With respect to Sustainable Montreal, Mrs. Danielle Lussier, Director of the Office of Sustainable Development, was directly contacted with support from ICLEI, since Montreal had been studied before as part of the larger project. Then, Mrs. Lussier assigned Ms. Mélina Planchenault, Planning Advisor at the Office of Sustainable Development, to be the main contact with this research. Through these contacts, it was confirmed that Barcelona and Montreal complied with the selection criteria.

Finally, a third search complementing the previous processes was developed. This time contacts were approached directly from two specific partnerships. First, Dr. Clarke, Principal Investigator (PI) leading the project this research is part of, presented the project at a conference and met Ms. Liz Zeidler, Chair of Bristol Green Capital Partnership from the City of Bristol in the United Kingdom, inviting them to be part of the research. Then, Mr. Gary Topp, Development Director at the Bristol Green Capital Partnership, was contacted by the candidate accepting the invitation to participate and confirming that the partnership complied with the selection criteria (G. Topp, personal communication, August 8, 2015). Second, while confirming with the Korean Institute

for Sustainable Development, a partner in previous stages of the larger project, whether the partnership at the City of Incheon complied with the criteria, the Institute offered the Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development as a partnership for the sustainability of the City of Gwangju since it better complies with the criterion (D. Yoon, personal communication, February 22, 2016).

Table 8: Initial List of Potential Partnerships

Stage	Community, Country	Cross-sector partners ≥ 100	1M < people < 2M	Very High HDI[14]	Active engagement	Willing to participate
1	Arlington County, VA, USA	Yes	No[15]	Yes		
	Barcelona, Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Calgary, AB, Canada	Yes	Yes	Yes		No[16]
	Greater Sudbury, ON, Canada	Yes	No[17]	Yes		
	Incheon, South Korea	Yes		Yes	No[18]	
	Montreal, QC, Canada	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Newcastle, NSW, Australia	No[19]		Yes		
	Northampton, MA, USA	Yes	No[20]	Yes		
	Phoenix, AZ, USA	Yes		Yes		No[21]
	Portland, OR, USA	Yes		Yes		No[22]
	Reykjavik, Iceland	Yes	No[23]	Yes		
2	Adelaide, SA, Australia	No[24]				
	Auckland, New Zealand		Yes	Yes		No[25]
	Brisbane, QLD, Australia			Yes	No[26]	
	Hamilton, ON, Canada				No[27]	

[14] (United Nations Development Programme, 2016)
[15] (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2016a)
[16] (C. Fuller, personal communication, May 22, 2015)
[17] (Statistics Canada, 2017a)
[18] (D. Yoon, personal communication, February 16, 2016)
[19] (A. Stewart, personal communication, February 10, 2016)
[20] (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2016b)
[21] (M. Hartman, personal communication, February 16, 2016)
[22] Never responded to the invitation
[23] (Visit Reykjavík, n.d.)
[24] (M. Hope, personal communication, March 8, 2016)
[25] (J. Mauro, personal communication, March 15, 2016)
[26] (C. Fisher, personal communication, April 12, 2016)
[27] (H. Donison, personal communication, February 2, 2016)

Stage	Community, Country	Cross-sector partners ≥ 100	1M < people < 2M	Very High HDI[14]	Active engagement	Willing to participate
	Melbourne, VIC, Australia	No[28]		Yes		
	Nelson, New Zealand	No[29]				
	Singapore, Singapore			Yes		No[22]
	Sydney, NSW, Australia			Yes		No[22]
3	Bristol, UK	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	Gwangju, South Korea	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

However, two conditions had to be relaxed to be able to have four partnerships: the minimum requirement of at least one hundred partners was modified to approximately one hundred partners, since Gwangju has ninety-nine partners, and the 20-year plan horizon was reduced to 15 years in order to include Montreal. Table 9 shows the final partnerships selected and their variables according to the presented criterion. Similarly, Table 10 shows the number of partner organizations per partnership from the respective sectors.

[28] (State of Victoria, 2003)
[29] (D. Evans, personal communication, February 18, 2016)

Table 9: Participating Partnerships based on the Selection Criterion

CSSP[30]	Total partners	Active partners[31]	Working since	Time projection	Population[32] (millions)	HDI[33]
Barcelona + Sustainable	421[34]	328	2002	2022	1.6[35]	0.88
Bristol Green Capital Partnership	749	291	2003	2020	1.1[36]	0.91
Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development	99	99	1995	2021	1.5[37]	0.90
Sustainable Montreal	142	142	2005	2020	1.6[38]	0.91
Total Partners	1411	860				

Table 10: Total and Active Partners Organized per Sector

Total/Active partners	Barcelona + Sustainable	Bristol Green Capital Partnership	Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development	Sustainable Montreal	Total Partners
Private sector	211/156	443/146	20/20	45/45	719/367
Public sector	20/13	36/17	32/32	20/20	108/82
Civil society	190/159	270/128	47/47	77/77	584/411

These four partnerships do not only comply with the proposed criteria to include them in this research, but also are four international partnerships which have been recognised for their work towards achieving their sustainability goals, which highlights them as good examples to consider in terms of community sustainability (European Commission, 2016; European Union External Action, 2017; ICLEI - Local Governments for Sustainability, 2018; La Vanguardia, 2015).

[30] Names translated into English
[31] Organizations committed to contribute to at least some of the sustainability goals of the partnership (Waddock, 1988, 1991)
[32] Population does not necessarily refer to the population of the city, but that of the partnerships' geographic impact area
[33] Human Development Index at country level (United Nations Development Programme, 2016)
[34] Not including schools
[35] (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2016)
[36] (West of England Local Enterprise Partnership, 2014)
[37] (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2016)
[38] (Statistics Canada, 2017b)

3.1.1.1 The Selected Cross-Sector Partnerships

Barcelona + Sustainable (B+S)

Barcelona has worked on sustainability issues for many years. In 1995, the City of Barcelona took its first step towards sustainable development by becoming a signatory of the Aalborg Charter (Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, 2012), committing to the implementation of LA21 and developing long-term programs for the sustainable development of the city (Hernández, 2003). In 1998 and after long periods of discussion and consultation to define Barcelona's own LA21 (Secretaría Barcelona + Sostenible, n.d.), a Promotional Forum was created in the form of The Municipal Council for the Environment and Sustainability inviting citizens and organizations to contribute to the process of drafting Barcelona's Agenda 21 (Castiella & Franquesa, n.d.). The Council was a participatory and consultative body with functions to "formulate proposals, build consensus and take responsibility for results" (Castiella & Franquesa, n.d., p. 1). The formation of the Council deliberately included representatives from the local government, the private sector, trade unions, social and environmental NGOs, universities and private experts (Castiella & Franquesa, n.d.). Over the next two years, thirteen thematic working groups were formed for diagnosing each theme, formulating proposals for action and suggesting monitoring indicators (Castiella & Franquesa, n.d.). In 2000, findings were discussed with the community, whose results returned to the Council for further action (Castiella & Franquesa, n.d.).

In 2001, after processing the arguments and proposals, the Council formalized a document on the future direction of sustainable development for Barcelona through an agenda for the period 2002-2012, namely The People's Commitment towards Sustainability [Agenda 21 BCN] (Consejo Municipal de Medio Ambiente y Sostenibilidad, 2002). The outcomes of the 10-year commitment are various, highlighting reaching 100% of wastewater treated, important savings in

per capita water consumption, and a significant increase in solar energy use (Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, 2012). In December 2012, Barcelona + Sustainable renewed its commitment and presented the Public Commitment towards Sustainability 2012-2022 with renewed objectives and actions (Secretaría Barcelona + Sostenible, n.d.), including ten fundamental objectives based on shared responsibility and citizen participation (Consejo Municipal de Medio Ambiente y Sostenibilidad, 2002). The initiative's current objectives focus on biodiversity; public spaces and mobility; environmental quality and health; efficiency, productivity, and zero emissions; rational use of resources; good governance and social responsibility; well-being; progress and development; education and citizen action; and resilience and planetary responsibility (Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, 2012). Every objective has ten lines of action such as developing green corridors, improving water quality, reducing food waste to zero, encouraging healthy lifestyles, and eradicating poverty (Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, 2012).

The Public Commitment towards Sustainability 2012-2022 has become the roadmap for Barcelona, involving at the time of data collection more than 800 organizations[39] such as businesses, civil and professional associations, unions, foundations, universities, schools and other areas of municipal administration, working together to achieve the planned objectives (Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, 2012). Excluding schools, which are almost 400, there are more than 200 businesses, a similar number are organizations from civil society, and 20 organizations from the public sector. Not considering schools, 78% of the partners have been identified by the partnership secretariat as actively engaged (Waddock, 1988, 1991), reaching 328 active partners (M. Cuixart Tornos, personal communication, May 22, 2015).

[39] Currently, Barcelona + Sustainable has more than 1,000 partners (Cuixart Tornos & Franquesa, 2018)

Bristol Green Capital Partnership (BGCP)

The City of Bristol, located along the Avon River in the southwest of England, is the UK's greenest city and the eighth most populous (European Commission, 2016). With important investment plans for transport, energy efficiency and renewable energy, Bristol has dropped its carbon emissions consistently since 2005, despite having a growing economy, with very good air quality (European Commission, 2016). Bristol is a signatory of the Covenant of Mayors since 2009 with targets to reduce energy use by 30% and CO_2 emissions by 40% by 2020, and 80% by 2050 (from 2005 as a baseline) (European Commission, 2016). The City of Bristol has a population of over 450,000 people (Bristol City Council, 2017). However, as members of the partnership are from beyond the city limits with great influence and networks in the southwest of England, such as Low Carbon South West CIC, NIHR CLAHRC West[40], and the University of Bath, the partnership impacts a population of over one million (West of England Local Enterprise Partnership, 2014).

Bristol's journey to become a global leader in sustainability started by the beginning of the century, when organizations from across sectors got interested in ways to transform the city towards sustainability (Brownlee, n.d.). Then in 2003, through its Community Strategy, the Bristol Partnership set out a vision to become "a green capital in Europe – creating sustainable communities and improving the quality of life" (Brownlee, n.d., p. 1). In order to pursue these goals, in 2007 the Bristol Green Capital Partnership (BGCP) was formed with the commitment to make Bristol a "low-carbon city with a high quality of life" by structuring collaborations

[40] The National Institute for Health Research Collaboration for Leadership in Applied Health Research and Care West

between organizations from across all sectors to work that promise under the lead of the Bristol City Council (BGCP CIC, n.d.; Brownlee, n.d.).

The formation of the partnership began with leading organizations such as the Bristol City Council and the Environment Agency, businesses, the University of Bristol, local NGOs, and further more pledgees were following to commit to the city's goal (Brownlee, n.d.). Partners elected a steering group formed by a Chair and a Vice-chair, bringing different skills and perspectives to the partnership (Brownlee, n.d.). Complementary to the partnership's vision, the initiative took the opportunity presented by the European Commission when launching the European Green Capital Award as a way to assess its progress, benchmark, and broaden its engagement with the community's interests (Brownlee, n.d.). Over the years, several projects have been developed and funded to achieve the partnership's purpose, initiatives that were key for Bristol to become the 2015 European Green Capital (Bell et al., 2016).

In 2014, the BGCP became a Community Interest Company (CIC) formed by a small staff team and governed by a board of independent and elected directors (Brownlee, n.d.). The partnership operates around five themes: food, energy, nature, resources, and transport, and it is currently developing projects on crowdfunding; exclusion of minorities; health, skills and leadership; the SDGs; networking and collaboration; and the development of a resilient, prosperous, healthy and sustainable city (BGCP CIC, n.d.).

"Bristol Green Capital Partnership is recognised as the largest partnership of its kind in the world", partnering with around 800 organizations from all the sectors of society working towards the achievement of its goals (Brownlee, n.d., p. 1). Out of the total partners, almost 300 have been identified as actively engaged, of which 146 are businesses, 128 are from civil society, and 17 are public organizations (V. Woolley, personal communication, December 2, 2015).

Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development (GCSD)

Since 1995, local initiatives for the sustainability of South Korea have been led by civil society and local governments, and Gwangju is one of the current local councils working for sustainable development (Yoon, 2016). In 1995, the city founded the Council for Green Gwangju 21 with the purpose of making Gwangju a sustainable city led by the principles of Agenda 21; in 1996, the city signed a Declaration on the Environment; in 1997, the Declaration of an LA21 "Green Gwangju 21" was launched; and in 1998, the Council for Green Gwangju 21 was re-inaugurated (Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development, n.d.). Later in 2002, the Second Action Plan "Green Gwangju 21" was established, the third in 2007, and the fourth in 2012 (Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development, n.d.). In 2016, the name of the council was changed to Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development (GCSD) under the principles of 'governance based on public-private cooperation' and a 'democratic settlement process in the region' and in 2017 the 5th Agenda for the Implementation of the UNSDGs (2017-2021) was launched (Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development, 2017). Among the GCSD's aims is to encourage the participation of local communities and expand the scope of the initiative from environmental issues to economic, social, and cultural matters (Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development, n.d.).

The GCSD has an average annual budget of about 1 billion Korean Won (approx. CAD $1,200,000), the second largest in Korea (Yoon, 2016), and at the moment of data collection it was partnering with 99 organizations from across sectors for the sustainability of the community (D. Yoon, personal communication, March 30, 2016)[41]. The partnership's current agenda has 17 goals and 62 action plans for the period 2017-2021, focusing on clean water, air, and energy; city

[41] Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development is currently partnering with 111 organizations (Yoon, 2018)

forests; a city safe from chemicals; recycling of materials; green and social economy; urban farming; a welfare, sharing, diverse, healthy, and beautiful community; people-oriented traffic system; residential environments; and education for sustainability (Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development, 2017).

Thanks to the governance model all the partners are actively engaged (D. Yoon, personal communication, October 17, 2016), consisting of 20 businesses, 32 public sector organizations, and 47 NGOs (D. Yoon, personal communication, March 7, 2016).

Sustainable Montreal (SM)

The City of Montreal first set its commitment to sustainable development during the Montreal summit held in June 2002 (Ville de Montréal, n.d.-a), when several organizations signed the Statement of Principle of the Montreal Community on Sustainable Development, showing their determination to pursue sustainability and working together with the government (Clarke, 2012; Ville de Montréal, n.d.-a). Three committees were created the same year with different membership formation; sixteen representatives from different sectors made up the Steering Committee, which then evolved into the Liaison Committee in 2005; around fifty representatives from municipal services and boroughs composed the City-Borough Committee; and about a hundred members representing all partner organizations formed the Partners Committee, which merged with the City-Borough Committee in 2006 (Clarke, 2012). Under the leadership of the Municipality, the development of Montreal's sustainable initiatives were incorporating the shared commitment of the city and partner organizations to achieve sustainability (Ville de Montréal, n.d.-b).

In 2005, Montreal's First Strategic Plan for Sustainable Development 2005-2009 was adopted by the city's Executive Committee and implemented over a five-year period (Ville de Montréal, n.d.-a). This document plus the collaboration of more than 180 organizations from society led to the Community Sustainable Development Plan 2010-2015 (Ville de Montréal, n.d.-a). The plan was implemented through organizations from across sectors working on committees to achieve the plan's goals (Ville de Montréal, n.d.-a) on air quality and GHG emissions; residential environments; resource management practices; sustainable development practices; and biodiversity, natural environments and green spaces (Ville de Montréal, 2010).

In 2018 Montreal is working on its third Community Sustainable Development Plan for the period 2016-2020 focusing on achieving a low carbon, equitable, and exemplary city, with four priorities for intervention, and ten collective targets for implementation (Ville de Montréal, 2016). The four priorities are reducing GHG emissions and dependence on fossil fuels; adding vegetation, increasing biodiversity and ensuring the continuity of resources; ensuring access to sustainable, human-scale and healthy neighbourhoods; and making the transition towards a green, circular and responsible economy (Ville de Montréal, 2016). The plan was the result of the collaboration of 230 organizations (Ville de Montréal, 2016), and at the time of data collection it was being implemented by 142 active partners from across sectors[42], including 45 businesses, 20 public organizations, and 77 organizations from the civil society (M. Planchenault, personal communication, June 16, 2017).

[42] Sustainable Montreal is currently partnering with more than 280 organizations (Lussier, 2018)

Figure 5 shows the current focus areas of Barcelona + Sustainable, Bristol Green Capital Partnerships, Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development, and Sustainable Montreal.

Barcelona +Sustainable	Bristol Green Capital Partnership	Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development	Sustainable Montreal
O1: Biodiversity O2: Public Spaces and Mobility O3: Environmental Quality and Health O4: Efficient, Productive and Zero Emissions O5: Rational Use of Resources O6: Good Governance and Social Responsibility O7: Well-being O8: Progress and Development O9: Education and Citizen Action O10: Resilience and Planetary Responsibility	T1: Food T2: Energy T3: Nature T4: Resources T5: Transport P1: Crowdfunding P2: Green & Black Ambassadors P3: Healthy City P4: Future Skills & Leadership P5: Bristol SDG Alliance P6: Networking & Collaboration P7: Urban ID	G1: Water-recycling City G2: City Forest G3: Airy Cool City G4: Safe City from Chemicals G5: Recycling of Materials G6: Green Economy G7: Energy-conversed City G8: Urban Farming G9: Social Economy G10: Welfare Community G11: Sharing Community G12: Equal Community G13: Green Health G14: People-oriented Traffic System G15: Village Community G16: Residential Environment G17: Education for Sustainable Development	Pr1: GHG Emissions and Dependence of Fossil Fuels Pr2: Vegetation, Biodiversity & Resources Pr3: Sustainable, Human-scale and Healthy Neighbourhoods Pr4: Green, Circular & Responsible Economy

O: Objectives; T: Themes; G: Goals; Pr: Priority Areas

Figure 5: Focus Areas of the Selected Partnerships in 2018

3.1.2 Quantitative Research

The quantitative sections of this dissertation involve surveying organizations partnering in the CSSPs for the sustainability of the four identified communities. Quantitative methods have been chosen because of their ability to use small groups and make inferences about larger groups (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001), maximizing the effectiveness of results through a systematic and powerful means of analysis (Kothari, 2009). As theories provide an explanation for the relationship among variables, a quantitative approach helps test such relationships (Creswell, 2014).

3.1.2.1 Survey Design

A cross-sectional survey was designed according to the research questions proposed for this research, collecting data at one point in time (Creswell, 2014). The survey was based on a previous pilot survey used for other stages of the larger project this research is part of. Since the research is focused on organizations as units of analysis and not on people's opinions or views, this survey did not require ethics clearance, which was confirmed by the University of Waterloo Research Ethics Office (Geer, 2015).

3.1.2.1.1 Survey Questions

The survey contains four parts with a total of twelve main questions split into thirty sub-questions. Part A collects general information about partner organizations: the organization name, the position of the person responding the survey, the organization economic sector, number of employees, organization type, if it was involved in the development of the partnership's vision and objectives, how long it has been a partner for, whether its involvement is mandatory or voluntary, if it has formal requirements to comply with for being a partner, a main contact and the position and department where that person works in. Part B is about the drivers for organizations to join the partnerships asking the value they gave when joining the partnership to a list of drivers organized according to the five capitals described in the literature (Figure 4). Values were organized as a 5-point Likert scale from no value to very valuable[43]. Part B also asks whether the original drivers that caused the organization to join the partnership stayed the same or not, giving the option to value the drivers using the 5-point Likert scale if the values had changed since the organization first joined the partnership. Part C focuses on the organization

[43] 1: very valuable, 2: some value, 3: neutral, 4: little value, 5: no value

implementation structures asking whether the organization had a structure before joining the partnership, and if this condition changed due to joining the partnership. Organizations were asked to respond yes or no to a list of formal and informal structural features if they had or had not implemented them (Figure 4). Part D is about organizational outcomes and organizes them by groups of capitals just like drivers in Part B. Organizations were asked to value the outcomes according to the 5-point Likert scale from no value to very valuable. This part finishes asking whether there have been any negative outcomes, inviting the organizations to list them if there were any. The survey is included in Appendix I. In total, most of the survey questions are Likert-type scale questions, followed by multiple choice and limited-choice questions (Figure 6). Figure 7 shows the flowchart for answering the survey.

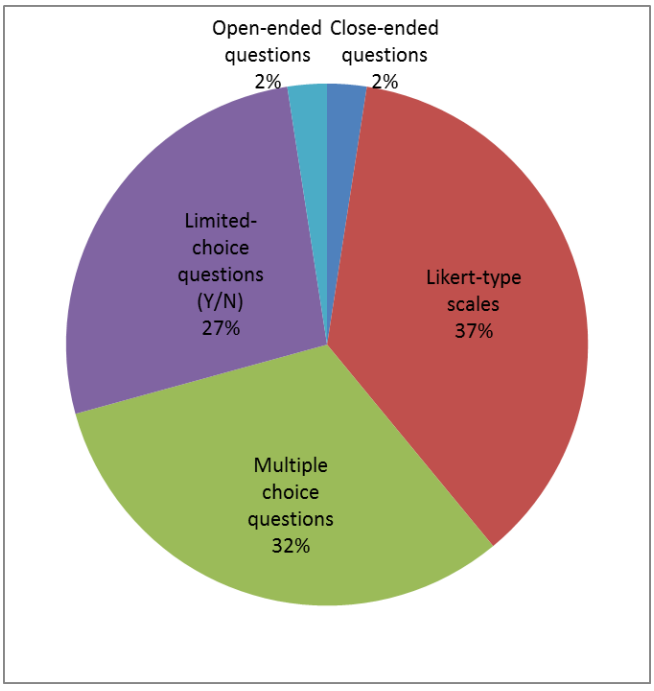


Figure 6: Type of Survey Questions

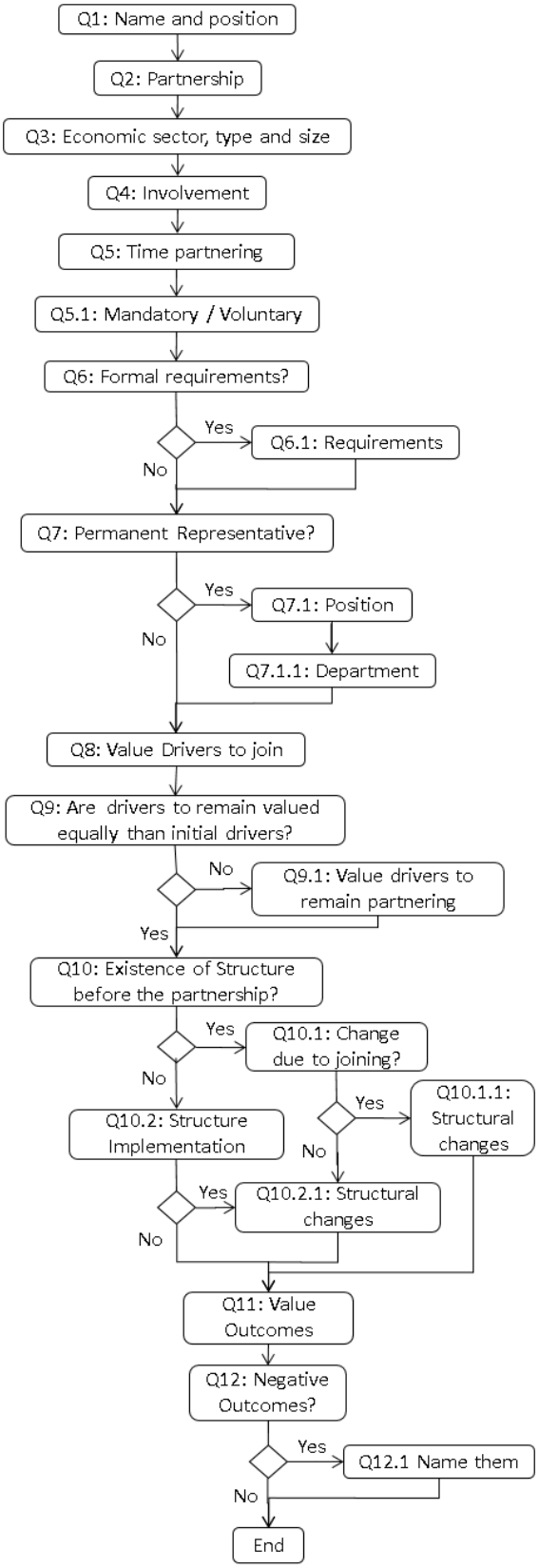


Figure 7: Survey Flowchart

3.1.2.1.2 Survey Validity

Validity is necessary to confirm how well the survey measures what it intends to measure (Bohrnstedt, 2010; de Vaus, 1990; Litwin, 1995). There are three basic ways to measure the validity of surveys: content, criterion, and construct validity (Bohrnstedt, 2010; de Vaus, 1990; Litwin, 1995).

This survey measures its content validity through an organized review of the survey´s contents. Content validity is a subjective measure of how appropriate the questions are to experts on the subject matter and how well they fit with the literature for measuring the concepts (Bohrnstedt, 2010; de Vaus, 1990; Litwin, 1995). Content validity is not measured through statistics, but it provides a good assessment of the survey based on experts' opinions (Litwin, 1995). Thus, this survey was presented to Dr. Amelia Clarke, PI of the larger project this research is part of, for her expert opinion approving the instrument, and to Dr. Adriane MacDonald, who applied another survey to similar stakeholders at a previous stage of the project, contributing with valuable input. Additionally, and considering that the survey was translated into three languages from English, the translated contents were checked by the secretariats at the respective cities, all very knowledgeable of their partnerships, community sustainability strategies, as well as their partners so that questions wordings and their local adaptations would achieve functional equivalence across communities (Smith, 2010). Once translations were accurate, the translated versions were uploaded to the survey platform and tested by the candidate and the secretariats.

Criterion and construct validity were not adequate for this research. Criterion validity is broken into two types of validity: predictive and concurrent validity (Bohrnstedt, 2010; Litwin, 1995). Predictive validity is intended for forecasting future events, while concurrent validity requires a comparison with a "gold standard" of the concepts (Bohrnstedt, 2010; de Vaus, 1990; Litwin,

1995), which does not exist for this research. Similarly, construct validity measures how well the instrument would follow theoretical constructs (Bohrnstedt, 2010; de Vaus, 1990; Litwin, 1995). Then, since literature and surveys measuring similar variables and their relationships are very limited in this field, theoretical constructs cannot be considered as reference for measuring construct validity (Litwin, 1995).

3.1.2.2 Survey Translation

A protocol of survey translation known as source-to-target language approach was used to alleviate problems of translation bias (Smith, 2010). The protocol consisted of translating the survey from Canadian English into the languages spoken in the selected communities: European Spanish, Korean, British English, and Canadian French (Ajuntament de Barcelona, 2010; Central Intelligence Agency, n.d.; Office for National Statistics, 2013; Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2015) by people knowledgeable of the project as well as the topic, using common organizational and sustainability terminology, and no idiomatic statements (Geletkanycz, 1997; Smith, 2010). For Spanish (Barcelona + Sustainable), translation was done by the candidate as a native Spanish speaker; for Korean (Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development), the Director of the Korean Institute Center for Sustainable Development (KICSD) translated the survey, who had worked on earlier stages of the larger project; and for French (Sustainable Montreal), a bilingual translator who had also been involved in earlier translations for the project was hired. All translations were then sent to the local secretariats to verify accuracy and assure the translated questions represented the original purpose and spirit of the English version. In the case of Bristol, the original version of the survey was sent so terminology and questions were double checked by the Bristol Green Capital Partnership to

assure organizations would understand exactly what the survey was asking, adapting some of the words to the local context. Similarly, since Chilean Spanish was used to translate the version for Barcelona, some of the words were modified and adapted by the secretariat at the Municipality of Barcelona to assure accuracy with European Spanish. The involvement of the respective secretariats is key not only for translations to be as accurate as possible to local concepts, cultural and organizational structures, and the local indicators related to the surveyed variables of interest (Smith, 2010) but also as sponsors influencing response rates positively (Fan & Yan, 2010).

3.1.2.2 Data Collection

3.1.2.2.1 Population and Sampling

The population for each community is the total number of active partners, all identifiable as they are current partners of the respective partnerships. Normal distribution of the population can be considered as it describes a large number of chance distributions in a useful manner (Loether & McTavish, 1980), it is the most used distribution with many uses in descriptive and inferential statistics (Lomax, 2007) and it has been applied in social sciences many times (Kedar, 2004). Furthermore, through the Central Limit Theorem[44], researchers assert that thirty is the minimum sample size of a sampling distribution of the mean to approach a normal distribution, even if the population distribution is not normal (Devore & Peck, 1997; Spatz & Johnston, 1989).

The following formula is considered for determining the sample size for finite large populations:

[44] The sampling distribution of the mean of any population will approach a normal distribution as the sample size (N) gets larger ($N \geq 30$), with a mean equal to μ and a standard deviation equal to $\sigma/\sqrt{N}$ (Devore & Peck, 1997; Spatz & Johnston, 1989)

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 \times p \times (1-p)}{e^2} \qquad [Eq.\,1]$$

where Z is determined according to the level of confidence assuming a normal distribution, *p* is the percentage of the sample that will respond in a given way, expressed in decimals, and *e* is the confidence interval for the margin of error to tolerate, expressed in decimals (Cochran, 1977).

The total targeted population for all organizations in all four sites was 860. Then, considering *Z* = 1.96 for 95% confidence internal, *p* = .8 representing homogeneity in the population (Israel, 1992), and *e* = 5% as acceptable error, n_0 = 246. However, since n_0 is greater than 5% of the population[45] (Bartlett et al., 2001), Cochran's corrected formula presented as Eq. 2 is considered to determine the final sample size n_1 = 191, equal to 22.3% of the total number of active organizations.

$$n_1 = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}} \qquad [Eq.\,2]$$

where n_1 is the corrected sample size and *N* is the total population size (Cochran, 1977).

Sample Size for Social Research

Researchers assert that surveys developed in non-traditional contexts, understood as those not involving medium to large organizations from established sectors located in developed countries,

[45] n_0 = 246 > 5% of 860 = 43

have low response rates (Kriauciunas, Parmigiani, & Rivera-Santos, 2011). While some surveys have reached response rates of 10% (Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Fan & Yan, 2010; Schulze, Lubatkin, Dino, & Buchholtz, 2001), or figures within the range of 10-12% response rate for research on managers (Geletkanycz, 1997; Schulze et al., 2001), others have reached levels of 35% on average (Baruch, 1999; Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Kriauciunas et al., 2011). Due to the variety and the size of partner organizations from across sectors, this research can be considered from non-traditional contexts (Kriauciunas et al., 2011).

3.1.2.2.2 Data Collection

This research is developed under the scope of CSSPs for the sustainability of communities, the units of analysis are the partnering organizations, and the targeted population to respond the survey are representatives from the organizations to the partnerships, including managers, CEOs and board members. Research argues that among professionals, employees and managers have been found to be more willing to respond surveys than top managers (Fan & Yan, 2010).

The surveying process for collecting data involved two methods with the aim of reaching adequate sample sizes reducing non-response error (Dillman et al., 2009). First, an invitation was sent by the secretariats to all the active partner organizations of each partnership inviting them to respond the survey online (Appendix II). Then, based on the number of responses and if needed for reaching the requested response rate, a second group of partners were invited in the respective cities to increase the numbers.

Overall, 83% of the responses were online, all voluntarily selected since they were not specifically targeted (Smith, 2010). Online surveys are justified considering the very high

Internet access at the selected countries[46], with the potential of obtaining a probability sample of the full population while allowing generalizations (Couper, 2000). The software used for surveying was FluidSurveys for the first three partnerships, while the fourth was surveyed using the same survey through SurveyMonkey, company which acquired FluidSurveys during the surveying process.

The remaining 17% of the surveys were collected face to face in three of the four communities since Gwangju did not need an onsite process due to its high online response rate (Table 11). The surveyor was the candidate in Barcelona and Bristol, having the assistance of a research graduate in a second round in Bristol. The graduate researcher had been part of the project in earlier stages and was trained to follow the same procedure while surveying with the purpose of reducing any potential influence on respondents (Smith, 2010). Similarly, in Montreal the onsite data collection process was developed by a professional from ICLEI Canada, organization that is a partner in the larger project and in this research in particular with respect to Montreal. The surveyor from ICLEI was also properly trained.

The data collection process was developed via the following procedure:

1. A link to the survey was emailed through the respective secretariats to all the active partners. Adequate procedure for follow-up was considered (Creswell, 2014; Fox, Crask, & Kim, 1988);
2. The first round of total responses was compared with the required sample size with the aim of achieving response rates greater or equal on average to 22.3%, according to the result obtained through Cochran's corrected formula (Eq. 2);

[46] Canada: 90%, South Korea: 93%, Spain: 81%, UK: 95% (The World Bank Group, 2018a)

3. Whenever the sample size was not as required, the survey was further implemented onsite, for which direct meetings with representatives from partner organizations were arranged with the aid of the partnerships secretariats.

3.1.2.3 Data Analysis

3.1.2.3.1 Response Rate

In quantitative research, high response rates are required to allow the findings to be generalizable (Creswell, 2014; Devore & Peck, 1997). Response rate has been defined as the proportion of those who respond out of those who could have responded (Dixon & Tucker, 2010; Fowler, 2002). The response rate with respect to the sample is calculated according to the following formula:

$$RR = \frac{(S + P)}{(S + P + R + NC)} \qquad [Eq. 3]$$

where *S* are completed surveys, *P* are partially completed but useful[47] surveys, *R* are refusals and *NC* are non-contacts (Dixon & Tucker, 2010). However, since this research is focused on partner organizations that are actively engaged in their respective partnerships, those uncontactable (*NC*) are not considered (Dillman et al., 2009), being classified as inactive by the respective secretariats. Response rate has also been referred to as the minimum number of returned surveys divided by the total number of surveys sent out (Fan & Yan, 2010; Shih & Fan, 2009). Table 11 shows the response rate (26%) based on the total number of surveys responded, including the

[47] Not completed but providing a quantity and quality of information useful to consider them as valid

periods of time when data was collected per collection method. Table 12 complements Table 11 showing the number of responses per type of organization.

Table 11: Response Rate per Partnership

CSSP	Active partners (% of total)	Number of responses (% of total)	Online (% of responses) (period)	Onsite (% of responses) (period)	Response Rate
Barcelona + Sustainable	328 (38%)	85 (38%)	73 (86%) (Jun-Oct 2015)	12 (14%) (Oct 2015)	26%
Bristol Green Capital Partnership	291 (34%)	38 (17%)	17 (45%) (Mar-Dec 2016)	21 (55%) (May-Dec 2016)	13%
Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development	99 (12%)	53 (24%)	53 (100%) (Apr-Jun 2016)	0 (0%)	54%
Sustainable Montreal	142 (17%)	48 (21%)	44 (92%) (Feb-Jun 2017)	4 (8%) (Jun 2017)	34%
Total	860	224	187 (83%)	37 (17%)	26%

Table 12: Number of Responses per Type of Organization

Sector	Active partners (% of total)	Responses (% of total)
Private	367 (43%)	71 (32%)
Public	82 (9%)	38 (17%)
Civil	411 (48%)	115 (51%)
	860	224

Since this research is developed in non-traditional contexts involving organizations from varied sectors and sizes, the achieved response rate (26%) is comparable with those from other social research, as earlier explained. The final response rate is 17% higher than the minimum required (22.3%) for findings to be generalizable.

3.1.2.3.2 Response Bias

One of the issues which investigators are most concerned with when conducting inferential research is whether there are biases with the respondents (Lankford, Buxton, Hetzler, & Little, 1995), i.e., whether non-respondents would have modified the final findings (Fowler, 2002), resulting to fail in accurately reflecting the sampled population (Lewis, Hardy, & Snaith, 2013). Researchers assert that even though a high response rate is important, demonstrating lack of response bias is even more important than a high response rate (Fowler, 2002; Lankford et al., 1995; Lewis et al., 2013). Furthermore, research shows that in surveys focusing on socially desirable matters, such as community sustainability, misreporting could happen (Krosnick & Presser, 2010). Methods suggested by scholars to reduce social desirability response bias are eliminating the interviewer, offering anonymity (Krosnick & Presser, 2010), self-administration or a private interview setting (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007), all methods used in this research.

Response bias was calculated using wave analysis. Wave analysis is a widely used and low-cost method that requires limited amounts of data for determining response bias (Atif, Richards, & Bilgin, 2012; Lewis et al., 2013). The analysis compared responses from the 15% of organizations who responded first (early respondents) with the 15% who responded last (late respondents) on key questions on drivers, structures, and outcomes (Lewis et al., 2013). Wave analysis uses late respondents as proxy for non-respondents (Lahaut et al., 2003; Lewis et al., 2013). Means of responses were used on an independent *t*-test (Lankford et al., 1995). As seen from Appendix III, variances can be assumed to be equal between groups with $p > .05$ (Levene's test). Then, since all p-values from the *t*-tests are greater than 5% ($p > .05$), there is support for the hypothesis that the mean scores between the groups are not significantly different, i.e., there is no response bias between groups, with a significance level set at .05.

Wave analysis was also used to determine the existence of response bias among partnerships with respect to drivers, structures, and outcomes. This is a way to test whether these partnerships from different cities can be clustered together since the purpose of this research is to study all organizations and generalize findings based on them. From the total number of respondent organizations, 15% of them were randomly taken from each CSSP and compared in pairs (Lewis et al., 2013). As seen from Appendix IV, variances can be assumed to be equal (Levene's test) among every pair of partnerships ($p \geq .05$). Then, when testing for equality of means, it was confirmed that there are no significant differences among the partnerships ($p \geq .04$), with a significance level set at .01. A similar analysis was used to test for response bias among types of organizations since the responses are not homogeneously distributed as seen from Table 11. Results show no statistical significant differences among respondents from the three sectors on drivers, structures, and outcomes ($p > .05$) (Appendix V).

Despite no biases found through statistical tests, there is a potential bias from the assistance of the Bristol Green Capital Partnership's secretariat while inviting some of its partners to respond the survey face to face. Onsite collection in Bristol included twenty-one responses, representing 9% of the overall total responses, out of which fourteen organizations were collected by meeting representatives from partner organizations at workshops and a mingle the candidate attended while in Bristol, plus others who wanted to respond online but could not do it, so they met either the candidate or the graduate researcher who assisted the project. The other seven responses from Bristol were actually selected by the secretariat, representing 3% of the total responses to the survey (7/224). This is not an issue in Gwangju, where no onsite collection was required, nor in Barcelona or Montreal, were invitations to respond the survey onsite were sent to all the active partners who did not respond the survey online, participating voluntarily in the process.

A second potential bias can come from surveying the partners of Barcelona in Spanish and not in Catalan, assuming that some rejected their participation or could not participate because of the language. This potential issue was discussed with the secretariat who argued that Spanish was more appropiate since some of the partners do not read Catalan. In fact, official figures published by the Government of Catalonia show that Catalan is the first language of 31% of the population in Catalonia[48], while 55% consider Spanish to be their first language (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2014).

Other potential sources of bias are those uncontrollable and part of the nature of the partnerships, the partners, and the research. First is the assumption that organizations partnering for sustainability and the people who responded the survey are pro-sustainability. Second, those who responded are those who wanted to participate. Third, this research only surveyed those who are still partners, not those who have already left the partnership. And fourth is the fact that this research is based on self-reporting and not on collecting independent facts or responses, but the views of the ones surveyed.

3.1.2.3.3 Reliability

In order to understand how consistent the responses to questions are across constructs, reliability was measured (Creswell, 2014). There are three common ways to assess reliability: test-retest, alternate-form, and internal consistency (Creswell, 2014; Litwin, 1995). The survey was tested for internal consistency since the other two tests need the same sample to complete the survey at two different points in time, which is not possible in this case.

[48] Catalonia is the region of which Barcelona is the capital

Internal consistency was applied to groups of questions that are thought to measure different aspects of the same concept, measuring how well different questions measure the same issue (Litwin, 1995). For measuring internal consistency the Cronbach´s α coefficient was calculated, a statistic that reflects how well the different questions complement each other in their measurement of different aspects of the same variable (Alwin, 2010; Litwin, 1995). An α level of .70 or above represents good reliability (Cronbach, 1951; Litwin, 1995). Tables 13 and 14 show that the survey is reliable through internal consistency. Cronbach´s α was calculated several times by randomly removing questions from the groups to test whether some of them would be influencing the overall result of the respective groups, finding all αs > .70, confirming internal consistency (Eq. 4).

$$\propto = \frac{k}{k-1} \times \left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Variance_i}{Variance_{test}}\right) \qquad [Eq.4]$$

where *i* represents a question and *k* is the number of items (Cronbach, 1951).

Table 13: Survey's Internal Consistency Test on Drivers and Outcomes

Cronbach´s α	Items	Drivers	Outcomes
Community capital	5	.80	.92
Human capital	4	.87	.93
Organizational capital	13	.89	.94
Financial capital	7	.91	.95
Physical capital	2	.85	.86

Table 14: Survey's Internal Consistency Test on Structural Features

Cronbach´s α	Items	Cronbach´s α
Formal structural features	8	.77
Informal structural features	6	.83

3.1.2.3.4 Statistical Analysis

The quantitative section of this research uses descriptive and inferential analysis.

Descriptive statistics are methods for organizing and summarizing data that allows a more effective way to present and understand data, representing a particular feature of a set of data such as means, medians, modes, standard deviations, variances and the range of data (Devore & Peck, 1997; Spatz & Johnston, 1989), some of which are used in the analysis of data.

While descriptive statistics are useful for describing what the data shows, inferential analysis help reach conclusions beyond the data, generalizing from a sample to the population from which the sample was selected (Devore & Peck, 1997). As it is not always possible to measure an entire population, inferential statistics work with samples, introducing errors and probabilities (Spatz & Johnston, 1989). Thus, this research uses samples collected from voluntary organizations to conclude with respect to the overall population (Devore & Peck, 1997; Spatz & Johnston, 1989). The actual analyses are detailed in the methods sections of each manuscript (Chapters 4, 5, and 6).

3.1.2.4 Limitations

One of the methodological limitations of this research are the questions asked through the survey. Surveys can always be better designed and better implemented. While the specific

resources listed under drivers and outcomes, and the features presented as structures have been mostly based on academic literature, some of them are based on industry experience, which could be interpreted as an invalid source. However, since no negative observations on the quality of the survey or the questions were received from the respondents, it can be assumed that the questions, resources, and features were considered valid by the organizations' representatives.

The sampled population is mostly formed by organizations from civil society (51%; Table 12), reflecting well the percentage of active partners from this group, but conclusions from this research can be biased towards their approach. Similarly, almost four out of ten of the responses are from Barcelona + Sustainable, while the other three partnerships contributed on average with about 20% each (Table 11). It can be argued that while Bristol, which reached the lowest response rate (13%) is under-represented, Gwangju with the highest (54%) is over-represented with respect to their numbers of active partners (Table 11), which may make these conclusions less or more relevant for them, respectively. Nevertheless, despite these concerns, no response bias was found among organizations nor partnerships (Appendices IV and V).

With respect to the process of surveying. While most of the responses were online (83%), these rates vary among partnerships (Table 11). While Gwangju was completely surveyed online, and Barcelona and Montreal also reached high online rates (86% and 92%, respectively), most of the responses from Bristol were collected onsite (55%). Furthermore, although surveyors in charge of the onsite processes in Bristol and Montreal were trained to follow the same procedure the candidate followed earlier when collecting data in Barcelona and Bristol, some unwanted considerations could have influenced or altered some responses.

Similarly, the four partnerships are from different countries where different languages are spoken. Although a source-to-target language approach was used to alleviate problems of

translation bias (Smith, 2010) using the partnerships secretariats and researchers knowledgeable of the project this research is part of (Geletkanycz, 1997; Smith, 2010), some unwanted and/or unidentified biases could have taken place. Especial consideration should be given to the fact that the onsite processes collected information in different languages and by surveyors whose first languages were not English. While the onsite process in Barcelona was developed by the main researcher whose first language is Chilean Spanish, the languages spoken in Barcelona are Catalan and European Spanish; the onsite data collection in Montreal was developed by a French Canadian whose first language is French; and the onsite data collection process in Bristol was developed in two stages, the first by the candidate, and the second by a Canadian researcher, both who spoke a different English to that from Bristol. However, despite the different cultures and languages, no response bias was found among the responses from the partnerships (Appendix IV).

Another consideration is that only those who were willing to respond the survey participated, a fact that may show some bias on the responses versus those who did not want to participate. However, as mentioned, wave analysis use late respondents as proxy for those who did not want to respond (Lahaut et al., 2003; Lewis et al., 2013), not finding response bias (Appendix III). Similarly, only those partner organizations currently partnering were considered, not surveying those who left the respective partnerships before this research.

3.1.3 Qualitative Research

Qualitative methods have been applied for understanding social phenomena throughout a variety of fields including anthropology, history, education, planning, political science, and management (Marshall & Rossman, 1995; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Qualitative research helps explore and

comprehend a wide range of dimensions of social life (Creswell, 2014; Mason, 2002), including everyday activities, people experiences, the ways social processes, organizations or relationships work and relate, and what they mean (Mason, 2002). Qualitative research connects its findings with context as a key variable for understanding the social issues under assessment (Mason, 2002). Contrary to quantitative research, qualitative analysis makes broad questions exploring the general and complex set of factors about a central phenomenon, with the purpose of presenting the broad and varied perspectives of organizations (Creswell, 2014). However, despite the advantages, strengths, and potential of qualitative research (Mason, 2002), it is also labour-intensive, and there is always the possibility of bias from the researcher, which is also the case in quantitative research, especially with respect to the credibility and quality of conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Qualitative data can be collected through three different ways: interviews, observations, written or audio-visual materials (Creswell, 2014; Patton, 2002). Interviews include open-ended questions about people's experiences, perceptions, opinions, feelings, or knowledge; observations are descriptions of activities, behaviours, actions, conversations, interactions, or processes; while written or audio-visual materials consist of organizational reports, guidelines, declarations, records, correspondence, publications (Patton, 2002), photographs, videos, art objects, computer messages or sounds (Creswell, 2014). Qualitative data comes usually in the form of words, a source of descriptions or explanations of processes and phenomena from clearly identifiable contexts, which creates convincing arguments (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

3.1.3.1 Qualitative Content Analysis

Manuscript 3 (Chapter 6) uses qualitative content analysis for answering the research question: What is the relationship between businesses partnering for local sustainability and the SDGs?

Qualitative content analysis is widely used for interpreting information presented in writing, verbal or visual formats (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Patton, 2002), through a systematic process that includes coding and categorization of data for finding patterns according to concepts or themes (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Schilling, 2006). Among the advantages of content analysis, researchers have highlighted its replicable methodology and the capacity to be applied to understand a broad range of organizational problems such as corporate social responsibility and other management issues (Duriau, Reger, & Pfarrer, 2007). Additionally, content analysis allows for text to be captured and exposed as numbers, and for interpreting important content and deep meanings embodied in the text, rationale for answering the research question (Duriau et al., 2007).

Contrary to quantitative research, qualitative content analysis does not aim to quantify data to validate theoretical models or hypotheses previously defined (Boiral & Heras-Saizarbitoria, 2017). Instead, content analysis intends to contribute with new ideas, concepts or theories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) through the emergence of themes, patterns, understandings, and insights results from the categorization and reduction process (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Patton, 2002).

3.1.3.1.1 Data Collection

To answer the research question, first quantitative and then qualitative analyses were followed:

1. From the survey applied to all organizations, the responses from businesses were separated to address the question;
2. Quantitative analyses of the data collected from 71 businesses led to the identification of the most valuable drivers and outcomes to assess them with respect to the SDGs, and of structural features;
3. Then, to explore the relationships between drivers with the SDGs, the document with the SDGs' descriptions and their targets was analysed looking for connections between the targets of the SDGs and businesses drivers. As an example, businesses are driven to join community sustainability partnerships by improving their reputation, a business goal that can be achieved by cooperating to ensure the mobilization of resources for reducing poverty, one of the targets of SDG#1 - No Poverty;
4. A structured categorization matrix (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008) was built with the SDGs as columns and drivers as rows. Whenever it was found that a driver could be achieved by addressing a specific SDG, a mark was set at the respective intersection of drivers and SDGs (Yin, 2014);
5. Then data reduction was developed to determine patterns according to the five capitals considered from the literature: community, human, organizational, financial, and physical;
6. Similarly, to understand the relationship between business outcomes and the SDGs, the document with the SDGs and their targets was analysed looking at outcomes as contributors to the achievement of the SDGs;
7. A third structured categorization matrix was created with the SDGs as columns and the outcomes listed as rows;

8. Intersections were established crossing outcomes that would contribute to the SDGs. An example is the outcome contributing positively to environmental challenges, which impacts those SDGs with an environmental focus such as SDG#6 - Clean Water and Sanitation, SDG#7 - Affordable and Clean Energy, SDG#9 - Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure, SDG#11 - Sustainable Cities and Communities, SDG#12 - Responsible Consumption and Production, SDG#13 - Climate Action, SDG#14 - Life below Water, and SDG#15 - Life on Land;
9. Results were reduced according to the five capitals.

This process was developed twice including a second coder who followed the described procedure. The results reached by the second coder were compared with those from the analysis developed by the candidate. While most of the results were similar (77% of the found intersections with respect to drivers, and 76% on outcomes), differences were discussed between both researchers and agreements were reached with respect to final results.

3.1.3.2 Limitations

In qualitative content analysis, there is always room for bias from the researcher (Miles & Huberman, 1994) because it is about interpreting information embodied in the text (Duriau et al., 2007; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Patton, 2002). Then, findings will always be subject to the researcher, despite the strength of the methodology.

A limitation is the interpretation of content and meaning embodied in the texts. Although a protocol was followed that implied explaining the procedure followed by the main researcher to

the second coder, different interpretations may have occurred while understanding the SDGs, and business drivers and outcomes. Similarly, some terms used across the SDGs, the drivers and outcomes such as well-being, green, development, quality, contributing positively, or challenges are all subjective in terms of what they mean. Thus, misinterpretations may have occurred in this process of understanding.

Another limitation is with respect to the coding process. The process was designed by the candidate and explained verbally and in writing to the second coder. While the candidate was careful not to influence the second coder with his interpretations, this could have happened. Furthermore, the second coder could have understood differently some of the instructions based on her knowledge, or because the main researcher did not explain them appropriately.

Finally, while most of the results from the analyses developed by the candidate and the second coder coincided (77% for drivers and 76% for outcomes), they discussed differences and agreed on final results. This process of agreeing on the differences may have been involuntarily led by one of them influencing the other, either because the first had more information, was more convincing, or any other reason that could have biased the results.

Chapter 4

4. Strategy and Partnerships: The Role of Structures (Paper 1)[49]

4.1 Introduction

There is a long history of organizations partnering across sectors, but the strategic connection of such engagement has not been deeply studied. Several researchers have claimed that organizations partner for strategic reasons (e.g. Gray, 1989; Lin & Darnall, 2015; Selsky & Parker, 2005), and that sustainability is a strategic opportunity (e.g. Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; Fiksel et al., 2014; Wassmer et al., 2017). However, the relevance of having structures for the achievement of goals, as proposed by the strategy literature (Andrews, 1980; Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012), has not been addressed as a condition for partner engagement to be strategic. To fill in this gap, a deeper analysis of strategic partnering is necessary which would enhance the literature and contribute to a more thorough understanding of organizations joining partnerships from a strategic perspective. Since partnerships are considered strategic, and sustainability is a strategic opportunity for organizations, cross-sector social partnerships for implementing community sustainability plans have been selected as context for analysis. The focus of this research is on organizations from across sectors who are partnering for community sustainability, with the aim of understanding their strategic engagement in sustainability partnerships. This paper aims to contribute to that understanding through a quantitative analysis that studies the importance of organizational-level structures as key components of

[49] Under review at the Academy of Management Journal

organizational strategy for the achievement of organizational-level strategic goals in the context of implementing collaborative strategies and engagement in cross-sector partnerships.

The current research aims to answer three main questions: (1) Do organizations implement structures when partnering? (2) Are structures key to the achievement of strategic goals? And (3) do highly structured organizations achieve highly valuable outcomes? The first question attempts to provide some insight into the implementation of structures as a result of organizations joining partnerships as a proxy for partnering to be strategic; the second looks at the effect structures have between what drives organizations to join partnerships (strategic goals (Brinkerhoff, 2002)), and what they gain from partnering (outcomes); and the last question assesses whether highly structured organizations, i.e., those implementing many structural features, lead to outcomes that organizations value highly. Strategy is understood to be guidelines, consistent behaviours, and a pattern of objectives, policies and plans in decision-making (Andrews, 1980; Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012) to achieve determined goals and objectives through adequate structures, including resources and actions (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978), in interaction with the environment[50] (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Scott, 2003). Then, goals, structures, outcomes, and the environment can be considered key components of strategy.

This paper is structured as follows. First, a theoretical background is presented that focuses on partnerships in general and cross-sector social partnerships in particular, as well as strategic management and structures, integrating both areas in order to present the literature and theoretical background in which the research questions are based. Then, research methods are

[50] Throughout this paper, environment does not refer only to the natural environment, but to the context organization are part of.

presented, highlighting the selection of sites, the survey tool, sampling, and data collection. This is followed by the presentation of results including statistical tests, leading to the discussion, conclusions, and contributions of this paper.

4.2 Theoretical Background

4.2.1 Strategic Engagement in Partnerships

Many researchers from various fields, such as sociology, organizational management, business and society, collaboration, sustainability, and environmental policy, have suggested that partnering is a strategic decision (e.g. Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray, 1989; Lin & Darnall, 2015; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Vurro et al., 2010; Waddock, 1989; Wassmer et al., 2014). Some assert that organizations engage in partnerships when they need resources such as skills or financial capital, or more abstract forms of capitals such as legitimacy or market power (e.g. Ansell & Gash, 2008; Lotia & Hardy, 2008). Others have argued that organizations partner to improve their strategic positions (e.g. DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Selsky & Parker, 2005), when they are well-positioned in attracting others for resources (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996), or to respond strategically to institutional pressures from the regulatory system, industry norms, and community constituents (Lin & Darnall, 2015) by adopting rules and norms that would determine their survival in the respective environment (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Similarly, organizations partner for strategic dependencies on resources or power, in order to control and cope with environmental uncertainty caused by competition, growing demands by stakeholders, globalization, and technological, social and ecological changes (Gray, 1989; Lotia & Hardy, 2008; Waddock, 1991).

Others argue that organizations join partnerships to acquire strategic expertise and resources, which would provide them with competitive advantage for addressing demands from stakeholders (Vurro et al., 2010). Organizations also partner when they face problems they are unable to solve alone, when their methods are not good enough, during crises or conditions of scarcity (Gray, 1985; Levine & White, 1961), to address opportunities and neutralize environmental threats (Wassmer et al., 2014), or to address sustainability challenges (Vurro et al., 2010). Partnering has become part of a strategy to cope with unstable conditions due to the collective capacity of partnerships to address and reduce unexpected consequences from turbulent environments (Gray, 1989).

Organizations also partner because partnerships offer opportunities. Joining others around common issues of concern prevents the escalation of problems, as well as opening up opportunities as stakeholders recognize the advantages of achieving something that could not be reached independently (Glasbergen, 2007; Huxham, 1993). Waddock (1988) argues that organizations join partnerships because they see potential to solve social problems affecting them, while expecting to gain more by partnering than being alone, and thus providing a greater chance for success. Correspondingly, organizations partner to obtain tangible and specific benefits beyond reputation or development of goodwill (Waddock, 1989), while some argue that organizations partner only if it is impossible to get "what they want" when working independently (Bryson et al., 2006, p. 45). In particular, businesses are motivated because they see an opportunity to be socially responsible (Selsky & Parker, 2005), improve their reputation, and reduce their environmental footprint (Gray & Stites, 2013). NGOs want to improve their efficiency and accountability (Selsky & Parker, 2005) and take up roles that the public sector

may not be able to fulfill (Gray & Stites, 2013), whereas governments aim to provide more benefits and services while improving transparency (Selsky & Parker, 2005).

In summary, researchers assert that organizations partner to gain tangible and intangible resources that allow them to address issues they need to advance but which they cannot address alone. They maintain that partnering helps organizations respond and cope with diverse pressures and gain skills to advance their positions, all benefits that improve their strategic state.

4.2.1.1 Partnerships

Partnerships are a form of collaboration, although most authors do not make a clear distinction between collaboration and partnerships (Gray & Stites, 2013). Partnerships are a coordinating configuration of actors from two or more sectors of society (public, private and civil society), working collaboratively for the achievement of a common goal (Glasbergen, 2007; Waddock, 1988). They do not rely on market or hierarchical mechanisms for managing relations among participating organizations, depending instead on ongoing negotiations among stakeholders (Lotia & Hardy, 2008). They are non-hierarchical and voluntary (Glasbergen, 2007), although some can be mandatory (Selsky & Parker, 2005), involving the commitment of resources from partners (Gray & Stites, 2013; Waddock, 1988).

There are three main types of partnerships: Those led by governments where public administrators collaborate with businesses and civil society; those led by private stakeholders where public-private arrangements are more balanced; and those between businesses and NGOs which may be more efficient and effective than public policy (Glasbergen, 2007). These partnerships vary in their number of partners, geographic scope, time frame, functions, and access to funding (Glasbergen, 2007).

As an alternative to “state-centric” initiatives, which assume that governments lead processes for addressing common issues of society, partnerships represent a “pluralistic approach”, involving actors who would contribute with their own strengths for addressing societal needs (Glasbergen, 2007, p. 1). Partnerships have emerged as a new form of collaborative arrangement for a variety of suggested reasons including some governments becoming smaller or public administrators losing credibility, corporations expanding and taking political positions, getting involved not only in economic matters but also in social and environmental affairs, and a civil society that is getting more professionalized with great social capital (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Glasbergen, 2007). The advantage of combining the three sectors of society in partnerships has been emphasized by researchers, as NGOs would contribute with their moral and passionate approach, businesses with their market efficiency, and the public sector with their authority and state view (Glasbergen, 2007).

4.2.1.1.1 Cross-Sector Social Partnerships

As society has become more complex, facing increasing turbulence, and with more powerful organizations, partnerships focusing on social issues have proliferated through the years (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013), recognising those with many partners from across sectors as a way to address sustainability challenges (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005).

Nowadays there are more than 10,000 local governments around the world leading local partnerships that are engaging their communities and stakeholders in sustainable development initiatives (Rok & Kuhn, 2012). In Canada, there are more than 1,200 sustainability plans, with over 10% of these including active partnerships overseeing and enacting plan implementation

(University of Alberta, 2018). Some researchers have named these multi-stakeholder partnerships (Pinkse & Kolk, 2012); others refer to cross-sector collaborations (Bryson et al., 2006); social alliances (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014), cross-sector social partnerships (Clarke, 2011; Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005), or multi-stakeholder cross-sector partnerships (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). The term used in this paper is cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs), with a specific focus on large partnerships, a type that is becoming increasingly popular in addressing sustainability issues (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013) which, to date, are still under-studied (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). For purposes of this paper, 'large' refers to an approximate minimum of one hundred partner organizations.

CSSPs are specifically focused on social, economic, and ecological issues of common concern for partner organizations from two or more sectors (Selsky & Parker, 2005; Waddock, 1989). Their focus positions partnering organizations in the public domain, requiring their active involvement through the commitment of resources as well as in the planning, organizing, implementing and evaluating of activities defined as necessary for the success of the partnership (Waddock, 1988). CSSPs are focused on complex problems that organizations are not capable of solving alone (Bryson et al., 2006; Waddock, 1991), positioning them "in the midrange of how organizations work on public problems" in between organizations hardly relating to each other and those that have merged into new entities (Bryson et al., 2006, p. 44).

CSSPs are based on a collaborative strategic management process with the purpose of designing and implementing collaborative strategic plans (Huxham & Macdonald, 1992). As shown in Figure 8, this process starts with understanding the context and with forming the partnership, including the identification of partners and resources needed – CSSP Formation, which leads to the formulation of the strategic plan with partners establishing together a common vision and

goals – Collaborative Plan Formulation. Then the plan is implemented collectively at the CSSP level and individually at the partners level, being continually monitored and evaluated by those leading the partnership – Collaborative Implementation, reaching different outcomes as a result of the actions taken by the partnership and the partners (Clarke & Fuller, 2010). The process includes feedback loops, allowing its adjustment according to outcomes and variations in the context (Clarke & Fuller, 2010).

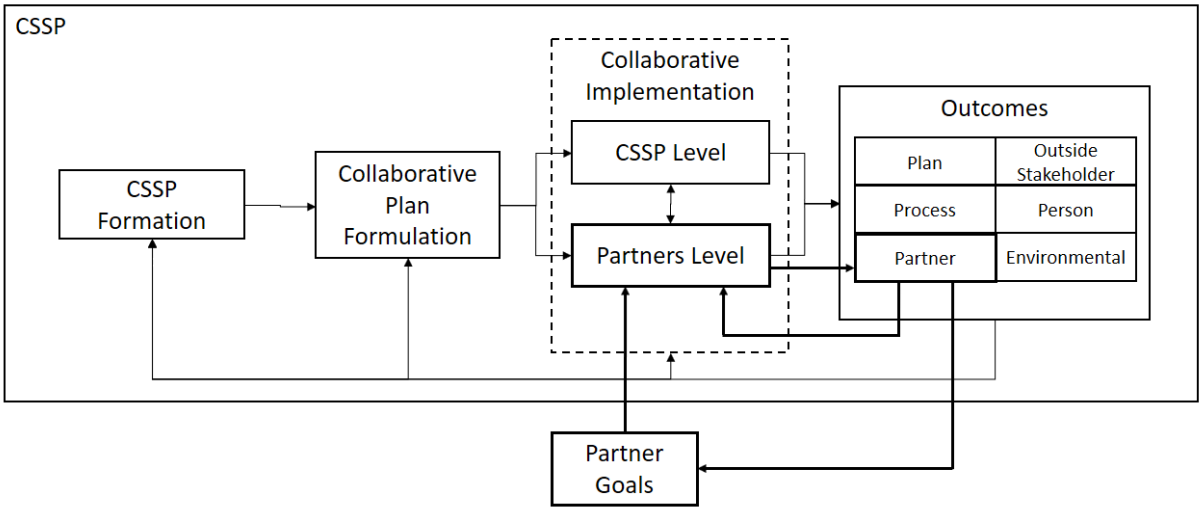


Figure 8: Collaborative Strategic Management Process *(Adapted from Clarke & Fuller, 2010)*

At the partner level, Figure 8 also shows the connection of the partners' goals, understood as the drivers to join the partnership (Brinkerhoff, 2002), with their structures for implementing the collaborative strategic plan at their level towards the achievement of outcomes. This process is developed in interaction with the collaborative implementation of the plan at the CSSP level, and adjusted according to partners' outcomes. In the following section, the triad goals-structures-outcomes represents the strategic approach of organizations towards partnerships.

4.2.1.2 Strategic Management

Strategy has been defined from two broad perspectives in the management literature (Mintzberg & Lampel, 1999). The prescriptive school sees strategy as a formal and planned process supported by technical people and professionals to match the organization's strengths and weaknesses with the environment's opportunities and threats (Mintzberg & Lampel, 1999). The descriptive school defines strategy based on people's intuition, cognition, influence, and culture, responding to challenges presented by the environment (Mintzberg & Lampel, 1999).

Descriptions of strategy almost always include a mindful set of guidelines for determining decisions into the future (Mintzberg, 1978). While Chandler (1962), coinciding with the prescriptive school, defines it as "the determination of the basic long-term goals and objectives …, and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals", Andrews (1965, 1971) sees it as "the pattern of objectives, purposes or goals and major policies and plans for achieving these goals" (Hofer & Schendel, 1978, p. 16). Others with descriptive views define strategy as the "fundamental pattern of present and planned resource deployments and environmental interactions that indicates how the organization will achieve its objectives" (Hofer & Schendel, 1978, p. 25), or a "set of consistent behaviors by which the organization establishes for a time its place in its environment" (Mintzberg, 1978, p. 941).

In summary, strategy can be defined as a plan to achieve a mission and objectives (Wheelen & Hunger, 2012); a pattern of decisions (Andrews, 1980; Mintzberg, 1978) that determines long-term objectives through appropriate structures and resources for the achievement of goals (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978) in interaction with the environment (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Moreover, such a pattern of decisions determines objectives, generating

adequate structural conditions and identifying the necessary resources for the achievement of objectives, as well as defining the value to be created for the environment (Andrews, 1980). Therefore, it can be argued that strategy is based on four main components: (1) goals focused on the future of the organization (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012); (2) structure, including resources, plans, policies and actions necessary to achieve strategic goals (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012); (3) outcomes achieved as a result of the implementation structures (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978); and (4) the environment where resources are obtained from and which organizations must adapt to in order to survive (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Scott, 2003).

From a strategic perspective, an organization determines its goals based on the opportunities and threats presented by the environment that conditions the achievement of outcomes. Then, the outcomes as well as the environment create new conditions for structures to be modified or confirmed for the achievement of new outcomes, as well as potentially affecting the definition of new goals that lead to other structures and outcomes. This cycle represents the strategic perspective of organizations to address CSSPs as presented in Figure 8. Figure 9 shows the components of organizational CSSP strategy and the relationships among them according to how they interact with each other.

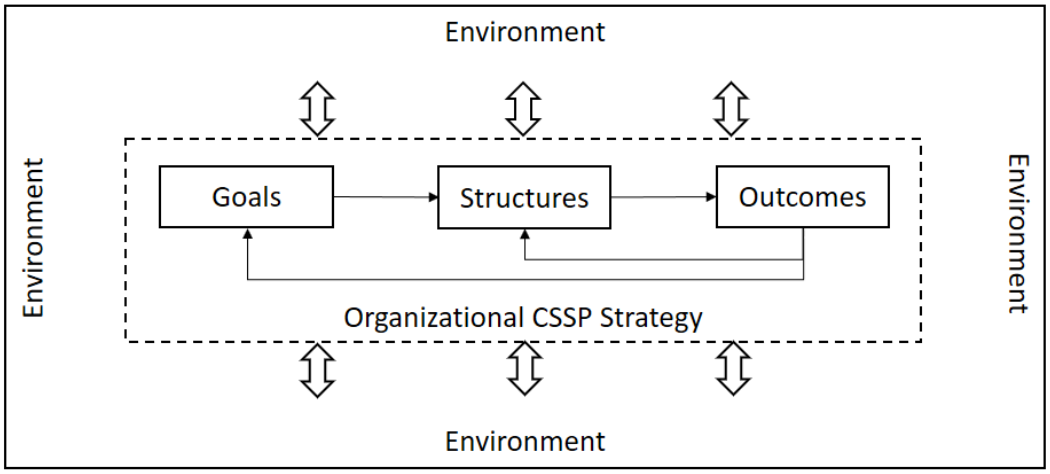


Figure 9: Components of Strategy

The main challenge for organizations to achieve their goals is to match their resources and skills (i.e., their structure) with the opportunities and risks from the environment in a successful manner (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Only those organizations that achieve a good fit between their environment, including the needs of society, and their strategy, along with their goals and structure, will perform better than others who do not survive nor succeed (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Hunger & Wheelen, 2011).

Given their resources and the nature of their environment, organizations need structures to achieve their strategic goals (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Hunger & Wheelen, 2011), which play a key role towards the success of the organization in matching strategy with the changes happening on the environment (Hunger & Wheelen, 2011). A strategy is determined with an objective ahead, and in order to achieve such an objective, resources are mobilized and structures are needed (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Therefore, for organizations to achieve their strategic goals and objectives through partnering, structures must be put into place.

4.2.1.2.1 Strategic Structures

Structure has been defined as a configuration of enduring and persistent activities, whose main characteristic is the regularity of roles and procedures, and of processes of interactions (Ranson et al., 1980), including goals, roles, rules, processes, and norms regulating relationships (Bryson et al., 2006; Ranson et al., 1980). A structure is "a key driver of the way agendas are shaped and implemented", affecting the things organizations do by determining key factors around influence, power, and resources (Huxham & Vangen, 2000, p. 1166). Structures are a complex way of controlling interactions (Ranson et al., 1980), which organizations need to be effective (Mintzberg, 1980).

Although theorists see the role of structures in organizations differently, they all agree on their importance for organizations' success. Those such as Max Weber, who sees organizations through a rational perspective, argue that they consist of a hierarchical authority structure, administrative staff, and differential rewards, highlighting the relevance of formalized structures for the achievement of organizational goals (Weber, 1964). Others with a natural perspective contend that only by understanding what people do and their informal interactions, can organizational structures be understood (Scott, 2003). Furthermore, they argue that the rational view ignores that new elements such as informal relations or unofficial norms arise in the course of operations influencing structures (Blau, 1963), new elements which are necessary to the operation of formal organizations (Barnard, 1968). Others claim that rational and natural views coexist given that organizational structures describe the prescribed frameworks and the configuration of interactions (Ranson et al., 1980). Moreover, organizations are part of an environment they depend on for resources, which supports, influences and shapes their structures (Scott, 2003), leading to the view that structural design depends on the environment, a

contingency perspective (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). According to this view, organizations whose structures best match the demands of their environment will be successful (Scott, 2003), assuring that they develop formalized structures to face certain environments, while they respond with low degrees of structure to uncertain contexts (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). The arrangement of an organization with its environment occurs at two levels: While the structures of each subunit of the organization must adapt to the specific environment they relate to, the larger organization must integrate to the overall complexity of the environment in which it operates (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

Structures are necessary for transforming strategic goals into outcomes, for which organizations interact with the environment through processes, actions, and plans for interchanging resources that are key to the achievement of desired outcomes. Then, for partnering to be strategic, organizations must not only have goals but also be structured according to the demands of their respective environments to succeed in the achievement of their strategic goals. More specifically, organizations must be formally structured with specific objectives to approach certain environments, or through less formalized structures with less clear objectives when environments are less certain (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Conversely, if there are no objectives, or if organizations are not structured, the reason for partnering would not be strategic, or considerations to approach the partnership strategically might not have been foreseen.

For an organization to be both effective and efficient, its strategy must consider the scope of its interactions with the environment, the resources, and skills to deploy in order to achieve its objectives, its competitive advantage, and the joint effects to be achieved from the deployment of resources and the scope decisions (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Based on the literature, this paper

aims to address questions on the role of structures for the achievement of strategic goals through partnering, measuring their effect on the relationship between goals and outcomes. By the end, this paper aims to test the statements that organizations partner for strategic reasons through the assessment of structures in the achievement of outcomes. Therefore, the following hypotheses are presented:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Organizations engage in partnerships through the implementation of structures.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Organizations engaged in partnerships achieve their strategic goals through the implementation of structures.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Highly structured organizations achieve highly valuable outcomes.

4.3 Methods

This quantitative study involved surveying 224 organizations from the private, public and civil society partnering in large CSSPs for the sustainability of Barcelona (Spain), Bristol (UK), Gwangju (South Korea), and Montreal (Canada). Quantitative methods were adopted because of their ability to use small groups and make inferences about larger groups (Bartlett et al., 2001), maximizing the effectiveness of the results through a systematic and powerful means of analysis (Kothari, 2009). As theories provide an explanation for the relationship among variables, a quantitative approach helps in testing such relationships (Creswell, 2014).

4.3.1 Site Selection

To answer the proposed research questions and test the hypotheses, this research started with the selection of large CSSPs. The process of selecting large CSSPs for data collection was designed in two stages: (1) a quantitative analysis of available data on CSSPs; and (2) a qualitative process which required direct contact with the partnerships. The first stage focused on a list of international CSSPs implementing community sustainability plans, and focusing on four initial conditions: (i) CSSPs with a minimum of approximately one hundred partners, since the objective was to assess large partnerships; (ii) partnerships with plan-time horizons of at least fifteen years, as a way to assess organizations that have partnered for a long time[51]; (iii) CSSPs impacting communities of between one and two million people; and (iv) communities from developed countries[52] as these have worked on sustainability initiatives for the longest time. Then, the second stage focused on two more variables: (v) large CSSPs engaging their partners in an active manner[53]; and (vi) partnerships and partners willing to participate in the research. Table 15 shows the selected large CSSPs and their variables, according to the presented criterion.

[51] Organizations have partnered on average for more than 5 years, with 91% of them partnering for more than 1 year, 43% more than 5 years, and 19% more than 10 years
[52] Those most advanced according to the OECD (OECD, 2016)
[53] Organizations committed to contribute to at least some of the sustainability goals of the partnership (Waddock, 1988, 1991)

Table 15: Participating Partnerships based on the Selection Criterion

CSSP Name[54] (Community, Country)	Active partners	Working since	Time projection	Population[55] (millions)	HDI[56]
Barcelona + Sustainable (Barcelona, Spain)	328	2002	2022	1.6[57]	0.88
Bristol Green Capital Partnership (Bristol, UK)	291	2003	2020	1.1[58]	0.91
Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development (Gwangju, South Korea)	99	1995	2021	1.5[59]	0.90
Sustainable Montreal (Montréal, Canada)	142	2005	2020	1.6[60]	0.91

4.3.2 Survey

A cross-sectional survey[61] based on a previous one piloted on sustainability plan contents, partnerships structures, and sustainability outcomes, was designed and implemented collecting data at one point in time (Creswell, 2014). The survey was designed in English and translated into French, Spanish, and Korean. A source-to-target language approach was implemented to alleviate problems of translation bias (Smith, 2010), translating the survey from English into the other languages by translators knowledgeable of this project as well as the topic, using common organizational and sustainability terminology, and no idiomatic statements (Geletkanycz, 1997; Smith, 2010). The involvement of the partnerships' secretariats was key not only for translations to be as accurate as possible to local concepts, cultural and organizational structures, and the

[54] Names translated into English
[55] Population does not necessarily refer to the population of the city, but that of the partnerships' geographic impact area
[56] Human Development Index at country level (United Nations Development Programme, 2016)
[57] (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2016)
[58] (West of England Local Enterprise Partnership, 2014)
[59] (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2016)
[60] (Statistics Canada, 2017b)
[61] Appendix I

local indicators related to the surveyed variables of interest (Smith, 2010), but also in the hopes of affecting response rates positively (Fan & Yan, 2010).

The survey contained four parts with a total of twelve main questions split into thirty sub-questions. The first part collected general information about the partner organizations' characteristics and relationships to the partnerships; the second focused on the drivers for organizations to partner as a proxy for strategic goals (Brinkerhoff, 2002); the third asked about their structures to understand how they address sustainability; and the fourth examined what organizations have gained thanks to partnering for sustainability, i.e., the outcomes. The sections on drivers and outcomes were organized into five types of capital: community, human, organizational, financial, and physical. The rationale is that proposed by the resource-based view (RBV) which identifies human, organizational, financial and physical resources as those organizations seek to obtain when partnering (Barney, 1991, 1995). These capitals are complemented with community resources, i.e., socio-environmental concerns for partners from all the sectors of society (Darnall & Carmin, 2005; Koontz & Thomas, 2012; M. E. Porter & Kramer, 2011). The section on structures is organized into two groups: formal and informal structural features as proposed by contingency theory (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Formal structural features include having a department, positions, budget, machines, an office or infrastructure (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Weber, 1964; Worley & Mirvis, 2013). Informal structural features refer to addressing sustainability through a cross-functional team, in partnership with others, and implementing policies, plans, reporting, and monitoring and controlling practices (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013; March & Simon, 1966; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Worley & Mirvis, 2013). Most of the questions were Likert-type scale (37%), multiple choice (32%), and limited-choice questions (27%) (Platek,

Pierre-Pierre, & Stevens, 1985). Responses on drivers and outcomes are ordinal, and those on structures, dichotomous. Answering the survey took between 10 and 15 minutes, which is considered to be an ideal length of time to obtain a good response rate (Fan & Yan, 2010).

Survey validity was tested to confirm how well the survey measures what it is intended to measure (Bohrnstedt, 1983; de Vaus, 1990). The survey's validity was measured through content validity, a subjective measure of how appropriate the questions seem to experts on the subject matter and how well they fit with the literature for measuring the concepts (Bohrnstedt, 2010; Litwin, 1995). The survey was presented to experts on the topic who approved it.

Wave analysis was used to determine response bias, a widely used and low-cost method with limited requirements in terms of data (Atif et al., 2012; Lewis et al., 2013). Wave analysis compares responses from early respondents with late respondents on key questions (Lewis et al., 2013), using late respondents as a proxy for non-respondents (Lahaut et al., 2003; Lewis et al., 2013). Two groups were created, with the earliest and the last 15% of respondents testing response bias for questions on drivers, structures, and outcomes (Lewis et al., 2013). As averages were calculated, independent t-tests were considered (Lankford et al., 1995) finding no response bias (Appendix III). Similar analyses were developed to test response biases among partnerships and types of organizations, finding no response bias in any of them (Appendices IV and V). Internal consistency was adopted for determining the reliability of the survey. Internal consistency is applied to groups of questions that are thought to measure different aspects of the same concept, measuring how well different questions measure the same issue (Litwin, 1995). Cronbach´s α coefficients were calculated for every question on drivers, outcomes, and structures showing good reliability in all of them (greater than 70%) (Cronbach, 1951; Litwin, 1995).

4.3.3 Sampling

The population for each community was the total number of active partners, all identifiable as current partners of the respective partnerships. Normal distribution of the population was considered because it describes a large number of chance distributions in a useful manner (Loether & McTavish, 1980), it is the most used distribution with many uses in descriptive and inferential statistics (Lomax, 2007), and it has been applied in social sciences many times (Kedar, 2004). Furthermore, through the Central Limit Theorem[62], researchers assert that 30 is the minimum sample size of a sampling distribution of the mean to approach a normal distribution, even if the population distribution is not normal (Devore & Peck, 1997; Spatz & Johnston, 1989). Therefore, the following formula was used for determining the sample size for finite large populations:

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 \times p \times (1-p)}{e^2} \qquad [Eq.5]$$

where Z is determined according to the level of confidence assuming normal distribution, p is the percentage of the sample that responds in a given way, expressed in decimals, and e is the confidence interval for the margin of error to tolerate, expressed in decimals (Cochran, 1977).

The total population of active partners was 860 organizations. Then, considering Z = 1.96 for 95% confidence interval, p = .8 representing homogeneity in the population with respect to the

[62] The sampling distribution of the mean of any population will approach a normal distribution as the sample size (N) gets larger ($N \geq 30$), with a mean equal to μ and a standard deviation equal to $\sigma/\sqrt{N}$ (Devore & Peck, 1997; Spatz & Johnston, 1989).

attributes of interests (Israel, 1992), and e = 5% as acceptable error, n_0 = 246. However, since n_0 was greater than 5% of the population[63] (Bartlett et al., 2001), Cochran's corrected formula (Eq. 6) was considered to determine the final sample size n_1 = 191, equal to 22.3% of the total number of active organizations.

$$n_1 = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}} \qquad [Eq. 6]$$

where n_1 is the corrected sample size and N is the total population size (Cochran, 1977).

4.3.4 Data Collection

This research was developed under the scope of large CSSPs for the sustainability of communities, the units of analysis were the partnering organizations, and the targeted survey respondents were representatives from the organizations to the partnerships.

The survey process involved two methods with the aim of reaching adequate sample sizes to reduce non-response error (Dillman et al., 2009). First, an invitation was sent through the secretariats to all the active partner organizations to voluntarily respond to the online survey. Then, based on the number of responses in comparison to the requested sample size, a second group of partners was approached to survey them personally. Adequate procedures for follow-up were considered (Creswell, 2014). The large CSSP for Barcelona was surveyed between June

[63] n_0 = 246 > 5% of 860 = 43

and October 2015; Bristol, between March and December 2016; Gwangju, between April and June 2016; and Montreal, between February and June 2017.

A total of 224 organizations were surveyed, of which 83% responded online. Online surveys are justifiable in that the selected countries all have excellent access to the Internet[64] and with the potential of obtaining a probability sample of the full population while allowing for generalizations (Couper, 2000). The software used to survey was FluidSurveys for the first cities, while the fourth was surveyed with the same survey through SurveyMonkey, a platform whose owners acquired FluidSurveys during the survey process.

The remaining surveys were collected in person in three of the four communities since Gwangju did not need an onsite process due to its high online response rate (54%). The surveyors were researchers trained to follow the same procedure with the purpose of reducing their potential influence on respondents (Smith, 2010). The response rate is 26%, larger than the calculated rate (Eq. 6), rendering the findings from this research generalizable.

4.4 Results

This research aims to understand whether organizational-level structures are developed within partner organizations when partnering, if structures have an effect on the achievement of strategic goals, and if highly structured organizations achieve highly valuable outcomes in the context of large CSSPs for local community sustainability. The strategic management literature suggests that structures are crucial in the achievement of goals in interaction with the environment (Andrews, 1980; Mintzberg, 1978). This view comes from the perspective that

[64] Canada: 90%, Korea: 93%, Spain: 81%, UK: 95% (The World Bank Group, 2018a).

partnering is strategic for organizations (Gray, 1989; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Waddock, 1989), which is complemented by the understanding that sustainability is a strategic opportunity for organizations (Fiksel et al., 2014; Wassmer et al., 2017).

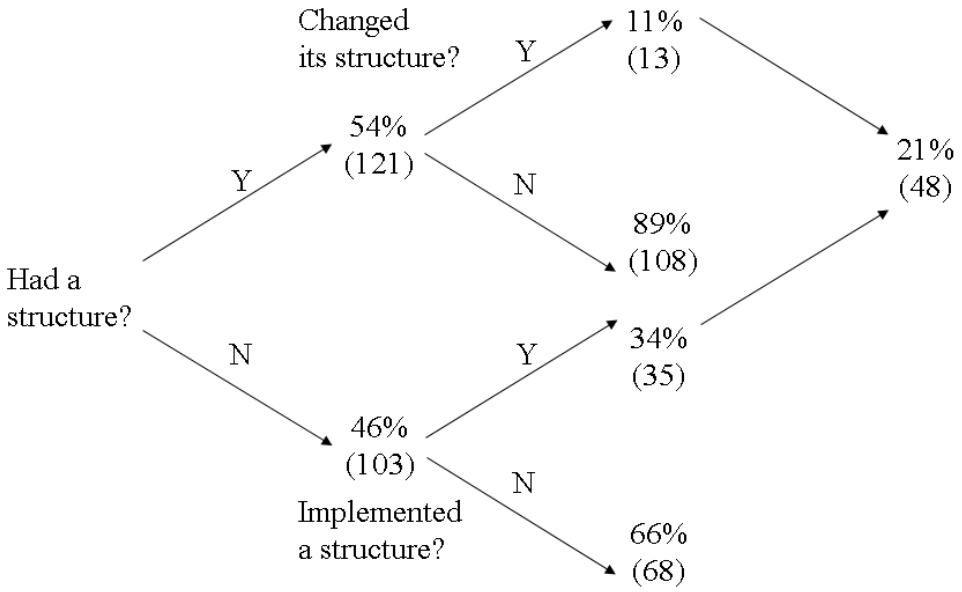
The purpose of this research is addressed through three hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 argues that the existence of structures is a way for organizations to engage strategically in sustainability partnerships, i.e., that partnering is strategic for organizations; Hypothesis 2 is focused on the effect that organizational-level structures have in the relationships between strategic goals that drive organizations to join CSSPs, and the outcomes they achieve as partners; and Hypothesis 3 argues that highly structured organizations, i.e., those that implement many structural features, achieve highly valuable outcomes.

To answer Hypothesis 1, organizations were asked three questions. First, they were asked whether they had a structure for implementing sustainability before joining the partnership. If they answered yes, they were asked if their structure was changed due to the organization joining the partnership; and if the response was no, representatives of the organizations were asked if a structure was implemented upon joining the partnership.

As seen from Figure 10, 54% of the organizations had a structure for implementing sustainability measures before joining the partnership, out of which 11% made changes to their structure as they joined the partnership (6% of the total). Conversely, 46% of the organizations declared not having a structure before joining the partnership, of which 34% did implement a structure after joining the partnership (15% of the total). Considering that the groups of organizations who had a structure before joining a partnership and those who implemented a structure after joining the partnership are independent groups, both figures can be added, reaching 88% of partner organizations with a structure implemented for addressing sustainability. It can also be

highlighted that, while most organizations had a structure for addressing sustainability before joining the partnership (54%), one out of ten did change their structure after having joined the partnership. Similarly, out of those who did not have a structure before joining the partnership (46%), about one third implemented a structure after joining. These figures lead to 21%[65] of the respondents declaring having a structure due to joining a partnership, either because they changed the structure they previously had, or because they implemented a new structure. Among the structural features tested to understand the type of structures organizations have are formal features such as having a department, a position, or assigning a budget to address sustainability, and informal features including partnering with other organizations, or implementing policies and plans, and monitoring and controlling practices. Out of the organizations responding with respect to their structures, 96.88% are informally structured, while 3.12% formally structured.

[65] 13 organizations that did have a structure and changed it due to joining a partnership + 35 organizations that did not have a structure before the partnerships, but implemented one once joining = 48 organizations with a structure being implemented or changed due to joining a partnership.



Total surveyed organizations: 224

Figure 10: Distributions of Responses from the Surveyed Organizations (H1)

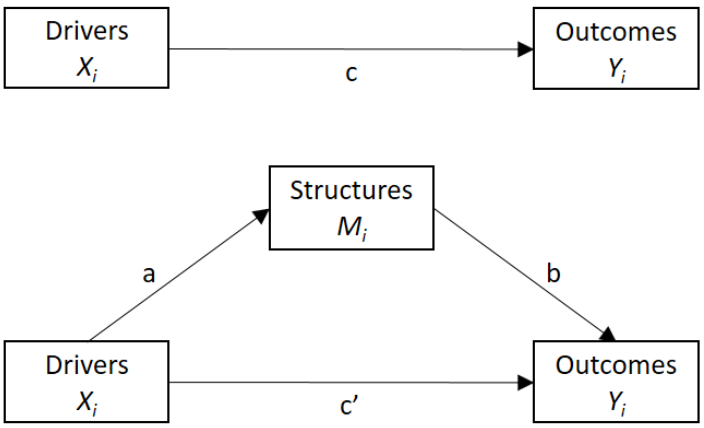
In order to understand whether organizations implement structures due to joining a partnership (H1), a Chi-squared test was used considering data as presented in Table 16. Results show a X^2 (1, N = 224) = 17.84, p = .00, significant at 5%. Then, the null hypothesis that organizations change their structures independently of whether they had or not a structure before joining a partnership is rejected, i.e. structures are changed depending on the previous existence of structures, then it can be concluded that sustainability partnerships lead to the implementation of structures.

Table 16: Chi-squared Analysis of the Implementation of Structures

	Changed Structure	Did not change Structure	Total
With Structure	13 (25.93) [6.46]	108 (95.07) [1.76]	121
Without Structure	35 (22.07) [7.57]	68 (80.93) [2.07]	103
Total	48	176	224

Note: Table provides the following information: the observed cell totals, (the expected cell total) and [the chi-squared statistic for each cell]

To answer Hypothesis 2, a mediation model was adopted. The rationale behind a mediation model is that the effects of an independent variable on a dependent variable are mediated by a third variable called a mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986). There are two different ways to assess mediation. One is by manipulating the mediator and measuring its effect; the other is by determining if the independent variable has an effect on the mediator, and this affects the dependent variable (MacKinnon & Dwyer, 1993). The latter is the approach adopted in this research. Figure 11 shows the mediation model presenting structures that mediate the relationship between drivers as proxy for goals, and outcomes, as key variables of strategy (See Figure 9).



c = ab + c'

c: total effect of *X* on *Y*
ab: indirect effect of *X* on *Y*
c': direct effect of *X* on *Y* controlling for *M*

X: Drivers (causal-independent variable)
Y: Outcomes (outcome-dependent variable)
M: Structures (mediator variable)

Figure 11: Mediation Model for Testing Hypothesis 2

To test the mediation effect of structures between every driver and its respective outcome, Sobel tests were conducted in consideration to the mediator variable being dichotomous (Roberts, Haan, Dowd, & Aiello, 2010; Zhu, Cordeiro, & Sarkis, 2013). Results from Table 17 show that all Sobel statistics are smaller than the critical values, $|Z| < 1.96$, $p > .05$, failing to reject the null hypothesis (ab = 0), i.e., structures do not mediate between drivers and outcomes ($N = 199$), with a significance level set at .05. Sobel tests were conducted 31 times according to the numbers of drivers and outcomes. The consistency of the results is a proof of the robustness of the results.

Table 17: Sobel Test Mediation Results

		Sobel	SE	*p*
Community Capital	X_1,M,Y_1	0.99	0.01	0.32
	X_2,M,Y_2	0.44	0.01	0.66
	X_3,M,Y_3	1.16	0.01	0.25
	X_4,M,Y_4	0.29	0.01	0.77
	X_5,M,Y_5	0.65	0.01	0.51
Human Capital	X_6,M,Y_6	0.75	0.01	0.46
	X_7,M,Y_7	0.78	0.00	0.43
	X_8,M,Y_8	1.31	0.01	0.19
	X_9,M,Y_9	0.22	0.01	0.82
Organizational Capital	X_{10},M,Y_{10}	0.25	0.01	0.80
	X_{11},M,Y_{11}	-0.22	0.01	0.83
	X_{12},M,Y_{12}	-0.44	0.01	0.66
	X_{13},M,Y_{13}	1.21	0.01	0.23
	X_{14},M,Y_{14}	0.71	0.01	0.48
	X_{15},M,Y_{15}	0.37	0.01	0.71
	X_{16},M,Y_{16}	-0.79	0.00	0.43
	X_{17},M,Y_{17}	-0.74	0.00	0.46
	X_{18},M,Y_{18}	0.25	0.00	0.80
	X_{19},M,Y_{19}	0.05	0.00	0.96
	X_{20},M,Y_{20}	0.60	0.01	0.55
	X_{21},M,Y_{21}	0.13	0.01	0.90
	X_{22},M,Y_{22}	0.86	0.01	0.39
Financial Capital	X_{23},M,Y_{23}	-0.19	0.00	0.85
	X_{24},M,Y_{24}	-0.68	0.00	0.50
	X_{25},M,Y_{25}	0.44	0.00	0.66
	X_{26},M,Y_{26}	-0.37	0.01	0.71
	X_{27},M,Y_{27}	-0.09	0.00	0.93
	X_{28},M,Y_{28}	-0.60	0.00	0.55
	X_{29},M,Y_{29}	-0.56	0.00	0.58
Physical Capital	X_{30},M,Y_{30}	-0.56	0.01	0.58
	X_{31},M,Y_{31}	-0.37	0.00	0.71

Note: X_i and Y_i represent the questions on drivers and outcomes, respectively (i: from the 1st to the 31st question), and *M* represents structures as mediator.

Hypothesis 3 was addressed through a Chi-squared test to understand whether structures lead to outcomes. For addressing this concern, the questions on structural features were grouped into a

binary composite index which shows poorly and highly structured organizations. Poorly structured organizations are those with less than 50% of the considered structural features, and highly structured organizations have at least 50% of the structural features[66]. Questions on outcomes were similarly clustered into two groups, those poorly valued outcomes and those highly valued outcomes. Considering that the 31 questions were addressed through Likert scales from 1 (very valuable) to 5 (no value), the threshold between poorly valued outcomes and highly valued outcomes is set at 93[67]. Considering gaps among some of the responses, the sample size reached 131, smaller than the requested sample size, making findings from on this hypothesis not generalizable.

Analysis of the data shows X^2 (1, N = 131) = 1.66, p = .20, which is not significant at 5%. Then, the test fails to reject the null hypothesis that outcomes are independent of structures, i.e., structures do not lead to outcomes. As a result, the hypothesis that highly structured organizations lead to highly valued outcomes cannot be confirmed[68] (Table 18).

Table 18: Relationships Between Structures and Outcomes

		Outcomes		
		Poor	High	
Structured	Poor	22 (19.45) [.33]	76 (78.55) [.08]	98
	High	4 (6.55) [.99]	29 (26.45) [.25]	33
		26	105	131

Note: Table provides the following information: the observed cell totals, (the expected cell total) and [the chi-squared statistic for each cell]

[66] Appendix I shows structural features under Part C.
[67] Maximum = 31 questions x 5 (no value) = 155. Minimum = 31 questions x 1 (very valuable) = 31. (Maximum + Minimum)/2 = 93.
[68] Similar analysis was done grouping structures and outcomes into three thirds: poor, neutral, and high, reaching to the same findings.

4.5 Discussion

This research has three main findings: organizations implement structures when partnering for sustainability; structures do not mediate between goals and outcomes; and it is not imperative for organizations to be highly structured to achieve highly valued outcomes. Since structures are key for organizational strategy (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Mintzberg, 1978), their implementation in the context of sustainability partnerships can be understood as a confirmation of the view of scholars who assert that partnerships are strategic for organizations (e.g. Gray, 1989; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Wassmer et al., 2014), and of those who see sustainability as a strategic opportunity (e.g. Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; Fiksel et al., 2014). However, findings do not confirm that structures are necessary for reaching strategic goals, as proposed by the literature. Furthermore, since highly, as well as poorly, structured organizations lead to the achievement of highly valued outcomes, it is not imperative to be highly structured to achieve desired outcomes.

Certainly, organizations understand the relevance of structures for the achievement of strategic goals (X^2 (1, N = 224) = 17.84, $p < .05$) in the context of sustainability partnerships as proposed by the literature. According to the results, sustainability partnerships do influence organizations in the creation and implementation of structures, then it can be argued that organizations do consider sustainability partnerships to be strategic. Through a quantitative analysis, this result supports statements found in the academic literature, contributing to the literature in this respect. However, results also show that despite structures being in place, these do not mediate between drivers and outcomes ($|Z| < 1.96$, $p > .05$), not affecting the achievement of strategic goals, which was to be expected based on their strategic importance. This is an apparent theoretical contradiction with strategy literature that could be explained by levels of structuration. It is not

only a matter of having structures but structures of a certain type. As argued by scholars, structures can be formal or informal (Barnard, 1968; Blau, 1963; Weber, 1964) with organizations structured formally when facing certain environments, and informally when these are less certain (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967), although both coexist according to required interactions (Ranson et al., 1980). This research cannot test the different effect of organizations formally structured versus those whose structures can be considered informal since most of the sampled organizations are structured informally (96.88%). However, based on this figure, it can be concluded that informal structures do not mediate between drivers and outcomes, nonetheless, it is not possible to make any conclusions with respect to formal structures. More research on this topic is necessary to understand the effect of types of structures in the achievement of goals. One interpretation is that formal structures - hierarchies and administrative staff (Weber, 1964), new positions and infrastructure (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016), and information systems (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Worley & Mirvis, 2013) - require larger and likely more permanent financing, which in turn would generate higher levels of commitment, accountability, and control from organizations. These types of investments may lead to the achievement of expected results. On the contrary, informal structures - having competent leaders (Clarke, 2011; Gray & Stites, 2013; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), defined roles (March & Simon, 1966), organizational considerations, norms and management processes (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013), as well as organizational policies and practices (Worley & Mirvis, 2013) - are more flexible and adaptable enabling organizations to respond to changing circumstances (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Ranson et al., 1980), which can be understood as a more relaxed way to address partnerships, showing less concern and commitment from the organizations, reducing the chances of achieving desired outcomes. Furthermore, final outcomes may be left to the contribution of large cross-sector

partnerships, especially when organizations are informally structured, which might be the case of these organizations. These assumptions certainly need further research.

Similarly, there is room for further analysis because this investigation did not uncover any relationship between highly or poorly (mostly informally) structured organizations and outcomes ($p > .05$). In this context, and confirming previous findings, it can be assumed that partnerships play a key role and that their power contributes to the achievement of outcomes, hence its strategic consideration.

4.6 Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is to assess the implementation of structures when partnering, determine their mediating effect between strategic goals and outcomes, and assess whether organizations that are highly structured lead to highly valuable outcomes, testing statements that argue that organizations partner for strategic reasons, while contributing to a deeper understanding of organizations. Partnering has been identified as a source of varied resources that would improve the strategic positions of organizations, and as such, organizations would address partnering from a strategic perspective. This perspective would include the implementation of structures that would transform the organizations' strategic goals into outcomes.

To the best of my knowledge, until now researchers had not quantitatively tested the strategic engagement of organizations in partnerships; this research contributes to that understanding. By testing organizations from across sectors partnering for community sustainability, this research has found that (1) organizations implement structures when partnering for sustainability, with partnerships influencing the implementation of structures, hence it can be argued that

partnerships are strategic for organizations; (2) structures do not affect the relationships between goals and outcomes; and (3) highly valued outcomes can be achieved independently of how structured organizations are.

Findings from this research are based on organizations from different sectors in the context of local sustainability partnerships. The sample size used allows results on hypotheses 1 and 2 to be generalizable and findings to be representative of organizations partnering on similar cross-sector partnerships. Further research would be needed to see if this is also relevant to organizations partnering in other large partnerships focused on other social issues or at other scales, as well as for smaller CSSPs. Similarly, further research is needed to assess the power of large cross-sector partnerships in the achievement of organizational outcomes.

These findings are of importance to organizations thinking about or engaged in cross-sector partnerships highlighting the strategic importance of partnerships and how these could be approached through structures. Moreover, this research contributes to the strategy, partnerships, and sustainability literature positioning sustainability partnerships as strategic for organizations towards the achievement of strategic goals.

Chapter 5

5. Organizations Engaged in Large Community Sustainability Partnerships. Why They Partner, How They Are Structured, and What They Obtain from Partnering – Paper 2[69]

5.1 Introduction

Sustainability challenges such as climate change and economic development are too large and complex to be addressed by any organization alone (Bryson et al., 2006; Waddock, 1991). As a result, it has become essential to engage many organizations from across sectors in partnerships that have a purpose of achieving sustainability goals (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005). However, it is not clear why organizations engage in sustainability partnerships, how they are structured to implement community sustainability plans, and what they obtain from partnering with many other organizations. Furthermore, most research has focused on small partnerships while large cross-sector partnerships are still poorly understood (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016).

Organizations join partnerships for strategic reasons (Gray, 1989; Wassmer et al., 2014), considering it a strategic opportunity to address sustainability challenges (Baumgartner & Ebner, 2010; Fiksel et al., 2014). Some assert that organizations partner to gain resources (Ansell & Gash, 2008; Vurro et al., 2010) that would improve their strategic positions (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Selsky & Parker, 2005) and their competitive advantage (Lavie, 2006; Lotia

[69] Under review at the Journal of Business Ethics

& Hardy, 2008). Others claim that organizations partner to gain knowledge (Butler, 2001), to address environmental issues (Lin & Darnall, 2015; Wassmer et al., 2014), and to improve the sustainability of society (Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010). Structural features required for organizations to address sustainability partnerships include having a competent leader which is considered key to organizational success (Clarke, 2011; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), clearly defined roles (March & Simon, 1966), focused activities (March & Simon, 1966; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), information systems (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), and the refocusing of internal resources on new programs and processes (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Finally, researchers have used resource-based view (RBV) to classify what organizations achieve from partnering (Barney, 1991, 1995), focusing on financial, physical, organizational, and human outcomes (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016).

Although the literature on partnerships is extensive, it has mainly focused on small partnerships and not specifically on sustainability partnerships, producing a variety of findings, without providing a clear understanding on why organizations partner, how they address partnerships, and what they gain from partnering. As a result, it is relevant to understand what drives organizations to join sustainability partnerships (drivers to partner), how they are structured to address sustainability partnerships (structural features), and what they gain from partnering (partner-centric outcomes). Furthermore, the relationships between these dimensions have not been previously studied, key to understanding the strategic engagement of organizations in sustainability partnerships.

The purpose of this paper is to understand organizations engaged in sustainability partnerships. To achieve this purpose, this paper assesses the drivers for organizations to join large sustainability partnerships as a proxy for organizational goals (Brinkerhoff, 2002), the structural

features as a means by which organizations address sustainability challenges, the outcomes as to what organizations gain as partners for sustainability, and the ways in which drivers, structures, and outcomes are related. Findings from this paper contribute to a better understanding of organizations partnering for sustainability through large partnerships. These questions are addressed through the quantitative analyses of data collected through a survey of 224 organizations from across sectors partnering for community sustainability. Findings from this paper expand the boundaries of the resources literature by refining RBV, highlighting the relevance of societal-focused resources, and contributing to the contingency perspective through understanding the ways in which organizations address the collective goals of sustainability partnerships.

5.2 Theoretical Background

This paper is based on three types of literature searches: strategy as the theoretical reason for organizations to join cross-sector partnerships for sustainability, cross-sector social partnerships as a means to achieving community sustainability, and sustainability at the local level understood as the achievement of sustainability goals as proposed by cities through their strategic community sustainability plans. This paper addresses large cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs) with many organizations as partners, which although increasingly popular for addressing sustainability challenges (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013), remain under-studied (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016).

5.2.1 Sustainability at the Local Level

The concept of sustainable development became highly relevant after the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development's report from 1987 "Our Common Future", which proposed a new form of development that integrates economic development, social equity, and environmental degradation (Dresner, 2008; Rangreji, 2013). Then, as a way to lead the implementation of sustainable development at the local level, the UN launched Local Agenda 21 (LA21) in 1992, urging local governments to enter "into a dialogue with [their] citizens, local organizations and private enterprises" (United Nations, 1992, para. 28.3). LA21 is "a participatory, multi-sectoral process to achieve the goals of Agenda 21 at the local level through the preparation and implementation of a long-term, strategic action plan that addresses priority local sustainable development concerns" (ICLEI, 1997, para. II).

Since then, thousands of communities have adopted LA21s all over the world (Garcia-Sanchez & Prado-Lorenzo, 2008; Rok & Kuhn, 2012), taking different forms based on their goals, needs, and priorities (Rok & Kuhn, 2012). Moreover, sustainable development is at the core of the strategic development of cities such as Barcelona, (Spain) which is aiming to be more equitable, prosperous, and self-sufficient (Ayuntamiento de Barcelona, 2012); and Montreal (Canada), which is working towards being a low-carbon, equitable, and exemplary community (Ville de Montréal, 2016).

However, as authorities are not capable of achieving sustainability alone (Bryson et al., 2006; Waddock, 1991), they are partnering with many actors from across sectors as key players in the path to sustainability (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005). Having a large number of partners has been identified as central to achieving the transformational purpose of addressing

sustainability challenges and changing society (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Worley & Mirvis, 2013).

5.2.2 Cross-Sector Social Partnerships for Sustainability

Collaboration is a key component of sustainable development when involving stakeholders in decision-making processes for shaping social and environmental conditions (Koontz, 2006). In particular, cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs) are fundamental to addressing sustainability challenges (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Crane & Seitanidi, 2014) with many organizations from the private, public, and civil society partnering for years with a focus on sustainability issues of common concern (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005). For purposes of this paper, partnerships that have at least approximately one hundred partners from across sectors are called large CSSPs.

CSSPs focus on social, economic, and environmental issues, including unemployment, economic development, quality of education (Selsky & Parker, 2005; Waddock, 1991), health care, poverty alleviation, environmental issues (Selsky & Parker, 2005), climate change, corruption, organized crime (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014), waste, energy, land use, transportation, and housing (MacDonald et al., 2018). These are inter-related complex problems that no organization is capable of solving alone (Bryson et al., 2006; Gray & Stites, 2013).

CSSPs follow a collaborative strategic management process that starts with the formation of the partnerships and the identification of partners, the formulation of the sustainability plan, and its implementation at the partnership and the partner level, all of which lead to the achievement of different outcomes (Clarke & Fuller, 2010). The role partners play in the collaborative process is fundamental not only for the partnership in respect to the implementation of the plan (Crane &

Seitanidi, 2014; Gray, 1989), but also for the success of their own strategies (Lin & Darnall, 2015; Wassmer et al., 2014). Figure 12 shows the strategic engagement of organizations in partnerships, highlighting how organizational goals, or at least a portion of them, drive organizations to partner (Brinkerhoff, 2002). These drivers are addressed through structures for implementing sustainability initiatives, leading to a diverse group of outcomes (Clarke & Fuller, 2010), including outcomes achieved by the partners, which could influence new drivers and new structures in time. The relationship between goals, structure, and outcomes is central to the strategic engagement of organizations in partnerships.

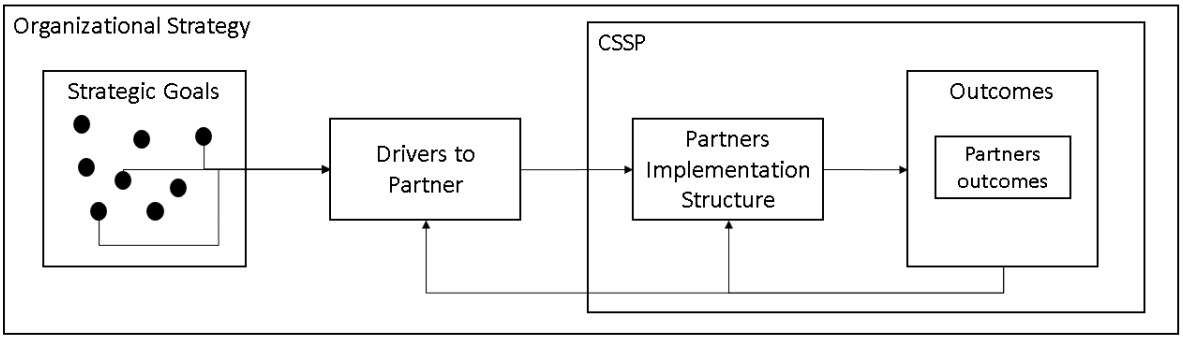


Figure 12: Strategic Engagement of Organizations in Partnerships

5.2.3 Strategy and CSSPs

Organizations engage in partnerships for strategic reasons (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lin & Darnall, 2015), and addressing sustainability is a strategic opportunity (Fiksel et al., 2014; Wassmer et al., 2017). For organizations to survive and succeed in complex environments, they must adapt their strategies according to the dynamics of their environment[70] (Andrews, 1980;

[70] Environment does not refer only to the natural environment but to that surrounding organizations as well.

Mintzberg, 1978) finding the right match between their strategy, structure, and the environment (Hunger & Wheelen, 2011).

Strategic management can be understood to include a set of guidelines and consistent behaviours (Mintzberg, 1978), a pattern of purposes, policies and plans (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978) to achieve determined goals and objectives (Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012) that requires structures, resources and consistent actions (Andrews, 1980; Hunger & Wheelen, 2011) in interaction with the environment (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Hunger & Wheelen, 2011). Then, it can be argued that organizational-level strategy has four main elements: (1) goals that drive organizations (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978); (2) structures, including resources, plans, policies and actions designed and in implementation to achieve goals (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012), as well as processes for monitoring and controlling actions (Clarke & Fuller, 2010); (3) the outcomes achieved as a result (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978); and (4) the environment which presents threats and opportunities for the achievement of strategic goals (Hofer & Schendel, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). These elements form the strategy of organizations in all their domains, beyond the boundaries of a partnership, or what this can achieve. Consequently, the strategic approach of organizations to partnerships as a specific stream can be represented through the same elements, as presented in Figure 12.

5.2.3.1 Goals: Drivers for Joining Sustainability Partnerships

Key questions for scholars studying organizations, partnerships, and sustainability; for those leading sustainability partnerships; and for organizational managers, are why organizations join large CSSPs, and how strategic is partnering for organizations. From a resource perspective,

organizations partner when they need resources (Ansell & Gash, 2008; Lotia & Hardy, 2008), to improve strategic positions (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray & Stites, 2013). They partner due to uncertainty (Gray, 1989; Gray & Wood, 1991), pursuing knowledge and prospects for sharing ideas (Butler, 2001), to acquire competencies they cannot develop (Selsky & Parker, 2005), to respond to socio-environmental pressures (Lin & Darnall, 2015; Wassmer et al., 2014), to solve problems (Glasbergen, 2007; Huxham, 1993), or in search for competitive advantage (Lavie, 2006; Lotia & Hardy, 2008). From an environmental and social perspective, organizations partner to create real change for society and the environment (Koontz, 2006), to address collective social and environmental problems (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Waddock, 1988), and to improve social and environmental conditions and the sustainability of society (Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010).

Accordingly, Gray and Stites (2013) classify reasons for organizations to partner into legitimacy-oriented drivers, referring to motivations for gaining social acceptance that consist of building reputation, image and social licence; competency-oriented drivers that include gaining knowledge, skills and capabilities; resource-oriented drivers such as having access to networks, sharing risks, and gaining financial and social capital; and society-oriented drivers that denote the interest of organizations for making changes in society, including addressing sustainability challenges. Then, it can be argued that organizations partner for internally-oriented goals that contribute to their development and improvement such as being accepted (legitimacy-oriented), possessing knowledge and skills (competency-oriented), and gaining financial or social capital (resource-oriented); and/or organizations partner for society-oriented goals aimed at addressing societal problems.

RBV, a powerful and widely used theory for explaining organizational relationships and competitive advantage (Barney et al., 2011; Hart, 1995), is used in this paper for assessing what the drivers are that encourage organizations to join partnerships. RBV theorists assume that organizations are heterogeneous entities that control unique resources and capabilities to implement their strategies and achieve competitive advantage (e.g. Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984). This assumption is based on the rationale that resources are not mobile across organizations, making them different due to the resources they control (Barney, 1991), which is the case for organizations before joining partnerships. Resources that create sustained competitive advantage are *v*aluable for taking opportunities and/or neutralizing threats from the environment, *r*are among competitors, difficult to *i*mitate, and organizations must be *o*rganized accordingly to exploit their full potential – the VRIO framework (Barney, 1991, 1995).

However, although RBV does identify physical, human, organizational, and financial capitals as resources organizations seek to obtain when partnering (Barney, 1991, 1995), it does not consider socio-environmental motivations to partner (Barney et al., 2011; Hart, 1995). Thus, the types of resources proposed by RBV can be classified as internally-oriented as they are focused on resources needed for the internal operation of organizations. Those not identified by RBV are external or society-oriented, including addressing collective social problems (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Fombrun & Astley, 1983), and the sustainability of society (Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010). These are understood as social and environmental concerns for partners from every sector of society (Darnall & Carmin, 2005; Koontz & Thomas, 2012; M. E. Porter & Kramer, 2011).

Although large CSSPs focusing on sustainability challenges have increased through the years (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Gray & Stites, 2013) as a way to address socio-ecological

challenges (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Crane & Seitanidi, 2014), what remains unclear is which types of drivers are more valuable for organizations to join large partnerships.

Based on the resources literature, most of the reasons for organizations to partner are not society- but internally-oriented. Many scholars have focused on drivers that would improve organizations, grouping them mainly into RBV's and Gray and Stites' (2013) internally-oriented categories. Moreover, it can be argued that among internally-oriented goals, those related to human and organizational resources are more valuable to organizations than those related to financial and physical resources when joining large CSSPs for local sustainability. Thus, the following hypotheses are presented:

Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Organizations that join large CSSPs for local sustainability are driven by internally-oriented goals more than by society-oriented goals.

Hypothesis 4b (H4b): Organizations that join large CSSPs for local sustainability are driven by human/organizational goals more than by financial/physical goals.

5.2.3.2 Structural Features for Addressing Sustainability Challenges

Structures are arrangements of continuing activities, including the implementation of regular roles, procedures, and norms for interaction (Bryson et al., 2006; Ranson et al., 1980) necessary for organizations to succeed in complex environments (Hunger & Wheelen, 2011; Mintzberg, 1980). Structures are composed of two main streams. While formalized structures require hierarchy, staff, and infrastructure for achieving explicit objectives (Weber, 1964), informal structures emerge according to requirements (Blau, 1963), a more flexible approach necessary to

complement formal processes (Ranson et al., 1980). According to contingency theorists, formal structures are developed by organizations that are facing certain situations, while they respond with less formal structures when dealing with uncertain contexts (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

Research on structures highlights the relevance of having a responsible and accountable leader who would shape the organization's environment through working with stakeholders (Clarke, 2011; Gray & Stites, 2013). Scholars also identify highly elaborated and relatively stable roles as important, which should be explicitly defined to be clearly understood by everyone, allowing organizations to deal with the environment in a coordinated manner (March & Simon, 1966). Organizations should focus on activities and not on individuals so they can be continued by others if individuals are replaced, reassigned, or refuse to perform them (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). As well, information systems must be adopted to assess the organization's sustainability, its contribution to community sustainability, what activities to focus on, reducing uncertainty, and focusing on what matters and on which activities to perform (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

With respect to sustainability partnerships, Gray and Stites (2013) highlight as relevant organizational and cultural considerations that influence processes and outcomes affecting the dynamics of the partnerships, time expectations to manage the involvement of organizations in collaborative processes, and goals and a vision aligned with those of the partners. Structures must follow norms and management processes, allowing organizations to contribute to the achievement of the partnership's goals, following accountability criteria for progress assessment, and having processes that consider open participation rules, transparency and consensus criteria in decision-making processes (Gray & Stites, 2013). Finally, the adaptation of organizational policies, practices, performance measurements, information systems, and incentives is also a relevant structural feature (Worley & Mirvis, 2013).

Structural features for organizations implementing community sustainability plans include: refocusing "internal resources on building new programs, processes, and/or external entities" (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016, p. 17), having someone implementing environmental policies (Clarke, 2011; MacDonald, 2016), and developing new processes and structures to approach the demands of the partnership such as new job positions, infrastructure and new processes for addressing their sustainability goals and those of the partnership (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016).

These structural features can be separated into what organizations must possess or control as formal structural features (e.g., people, positions, budget, and infrastructure); and as practices organizations must develop and implement, such as being transparent, open, and flexible, and with plans and policies as informal structural features. From a contingency perspective, it is argued that organizations facing certain situations address them through formalized structures, while those facing complex and unpredicted challenges, such as sustainability (Rittel & Webber, 1973; Rühli et al., 2017), address these problems through informal structures (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). However, it is still unknown which of these two streams of structures are implemented more by organizations in the context of sustainability partnerships. Based on the literature, it can be argued that informal structural features are more important to have than formal structural features when addressing sustainability challenges because complex phenomena require the adoption of more flexible rather than rigid structures, thus leading to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Organizations implement informal structural features more than formal structural features when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability.

5.2.3.3 Outcomes: What Organizations Gain from Partnering for Sustainability

Outcomes that organizations achieve through CSSPs have been classified into distinct categories in the academic literature. When studies examine the goals of partnering organizations, researchers cluster outcomes according to the level of organizational satisfaction in meeting identified drivers, evidence of meeting motivations, enhanced performance in pursuing their own missions, and in satisfying their constituencies (Brinkerhoff, 2002). Similarly, Bryson et al. (2006) group partner outcomes into three levels: those immediately discernible, such as the creation of social, intellectual and political capital; new partnerships, join actions, learning, and the implementation of agreements; and more cooperation among partners, results on the ground, new institutions, norms, and new modes of discourse.

Alternatively, four types of partner outcomes were identified while studying partnerships between businesses and not-for-profits: associational outcomes, including credibility and respect; transferred resources such as money and skills; interaction outcomes like reputation, trust and learning; and synergistic outcomes, including social, environment and economic value (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012). Likewise, management researchers group outcomes as strategic, including securing unique resources that organizations cannot develop alone, creators of knowledge, and political resources such as improving influence on others (Hardy et al., 2003). Others have used RBV, one of the most common approaches, to understand partner outcomes (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014) and cluster the outcomes into physical, financial, human, and organizational capitals (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Just as with drivers, most of the outcomes found by researchers can be considered internally-oriented, especially organizational and human, rather than society-oriented. Thus, it can be argued that organizations achieve more internal- than society-oriented

outcomes, and that organizational and human outcomes are more valuable than financial and physical outcomes.

Although the literature provides some insights into what outcomes organizations achieve through partnerships, what remains unclear is which ones are more valuable to partners in large CSSPs, as most of the research has focused on small partnerships (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Therefore, using the same concepts from Hypotheses 4 on internally- and society-oriented, and based on the literature, the following hypotheses are presented:

Hypothesis 6a (H6a): Organizations value gaining internally-oriented outcomes more than society-oriented outcomes when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability.

Hypothesis 6b (H6b): Organizations value gaining human/organizational outcomes more than financial/physical outcomes when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability.

5.2.3.4 Drivers, Structures, and Outcomes

Strategy literature provides a theoretical perspective on the relationship between goals, structures, and outcomes; however, there is limited research on partner-level activities during large CSSPs for implementing community sustainability plans. Some of the findings from research on CSSPs assert that organizations create structures for achieving outcomes such as learning and relationship building whenever the goals of the partnership are in line with their own goals (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Similarly, MacDonald (2016) found that partners who

make internal structural changes to reach their goals achieve more resources than others who do not. Correspondingly, whenever organizational drivers are matched with key structural features, business and NGO partners make a 'business case', justifying their engagement in partnerships (Gray & Stites, 2013).

5.2.3.4.1 Drivers and Outcomes

From the analysis of the literature, it can be argued that there is a connection between partner drivers and partner outcomes; however, the research is limited. Of the few findings, some show that businesses and NGOs achieve improvements in their reputation levels thanks to partnering, which is one of their main motivations to partner (Gray & Stites, 2013). This paper aims to address the existing gap through the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7 (H7): Organizations achieve what drives them to join large CSSPs for local sustainability.

5.2.3.4.2 Drivers and Structures

With respect to the relationship between drivers and structures for sustainability, the research is also very limited. Some studies have found that organizations making changes in their structures, for example by hiring a sustainability coordinator (a formal feature) or adapting their processes (an informal feature) for reducing GHG emissions (Clarke & MacDonald, 2012), contribute to achieving their sustainability goals (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016). Nevertheless, the relationship between drivers and structural features has not been deeply studied, and what remains unknown

is whether internally- or society-oriented goals lead to the implementation of formal or informal structural features. As mentioned, contingency theory proposes that organizations adapt their structures according to the contexts they face (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Thus, to respond to certain environments, organizations create formal structures, while whenever the environment is less certain and more complex, such as sustainability (Rittel & Webber, 1973; Rühli et al., 2017), they consider informal and more flexible structures (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Therefore, this research presents the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8a (H8a): Organizations implement informal structural features when they are driven by society-oriented goals more than when driven by internally-oriented goals when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability.
Hypothesis 8b (H8b): Organizations implement formal structural features when they are driven by internally-oriented goals more than when driven by society-oriented goals when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability.

5.2.3.4.3 Structures and Outcomes

Finally, on structures and outcomes, the limited research available (Arya & Lin, 2007; Clarke & Fuller, 2010), which is focused primarily on small partnerships (MacDonald, 2016), has determined that when partners make structural changes to get the most value out of a partnership they are more organized towards achieving outcomes than others who do not make structural changes (Schreiner et al., 2009). Others have found that whenever top management and employees are engaged in CSSPs (informal structural feature), the image and reputation of the organization are enhanced, product sales are higher, and companies become more attractive to

potential new employees (internal-outcome) (Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010). Similarly, MacDonald (2016) argues that partners making internal structural changes to support sustainability plan goals, such as creating sustainability positions and departments (formal structural features), or processes like internal communication, reporting or monitoring (informal structural features), achieve more gains than others who do not, finding also that greater investments in the partnership lead to greater outcomes. However, from the literature, it cannot be concluded whether formal or informal structural features lead to internally- or society-oriented outcomes. Then, although based on the limited research and on the literature, the following hypotheses are presented:

Hypothesis 9a (H9a): Organizations achieve society-oriented outcomes through informal structural features more than through formal structural features when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability.
Hypothesis 9b (H9b): Organizations achieve internally-oriented outcomes through formal structural features more than through informal structural features when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability.

5.3 Methods

A quantitative approach was used to study the engagement of organizations partnering in large CSSPs. The study surveyed 224 partnering organizations from across sectors on their drivers to partner, their structural features, and the outcomes they achieved as partners. The selected large CSSPs are implementing community sustainability plans in four cities with a minimum of approximately a hundred partners actively engaged (Waddock, 1988, 1991), have partnered for

around 15 years and plan to remain partnering for at least five more, are from developed countries based on the HDI (United Nations Development Programme, 2016), and each impact between one and two million people (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2016; Statistics Canada, 2017b; United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2016; West of England Local Enterprise Partnership, 2014). Data was collected through a survey online (83%) and onsite (17%) between June 2015 and June 2017. Table 19 shows the large CSSPs considered for this research. Table 20 shows the response rates per partnership and the number of responses per type of organization.

Table 19: Participating Cross-Sector Partnerships

CSSP[71]	Active partners (% of total)	Surveyed partners (% of total)	Working since	Time projection	Population (millions)	HDI
Barcelona + Sustainable	328 (38%)	85 (38%)	2002	2022	1.6	0.88
Bristol Green Capital Partnership	291 (34%)	38 (17%)	2003	2020	1.1	0.91
Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development	99 (12%)	53 (24%)	1995	2021	1.5	0.90
Sustainable Montreal	142 (17%)	48 (21%)	2005	2020	1.6	0.91
Total Partners	860	224				

[71] Names translated into English

Table 20: Responses from the Participating Partnerships

CSSP	Response Rate	Responses per Sector of Organization		
		Private sector	Public sector	Civil society
Barcelona + Sustainable	26%	44%	7%	49%
Bristol Green Capital Partnership	13%	32%	16%	53%
Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development	54%	17%	19%	64%
Sustainable Montreal	34%	27%	33%	40%
Total	26%	32%	17%	51%

A cross-sectional survey was implemented for collecting data from the partners. The survey was designed in English (Appendix I) and translated into French, Korean, and Spanish through a source-to-target language protocol to reduce problems of translation bias (Smith, 2010). The survey contains four sections with 12 main questions split into 30 sub-questions. The sections focus on general information, drivers, structural features, and outcomes. Answering the survey took between 10 and 15 minutes, time considered to be ideal for obtaining a good response rate (Fan & Yan, 2010). The survey was validated through an organized review of its content by experts who piloted a similar survey in English and French (Bohrnstedt, 2010).

No response bias was found through wave analysis methods (variances can be assumed to be equal between groups with $p > .05$, Levene's test) by comparing the 15% of organizations who responded first (early respondents) with the 15% who responded last (late respondents) on key questions on drivers, structures, and outcomes (Lewis et al., 2013) (Appendix III). The same method was used to determine the existence of response bias among partnerships considering that the distribution of responses is not equal (Table 19). Results show that variances can be

assumed to be equal (Levene's test) among every pair of partnerships ($p \geq .05$). Then, when testing for equality of means, it was confirmed that there are not significant differences among the partnerships ($p \geq .04$), with a significance level set at .01 (Appendix IV). Similarly, response bias was tested among types of organizations since these are not homogeneously distributed in terms of responses (Table 20). Results from random samples of 15% of organizations per type show no statistical significant differences among respondents from civil society, private and public organizations on drivers, structures, and outcomes ($p > .05$) (Appendix V). Internal consistency was determined through Cronbach's α coefficients on every question on drivers, structural features, and outcomes, all reaching over 70%, which is considered a threshold for good reliability (Cronbach, 1951; Litwin, 1995).

As the total number of active organizations was 860, the determined sample size was 246 (Cochran, 1977)[72]. However, since the sample size is larger than 5% of the total number of organizations[73], the corrected sample size formula by Cochran (1977)[74] was used to calculate the final sample size equalling to 191 organizations (Bartlett et al., 2001).

The units of analysis were the partner organizations, 65% of which are very small organizations (1 – 50 employees), 3% are small (51 – 99 employees), 12% medium sized (100 – 499 employees), and 20% large (500+ employees); 20% have partnered for more than 10 years, 25% between 5 and 10, 46% more than 1 and less than 5, and 9% less than 1 year; and most of them partner voluntarily (88%). Those who responded the survey were mostly at the senior level[75]

[72] $n_0 = 246$; $n_0 = \frac{Z^2 \times p \times (1-p)}{e^2}$; $Z = 1.96$ for 95% confidence internal, $p = 0.8$ representing homogeneity in the population (Israel, 1992), and $e = 5\%$ as acceptable error

[73] $n_0 = 246 > 5\%$ of $860 = 43$

[74] $n_1 = \frac{n_0}{1+\frac{(n_0-1)}{N}} = 191$; N = 860

[75] Including board members, CEOs, senior administrators, owners, and business partners

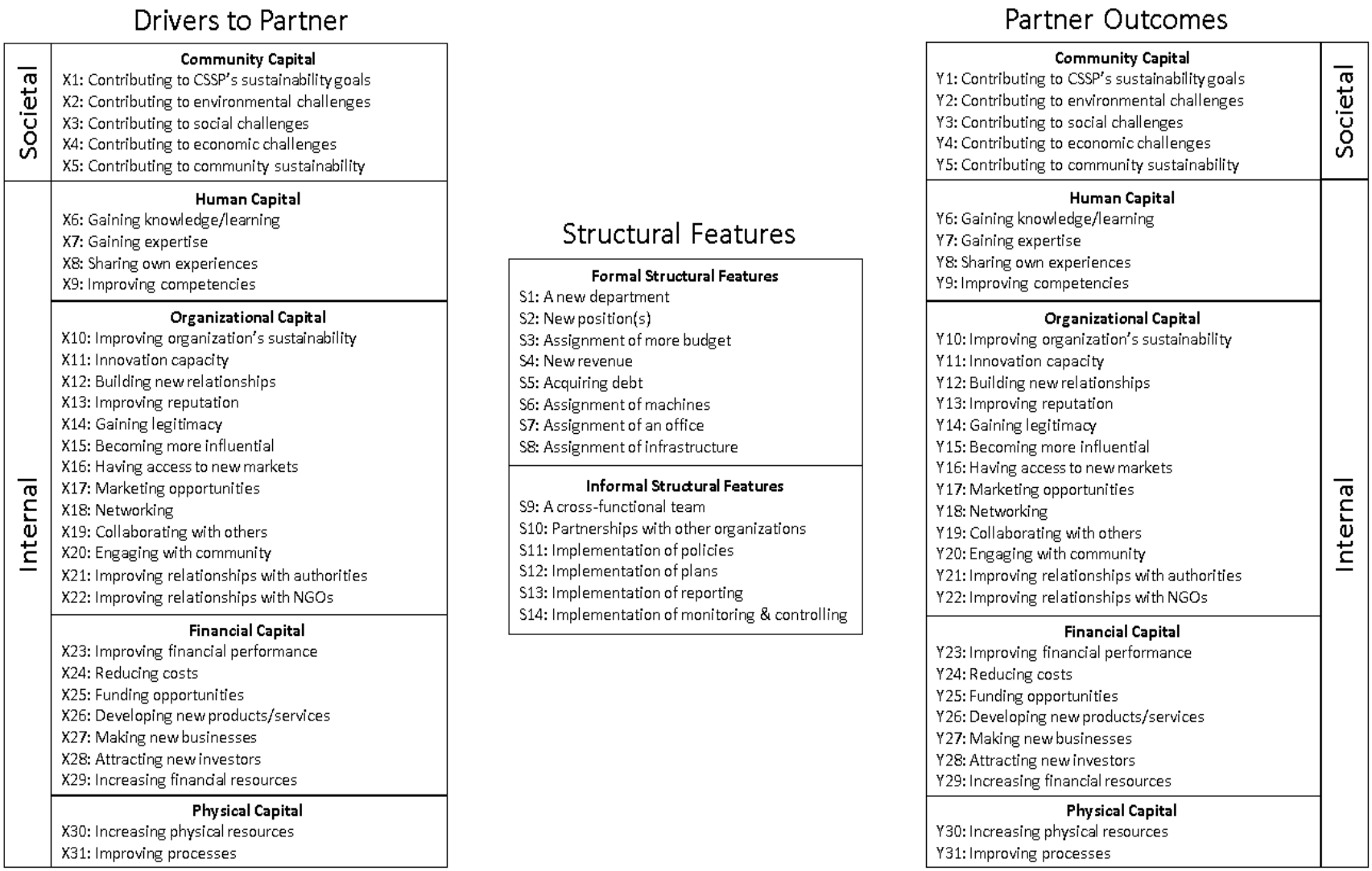
(51%), middle managers (26%), or junior staff (9%)[76]. The data collection process included an initial stage of sending a web link to all the partners inviting them to respond to the survey online. Then, with the aim of improving the response rates and reducing non-response error (Dillman et al., 2009), an onsite process was implemented through surveyors trained to follow procedure, reducing potential influence on respondents (Smith, 2010). The total number of organizations surveyed was 224 (83% responding to the survey online and 17% onsite), representing a response rate[77] of 26%, which is higher than that needed for generalizing.

The dataset with the responses was coded as presented in Figure 13, and means were considered for categories of capitals and features, assigning the same weight to every question.

[76] 3% are external advisors and 11% selected the other option

[77] Those who responded to the survey out of those who could have responded (Dixon & Tucker, 2010; Fowler, 2002)

Figure 13: Drivers to Partner, Structural Features, and Partner Outcomes Classified as Internal or Societal Oriented



For testing H4a, means of society-oriented drivers (those under community capital) and internally-oriented drivers (those classified as human, organizational, financial, and physical capitals) were calculated to create two composite indexes. For testing H4b, means were calculated on human and organizational capitals, and financial and physical capitals, creating two composite indexes. For H5, a composite index was created using means on formal structural features and another on informal structural features. For H6a and H6b composite indexes were created similar to those of H4a and H4b, respectively. H7 was tested through the means of drivers and outcomes. H8 used the same composite indexes used for H4a and H5; and H9, those used for H5 and H6a. Codes were used for statistical purposes as shown in Figure 13, X_i and Y_i (i from 1 to 31) for drivers and outcomes; and S_j (j from 1 to 14) for structural features. Tests were run on IBM® SPSS®.

5.4 Results

Paired samples statistics were used to test H4a, H4b, H5, H6a, and H6b, with a significance level set at .05. H4a results show that there is strong evidence against the hypothesis that internally-oriented goals drive organizations more than society-oriented goals, $t(223) > 1.96$, $p < .05$, with a difference of the means statistically significant in favour of society-oriented goals (Appendix VI). With respect to H4b, the results show strong evidence to support the hypothesis that human/organizational goals are more valuable drivers than financial/physical goals, $t(223) > 1.96$, $p < .05$, with a statistically significant difference of the means (Appendix VII). More specifically, the descriptive results show that community ($M = 1.70$, $SD = 0.84$) goals are the most valuable drivers for organizations to join partnerships, followed by human ($M = 1.90$, $SD =$

0.88), organizational (M = 2.02, SD = 1.02), physical (M = 3.01, SD = 1.20), and financial goals (M = 3.10, SD = 1.27) (Appendix VIII).

On structural features (H5), the results show strong evidence to support the hypothesis that informal structural features are implemented more than formal structural features when implementing collaborative strategies as partners of large CSSPs for local sustainability, $t(133) > 1.96$, $p < .05$, with a difference of the means statistically significant (Appendix IX). Details on structural features show that all informal structural features (M = 1.48, SD = 0.50) are implemented more than the formal structural features (M = 1.86, SD = 0.35) (Appendix X).

With respect to H6a, the results show that organizations value more society-oriented outcomes than internally-oriented outcomes, $t(198) > 1.96$, $p < .05$, with a difference of the means statistically significant, rejecting the hypothesis (Appendix XI). Similarly, on H6b it was found that organizations value more human/organizational outcomes than financial/physical outcomes, supporting the hypothesis through strong evidence, $t(198) > 1.96$, $p < .05$, with a statistically significant difference of the means (Appendix XII). Detailed results show that community capitals are the most valuable outcomes (M = 2.19, SD = 1.04), followed by human (M = 2.20, SD = 1.02), organizational (M = 2.42, SD = 1.11), physical (M = 3.31, SD = 1.20), and financial capitals (M = 3.45, SD = 1.18) (Appendix XIII).

For testing H7, a linear regression analysis test was adopted. The results show that there is strong evidence that the drivers for organizations to partner are achieved as outcomes, $R^2 = .92$, $F(1, 29) > 4.18$, $t(30) > 2.04$, $p < .05$, with a significance level set at .05 (Appendix XIV). Multiple regression analyses were adopted to test H8a and H8b, finding no evidence that internal drivers nor societal drivers have any effect on informal or formal structural features, $R^2 = .00$, $F(1, 131) < 3.92$, $t(132) < 1.98$, $p > .05$, with a significance level set at .05 (Appendix XV). For testing H9a

and H9b, regression analyses were adopted. The results show that there is no evidence to support the hypotheses, R^2 = .04 (H9a), R^2 = .06 (H9b), $F(1, 128) < 3.92$, $t(129) < 1.96$, $p > .05$, with a significance level set at .05 (Appendix XVI).

5.5 Discussion and Conclusions

This research has five main findings: 1) Community drivers, i.e., those related to the sustainability of society, are the most valuable drivers to organizations, more than internal drivers such as obtaining human, organizational, financial, or physical resources; 2) community outcomes are the most valuable outcomes for organizations; 3) human and organizational drivers, as well as outcomes, are more valuable than financial and physical drivers and outcomes; 4) there is a high correlation between what drives organizations to partner and what outcomes organizations gain from partnering; and 5) organizations implement informal structural features more than formal structural features.

According to the literature, organizations partner mainly for such strategic reasons as acquiring resources (Ansell & Gash, 2008; Lotia & Hardy, 2008), for knowledge (Butler, 2001), to improve their legitimacy (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Gray & Stites, 2013), as well as for competencies that would improve their competitive advantage (Selsky & Parker, 2005), with little relevance given to societal drivers. Actually, RBV classifies resources according to four internally-focused groups (Barney, 1991, 1995) without considering socio-ecological resources (Barney et al., 2011; Hart, 1995), something Gray and Stites (2013) do consider as one of their groups. Furthermore, little research has been done on how organizations value drivers. While this research has found that most of these internal drivers are relatively valuable to organizations, it has also found that organizations declare valuing community drivers more than any other kind of

driver to join sustainability partnerships, with human and organizational drivers being more valuable than financial and physical drivers. Although these declarations can be an attempt to greenwash their actions through self-reporting (Lyon & Montgomery, 2015), they could also be taken as positive news for those leading sustainability partnerships, representing what could be a real commitment to community sustainability and an opportunity for improving the impact organizations can make on the natural environment and their relationships with society. However, economic considerations, also sustainability-related, are not declared to be highly valuable, which can be interpreted as not seeing partnerships as a means for addressing economic challenges at the community level. Certainly, it would be wrong to think that organizations do not care about economic considerations, it is just that sustainability partnerships seem not to be seen by organizations as a place for them to achieve, nor to contribute, to community's economic goals. In accord with this finding, financial drivers are declared to be the least valuable for organizations. These findings contribute to the resources literature by highlighting the relevance of society-focused drivers as the most valuable reasons for organizations to engage in partnerships, highlighting as well that human and organizational drivers, especially those society-related such as sharing own experiences and engaging with the community, are more valuable for organizations than physical and financial drivers.

Similarly, researchers to date have mainly focused on internally-oriented outcomes as grouped by RBV (Barney, 1991, 1995), without analysing the value assigned to them by organizations. The findings from the present research show that community outcomes are the most valuable outcomes for organizations, followed by human and organizational over physical and financial outcomes. Community outcomes are those classified by Austin and Seitanidi (2012) as synergistic outcomes, which have had little attention on the literature. The relevance discovered

by this research on community outcomes is another contribution to the resources literature and specifically to RBV, highlighting that synergistic outcomes are the most valuable outcomes for organizations.

Another contribution is the relationship found between drivers and outcomes. This research has found that drivers and outcomes highly correlate (R^2 = .92), i.e., the value assigned to a resource as a driver highly matches the value assigned to the same resource once this has been achieved, i.e. once it becomes an outcome. According to these results, organizations join large sustainability partnerships mainly for contributing to society, and achieving those goals is what they value the most. These findings are relevant with respect to the power of large partnerships, considering it as a major asset the fact that organizations can achieve their goals through large partnerships, which is consistent with 95% of organizations declaring having achieved no negative outcomes. The practical implications of these findings are that partnerships are not only a powerful way for organizations to join others with the purpose of contributing to society and achieve positive outcomes, but also a way to achieve their main goals of contributing to society. These findings should be considered by those leading sustainability partnerships highlighting the value these partnerships bring to organizations, confirming that their aims and the goals the partnerships are pursuing are aligned with those of their partner organizations with respect to contributing to society. Similarly, thanks to these findings organizations can confirm that large sustainability partnerships are a powerful way where they cannot only contribute but also achieve their goals for helping society address their sustainability challenges.

Contingency theory proposes that organizations adapt their structures according to the environments they face, asserting that they would face uncertain, complex and dynamic environments through informal structures (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). The current research

confirms this idea through the finding that organizations are structured through informal features more than through formal features when addressing sustainability partnerships. In fact, it was found that organizations implement all the proposed informal structural features more than any of the presented formal structural features, highlighting the relevance of more flexible (Ranson et al., 1980) and adaptable informal features (Blau, 1963) to requirements from complex and uncertain contexts such as sustainability (Rühli et al., 2017). These findings are consistent with researchers who highlight informal features such as roles, activities, processes, plans, policies, and systems (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; March & Simon, 1966; Worley & Mirvis, 2013). Conversely, organizations do not prioritize formal features such as having new positions, more budget, a new department, or assigning infrastructure. In conclusion, organizations address sustainability by doing and by being flexible rather than by having and being rigid. One interpretation is that organizations are flexible when facing sustainability by adapting their processes, but not by investing or spending their economic resources, which coincides with not finding financial drivers valuable reasons to partner. However, it is not clear from the findings whether organizations do not invest economic resources in structures for sustainability to use those resources on "more" business-related issues, because they see and understand sustainability as a matter to be approached by flexible and adaptive management processes, or because they rely on the power of large partnerships including the contribution of other partners, to achieve their goals, questions to be considered for further research. Practical implications of these findings on structural features would help other organizations to understand how to address sustainability partnerships, results which are supported by the high correlation found between organizations most valuable drives and their similar most valuable outcomes.

Finally, this research found no evidence to support the relationships between drivers and structural features, and structural features and outcomes. Even though informal structural features have been found to be the most valuable to organizations when partnering for sustainability, having found no relationship between them and drivers or outcomes, leaves these questions unanswered. Considering the very high correlation between drivers and outcomes and finding no relationships between these and structures leads one to wonder how this happens. One interpretation is that structures, which are certainly in place, are necessary[78] from a theoretical perspective, but not sufficient[78] to achieve goals. It seems that outcomes are achieved thanks to the collective value created through large partnerships and the engagement of the partners. The environmental context provided by large sustainability partnerships seems to be another of the necessary conditions for organizations to achieve their goals, a potential strength of large partnerships left for future research to look at. Further research is also necessary to understand whether formal structural features have any effect on final outcomes since the organizations studied in this research are mostly informally structured.

Findings from this research help expand the resources literature from an almost exclusive internal focus to one that considers society, the community, and sustainability as the most valuable drivers for organizations to partner and as the most valuable outcomes achieved thanks to partnering. These findings lead to perhaps the main contribution of this paper, that organizations join sustainability partnerships not to get something exclusively for themselves, but mainly to contribute to the sustainability of society. Additionally, human and organizational resources, which are currently considered by the literature as being similar to financial and physical resources, should also be elevated to a higher category in terms of value for

[78] Necessary: a condition that must be met for an outcome to occur. Sufficient: a condition that can bring about an outcome (Leischnig et al., 2017)

organizations, behind those focused on society. Based on the results it can be argued that organizations are social entities playing their societal role through large partnerships that help them contribute to the achievement of their societal goals.

Finally, this research contributes to the analysis on whether organizations achieve their goals through large partnerships, opening the door as well to deeper analyses of informal structures in the context of organizations facing uncertain wicked contexts.

Additional to the further research already mentioned, it would be a worthwhile contribution to explore and understand the distinctions among businesses', NGOs' and government agencies' drivers, structural features, and outcomes for addressing sustainability partnerships.

Chapter 6

6. Business Contributions to the Achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals: From Local to Global Sustainability – Paper 3

6.1 Introduction

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), launched by the United Nations in agreement with 195 countries in September 2015 (United Nations Development Programme, 2018), are the most universal and broad agreement achieved between governments on socio-ecological challenges (George et al., 2016), presenting a common vision of progress for a safe, just and sustainable future for all (Osborn et al., 2015). The SDGs are universal since they impact all human beings as well as with respect to those responsible for their achievement (Osborn et al., 2015), including governments, organizations from the civil society and, in particular, businesses (Sachs, 2012).

Businesses have increasingly joined with organizations from other sectors of society to address sustainability challenges (George et al., 2016; LaFrance & Lehmann, 2005), without whom the SDGs will not be achieved (Moore, 2015; Sachs, 2012). They have worldwide reach, access to cutting-edge technologies, and the capacity to develop large-scale solutions; all essential features to address the SDGs (Sachs, 2012). Businesses comprise perhaps the most powerful organization that exists (Davis & Marquis, 2005; Googins & Rochlin, 2000), becoming "an increasingly dominant social institution", getting involved not just in economic matters, but also in social and environmental affairs (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014, p. 3). By partnering to address sustainability challenges, they go beyond business-as-usual (Leisinger, 2015), assuming a commitment to the improvement of society (Loza, 2004).

Cities are one scale of implementation for the achievement of sustainability goals. As stated by the former UN Deputy Secretary-General Jan Eliasson at the Mayor's Forum of the World Cities Summit in New York in 2015, "the battle for sustainable development will be won – or lost" in cities (Eliasson, 2015, p. 1), confirming what the United Nations proposed through Local Agenda 21 (LA21) in 1992. LA21 was proposed as an action plan at local levels "in every area in which human impacts on the environment" (UN-DESA, 2015, p. 1), seeking the integration of environment and development concerns for the fulfillment of basic needs, the improvement of living standards for all, better protected and managed ecosystems and a safer, more prosperous future (United Nations, 1992). Furthermore, as a way to address these challenges, LA21 guidance documents urged each local government to enter "into a dialogue with its citizens, local organizations and private enterprises" (United Nations, 1992, para. 28.3). Since then, over 10,000 communities around the world have adopted LA21s or their equivalent to address their respective sustainability issues (Garcia-Sanchez & Prado-Lorenzo, 2008; Rok & Kuhn, 2012), with many of them partnering with organizations from across sectors to design and implement local sustainability strategies (MacDonald et al., 2018). These local initiatives implement sustainable development at the community level contributing to their global achievement (Griggs et al., 2013), with private, public and civil society organizations as fundamental actors working in partnerships for the achievement of local SDGs (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Worley & Mirvis, 2013).

Considering the importance of businesses in the global arena, this paper aims to understand businesses engagement in local sustainability partnerships through studying their drivers to join partnerships, their adapted structural features, and the outcomes they gain from partnering, linking businesses to the SDGs. While the findings from this research help sustainability leaders

improve the engagement of businesses in local sustainability partnerships and from there contribute to the global SDGs, these results are also useful for the business community to understand why, how and what their peers gain from partnering for sustainability.

6.2 Literature

6.2.1 The Sustainable Development Goals

On September 2015, 195 countries agreed to 17 SDGs as part of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations Development Programme, 2018). The SDGs are all integrated and indivisible, balancing the social, environmental, and economic dimensions of sustainable development (United Nations, 2015). The SDGs are interdependent according to specific contexts, with governance (SDG#16) and global partnerships (SDG#17) playing a key role in their accomplishment (Capon et al., 2017). While SDG#16 proposes that "without peace, stability, human rights and effective governance" sustainable development cannot be achieved, SDG#17 assures that the SDGs can only be achieved through "global partnership and cooperation" (United Nations Development Programme, 2018, p. 1). Similarly, some researchers argue that local partnerships are key for community sustainable development (e.g. Clarke & Ordonez-Ponce, 2017; Crane & Seitanidi, 2014; Selsky & Parker, 2005) and that, considering the existence of thousands of local sustainability partnerships in the world (Garcia-Sanchez & Prado-Lorenzo, 2008; Rok & Kuhn, 2012), their aggregation contributes to the achievement of the global goals.

6.2.2 Partnerships for Community Sustainability

Thousands of local governments have understood the challenge of achieving sustainable development and have invited organizations from across sectors to partner for the sustainability of their cities (Rok & Kuhn, 2012), recognizing partnerships as a way to address and achieve their sustainability goals (Clarke & Fuller, 2010; Koontz et al., 2004). Partnerships can be defined as a configuration of stakeholders from the public, private and civil society that work in collaboration for the achievement of common social and/or environmental goals (Glasbergen, 2007; Gray & Stites, 2013; Waddock, 1988). They represent a "pluralistic approach" through the involvement of different stakeholders contributing with their strengths for addressing societal needs (Glasbergen, 2007, p. 1). Partnerships present an opportunity for businesses to address public pressure and expectations on social responsibility, for NGOs to be more efficient and accountable, and for governments to provide more benefits and services while improving transparency (Selsky & Parker, 2005).

There are various types of partnerships. Some are led by governments in collaboration with businesses and the civil society, others by private stakeholders in partnership with the public sector, and others are between businesses and NGOs, differing in number of partners, geographic scope, time frame, functions, focuses, and funding sources (Glasbergen, 2007). This research investigates partnerships led by local governments with an approximate minimum of a hundred partners from the three sectors of society working collaboratively for at least 15 years for community sustainability, with businesses as one of the key players. These partnerships have been termed cross-sector social partnerships (CSSPs) in the literature, being specifically focused on social, economic, and environmental issues of common concern for the partners (Selsky & Parker, 2005; Waddock, 1991). Common issues of concern addressed through community

sustainability partnerships include economic development, unemployment (MacDonald et al., 2018), education (Waddock, 1991), health care, poverty alleviation/financial security, environmental issues (Selsky & Parker, 2005) such as water, air and ecological diversity (MacDonald et al., 2018), climate change, corruption, organized crime (Crane & Seitanidi, 2014), safety (MacDonald et al., 2018), and sustainability challenges (Clarke & Fuller, 2010) such as energy, waste, transportation, land use, food security and social infrastructure (MacDonald et al., 2018). These local sustainability challenges overlap the SDGs.

6.2.3 Businesses Partnering for Sustainability

Businesses are key players in the challenge of achieving sustainable development goals (Moore, 2015). However, little is known on the value businesses assign to their drivers to join local sustainability partnerships and the outcomes they gain from partnering, as well as on which structural features they implement the most when partnering. This understanding is crucial for those leading sustainability partnerships, so they can actively engage businesses in light of the importance assigned to their reasons to partner and to what they obtain from partnering, considering as well how they structure to address sustainability partnerships. Through these features, businesses are not only better understood, but they can be also better engaged improving their contributions and the chances for sustainability partnerships to achieve their goals.

6.2.3.1 Business Drivers for Sustainability

Partnering organizations are key actors whose performance would decide the failure or success of a partnership, which according to many scholars engage in partnerships for strategic reasons

(e.g. Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lin & Darnall, 2015; Wassmer et al., 2014). However, traditional strategic approaches that characterize the environment[79] as an exogenous entity are not appropriate, as organizations are not independent of their environment, but components of it (Astley, 1984). Then, in order to achieve their strategic purposes and survive the threats of their environments, organizations must understand the new relationships they are getting involved in (Fombrun & Astley, 1983). Organizations engaged in CSSPs need collaborative strategies, the "joint determination of the vision and long-term collaborative goals for addressing a given social problem, along with the adoption of both organizational and collective courses of action and the allocation of resources to carry out these courses of action" (Clarke & Fuller, 2010, p. 86).

Drivers for organizations to engage in CSSPs are one of the key factors in the success of any collaboration (Ansell & Gash, 2008). Organizations partner with the purpose of obtaining tangible and specific benefits (Waddock, 1989) looking for collaborative advantages they cannot achieve on their own (Glasbergen, 2007; Huxham, 1993), partnering only if is not possible to get "what they want without collaborating" (Bryson et al., 2006, p. 45), with businesses partnering to improve their reputation and reduce their environmental footprint (Gray & Stites, 2013).

One of the views for studying the involvement of organizations in partnerships is from a resource perspective (Gray & Stites, 2013; Selsky & Parker, 2005), arguing that organizations partner mainly for obtaining resources they need to survive and succeed. The resource-based view (RBV), one of the most used and powerful theories to understand organizational relationships and competitive advantage (Barney et al., 2011; Barrutia & Echebarria, 2015), assumes that firms are heterogeneous possessing a bundle of resources such as technical know-how,

[79] Environment refers to organizational context and not just the natural environment

management skills, capital, and reputation (Barney, 1991). From an RBV perspective, organizations join partnerships either when they are in vulnerable strategic positions so they need additional resources that can be gained thanks to partnerships, or when they are in good positions to engage and attract other partners (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996). Through RBV, resources are clustered into four types of capitals: physical (technology, machines, and facilities), human (experience, knowledge, training and wisdom), organizational (relationships, trust and culture), and financial capitals (debt, equity, and earnings), as resources organizations aim to obtain (Barney, 1991, 1995). However, RBV does not consider socio-environmental drivers to partner (Barney et al., 2011; Hart, 1995) such as those focusing on collective social problems (Clarke & Fuller, 2010), the constraints and challenges that nature places on businesses (Barney et al., 2011), or the sustainability of society (Kolk et al., 2010). These resources are socio-environmental concerns for partner organizations from every sector of society (Darnall & Carmin, 2005; Koontz & Thomas, 2012; M. E. Porter & Kramer, 2011). MacDonald (2016) contributes to the understanding of these resources in the context of RBV through shared capital, which refers to partnerships outcomes and the ability of the partners to influence them (Clarke, 2014). This research uses the term community capitals.

Some scholars argue that businesses partner for two main reasons: a utilitarian or strategic rationale, or an altruistic or social perspective (e.g. Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Vurro et al., 2010). The utilitarian or strategic view argues that businesses partner to have access to new markets and improve their current positions (Googins & Rochlin, 2000; Lotia & Hardy, 2008), to improve their reputation, legitimacy, image and status (Gray & Stites, 2013), or to gain knowledge, training and expertise (Kolk et al., 2010). Businesses also partner to control physical (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996), human (Kolk et al., 2010), organizational (Lotia & Hardy,

2008), and financial resources (Gray & Stites, 2013), to respond to socio-environmental pressures (Lin & Darnall, 2015), or to improve their strategic positions and in search for competitive advantage (Lavie, 2006; Selsky & Parker, 2005). Alternatively, from the social or altruistic perspective, businesses partner to be more socially and environmentally responsible (Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010), to address social and environmental problems (Clarke & Fuller, 2010), or to improve the sustainability of society (Gray & Stites, 2013).

Based on the academic literature, it can be argued that a certain bias exists towards business-related drivers, versus society-related motivations to partner. Research to date has focused more on internally-oriented drivers, those that contribute to business development, while there is only limited research on societal-oriented drivers without the explicitness and breadth given to internal drivers. Since the SDGs are society-oriented (United Nations Development Programme, 2018), it becomes relevant to understand whether businesses join sustainability partnerships with the aim of improving their own business and/or for contributing to the sustainable development of society. Additionally, research has mainly focused on drivers for organizations to join small, short-term partnerships, but not to engage in large partnerships with a long-term approach (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016), which are the partnerships under study in this research.

6.2.3.2 Business Structural Features for Sustainability

Structures are a key consideration for organizations to be effective (Mintzberg, 1980), playing a fundamental role in matching organizational strategy with the environment (Andrews, 1980; Hunger & Wheelen, 2011). Structures can be defined as the continuing and regular arrangement of roles, procedures, norms, and interactions (Bryson et al., 2006; Ranson et al., 1980) towards

the achievement of goals (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Organizations shape their agendas based on their structures, as these affect what they do through the determination of influence, power, and resources (Huxham & Vangen, 2000).

Organizational structures can be clustered into two types: formal and informal. Formal structures are based on a rational perspective (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Weber, 1964), consisting of a hierarchical authority, a specialised administrative staff and differential compensatory rewards, emphasizing performance towards limited objectives (Weber, 1964). Formal organizational structures are "systems of coordinated and controlled activities" (Meyer & Rowan, 1977, p. 340). Informal structures for their part occur according to requirements (Blau, 1963), using a more flexible approach focused on what people do (Ranson et al., 1980) such as implementing policies or partnering with others, which is a necessary complement to formal structures (Barnard, 1968). From a contingency perspective, organizations structure themselves formally to address certain and institutionalised environments (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Meyer & Rowan, 1977), while they develop informal structures whenever the contexts they face are uncertain (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

Organizations need structural features to achieve their goals including having a responsible and accountable leader (Gray & Stites, 2013) - especially sustainability-focused (Clarke, 2011) -, detailed, relatively stable and clear roles (March & Simon, 1966), and information systems to assess the organization's performance focusing on activities and not on individuals (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Organizations partnering for sustainability must be structured to follow norms and management processes for contributing to the partnership's goals, assessing progress, with open participation rules, transparency and consensus criteria in decision-making processes (Gray & Stites, 2013). Adequate policies, practices, performance measurements, and incentives are also

needed (Worley & Mirvis, 2013). Organizations must have the capacity of refocusing resources to new programs, processes or to the creation of new entities and of designing new structures to address the demands of the partnership, including new job positions, infrastructure and processes for achieving their sustainability goals and those of the partnership (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016).

Structural features are a fundamental consideration when addressing sustainability as a measure of success and organizational survival. However, there is no clear evidence whether businesses are structured formally or informally when implementing the goals of sustainability partnerships. Nevertheless, it can be argued that informal structures are needed for addressing a "wicked problem" (Dentoni et al., 2016; Rühli et al., 2017) such as sustainability, and for tackling a "grand challenge" such as the SDGs (George et al., 2016).

6.2.3.3 Business Outcomes from Sustainability Partnering

Clarke and Fuller (2010) identify six types of outcomes potentially achieved from partnering, one of which are partner-centric outcomes, i.e., those which change the organizational behaviour or the structure of the partners.

Outcomes achieved by organizations are clustered into different groups. When compared to organizations' objectives for partnering, outcomes are grouped into levels of satisfaction in meeting objectives, evidence of meeting goals, enhanced performance in pursuing the organizations' missions, and on satisfying stakeholders (Brinkerhoff, 2002). They have also been clustered according to their level of visibility such as the creation of social, intellectual or political capital; new partnerships, join actions, learning and the implementation of agreements; and increased cooperation with partners, concrete results, and the formation of new institutions,

norms and discourse modes (Bryson et al., 2006). Alternatively, they are classified as associational outcomes such as credibility and respect; transferable outcomes including money and skills; interaction outcomes like reputation and trust; and synergistic outcomes such as social, environmental and economic value (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012).

From a management perspective, outcomes are considered strategic resources that organizations cannot develop alone, knowledge generators, or political resources for influencing others (Hardy et al., 2003). Finally, RBV groups them according to three categories, identifying cost savings, funding, improved efficiency, accessing new markets, and risks sharing as physical/financial outcomes (Arya & Lin, 2007; Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lavie, 2006); building relationships, social capital, improved reputation and influence, having access to marketing opportunities and increasing impact on community sustainability as organizational outcomes (Clarke & MacDonald, 2016; Hardy et al., 2003; Seitanidi & Crane, 2009); and gained knowledge and learning as human outcomes (Arya & Lin, 2007; Hardy et al., 2003; Selsky & Parker, 2005).

Another notable gap in the literature is that most research has focused its attention on outcomes that improve business (internal-outcomes), with limited attention paid to those improving the conditions of society (societal-outcomes), which is the main aim of the SDGs.

This research contributes to understanding how drivers, structures, and outcomes for businesses partnering for community sustainability relate to the SDGs through understanding the value for businesses of internal and societal drivers, of internal and societal outcomes, and whether formal or informal structures are most utilized by businesses implementing local sustainability goals. Through understanding this relationship, a strategic picture of business engagement in

sustainability partnerships can be envisioned, providing a meaningful contribution to the academic understanding of businesses engaged in sustainability partnerships.

6.3 Methods

This research focuses on the analysis of business partners at four large sustainability partnerships: Barcelona + Sustainable from Barcelona, Spain; Bristol Green Capital Partnership from Bristol, UK; Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development from Gwangju, South Korea; and Sustainable Montreal from Montreal, Canada. The selection of the partnerships was based on the following criteria: (1) CSSPs implementing community sustainability plans with a minimum of approximately one hundred partner organizations from across sectors, including businesses; (2) CSSPs with time horizons of more than fifteen years; (3) CSSPs impacting communities of between one and two million people; (4) from developed countries according to the HDI (United Nations Development Programme, 2016); and (5) with business partners actively engaged (Waddock, 1988, 1991) and willing to participate in this research. Table 21 shows the selected partnerships. These criteria enable large partnerships to be studied in comparable contexts (i.e., developed economies, mid-sized global cities). The length of the partnerships ensures samples can be shared, and the size ensures a wide spectrum of businesses involved.

Table 21: Participating Cross-Sector Partnerships based on the Selection Criterion

Partnership Name[80] (City, Country)	Total active partners	Active business partners	Working since	Time projection	Impacted population[81] (millions)	HDI
Barcelona + Sustainable (Barcelona, Spain)	328	156	2002	2022	1.6	0.87
Bristol Green Capital Partnership (Bristol, UK)	291	146	2003	2020	1.1	0.91
Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development (Gwangju, South Korea)	99	20	1995	2021	1.5	0.90
Sustainable Montreal (Montreal, Canada)	142	45	2005	2020	1.7	0.91

Characteristics of the sampled businesses include: 53% are very small (1 – 50 employees), 1% are small (51 – 99 employees), 21% medium sized (100 – 499 employees), and 24% are large businesses (500+ employees); 17% have partnered for more than 10 years, 18% between 5 and 10, 50% more than 1 and less than 5, and 15% less than 1 year; and most of them partner voluntarily (94%). Representatives from the businesses who responded the survey were mostly at the senior level[82] (49%) and are middle managers (30%)[83]. In simple terms, respondents are businesses with less than 50 or more than 100 employees, partnering largely voluntarily and mostly for more than a year and less than 5.

[80] Names translated into English
[81] Population does not necessarily refer to the population of the city, but that of the partnerships' geographic impact area
[82] Including board members, CEOs, senior administrators, owners, and business partners
[83] 7% were junior staff, 4% were external advisors and 10% selected the other option

6.3.1 Data Collection

6.3.1.1 Drivers, Structures, and Outcomes

A cross-sectional survey was directed at business partners to collect data on drivers, structures, and outcomes. The survey was designed in English and translated into French, Korean and Spanish. A source-to-target language protocol was used to reduce translation bias using common organizational and sustainability terminology, and no idiomatic statements (Smith, 2010). The survey was designed into four sections. The first focused on general information such as size, number of employees, economic sector, and area linked to the partnerships; the second asked about the drivers for businesses to join sustainability partnerships, the third on their structural features; and the fourth asked about their outcomes. According to the literature, the second and fourth sections were organized into five types of capital: community, human, organizational, financial, and physical, and the section of structures was clustered into formal and informal structural features. Businesses were asked to value drivers and outcomes based on a Likert scale from 1: very valuable to 5: no value, and structural features with 1 for implemented or 2 for not implemented. Data were collected between June 2015 and June 2017, first through an online version of the survey that reached 85% of the responses and then, a second stage was completed in person. In total 71 businesses were surveyed, corresponding to 19% of the total active business partners in the four partnerships.

6.3.2 Data Analysis

Qualitative content analysis was used for answering the question: what is the relationship between businesses partnering for local sustainability and the SDGs? Qualitative content analysis is a systematic process for interpreting information through clustering it according to concepts or

categories (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). This research used content analysis in a deductive way, i.e., through systemized analyses (Patton, 2002; Schilling, 2006) according to the literature on the SDGs, and on businesses' drivers and outcomes. To answer the question complementing the qualitative analysis, businesses' drivers, structural features, and outcomes were quantitatively assessed identifying the most valuable drivers and outcomes, and the most implemented structural features for businesses.

6.3.2.1 Businesses Partnering for Local Sustainability and the SDGs

To explore the relationships between businesses and the SDGs, two steps were taken:

a) Survey

Responses to the survey from businesses were analysed according to values assigned by businesses to questions on drivers, structural features, and outcomes. Means and standard deviations were calculated per question. Those closest to 1 (very valuable) for drivers and outcomes, and closest to 1 (structural feature implemented) on structural features were selected.

b) Documentation

(1) The document with the SDGs' descriptions and their targets was analysed looking for opportunities for businesses to achieve their drivers. As an example, businesses can achieve their driver "improving reputation" by partnering for reducing poverty (SDG#1 - No Poverty); (2) A structured categorization matrix (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008) was built with the SDGs as columns and businesses drivers as rows; (3) When a driver was found to be achieved by addressing the respective SDGs, a mark was set at the respective intersection of drivers and SDGs (Yin, 2014). (4) Then data reduction was developed to determine patterns according to the five capitals presented by the literature: community, human, organizational, financial, and physical.

While a similar process was followed to match SDGs with outcomes, the document with the SDGs and their targets was analysed looking at business-level outcomes from joining a local sustainability partnership as contributors to the achievement of the SDGs. Intersections were established crossing outcomes that would contribute to the SDGs. An example of this is the outcome “contributing positively to environmental challenges”, which directly contributes to those SDGs with an environmental focus (SDG#6 - Clean Water and Sanitation, SDG#7 - Affordable and Clean Energy, SDG#9 - Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure, SDG#11 - Sustainable Cities and Communities, SDG#12 - Responsible Consumption and production, SDG#13 - Climate Action, SDG#14 - Life below Water, and SDG#15 - Life on Land), among others through indirect contributions. Results were reduced according to the five capitals.

As part of the process, a second coder followed the described procedure validating the findings.

6.4 Results

6.4.1 Business Partners

Table 22 shows the list of business drivers to join sustainability partnerships ordered from the most to the least valuable. Table 23 shows the drivers clustered by type of capital. Table 24 shows structural features ordered according to their level of implementation by businesses partnering for sustainability. Table 25 shows types of structural features classified according to their level of formality. Table 26 presents the values assigned to outcomes achieved by businesses, and Table 27 shows types of outcomes according to capital.

Table 22: List of Drivers Ordered According to the Value Assigned by Business Partners

Code	Driver	Type of Capital	Type of Driver	Mean	SD
X2	Contributing positively to environmental challenges	Community	Societal	1.45	0.73
X5	Contributing positively to community sustainability	Community	Societal	1.48	0.58
X12	Building new relationships	Organizational	Internal	1.58	0.71
X20	Engaging with the community	Organizational	Internal	1.63	0.87
X19	Collaborating with others	Organizational	Internal	1.73	0.98
X8	Sharing own experiences	Human	Internal	1.75	0.79
X13	Improving reputation	Organizational	Internal	1.77	0.87
X18	Networking	Organizational	Internal	1.77	1.02
X1	Contributing to the plan's sustainability goals	Community	Societal	1.80	0.73
X3	Contributing positively to social challenges	Community	Societal	1.83	0.76
X6	Gaining knowledge/learning	Human	Internal	1.92	0.91
X10	Improving the organization's sustainability	Organizational	Internal	1.96	1.05
X7	Gaining expertise	Human	Internal	2.06	0.97
X14	Gaining legitimacy	Organizational	Internal	2.07	1.00
X15	Becoming more influential	Organizational	Internal	2.08	1.02
X11	Innovation capacity	Organizational	Internal	2.11	1.04
X9	Improving competencies	Human	Internal	2.14	1.02
X4	Contributing positively to economic challenges	Community	Societal	2.15	0.92
X21	Improving relationship with authorities	Organizational	Internal	2.23	1.04
X17	Marketing opportunities	Organizational	Internal	2.35	1.27
X16	Having access to new markets	Organizational	Internal	2.38	1.22
X22	Improving relationship with NGOs	Organizational	Internal	2.49	1.16
X26	Developing new products/services	Financial	Internal	2.70	1.28
X27	Making new businesses	Financial	Internal	2.72	1.26
X24	Reducing costs	Financial	Internal	3.00	1.26
X31	Improving processes	Physical	Internal	3.01	1.22
X25	Funding opportunities	Financial	Internal	3.07	1.26
X28	Attracting new investors	Financial	Internal	3.13	1.23
X30	Increasing resources	Physical	Internal	3.15	1.25
X23	Improving financial performance	Financial	Internal	3.20	1.18
X29	Increasing financial resources	Financial	Internal	3.23	1.23

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

Table 23: Type of Drivers per Capital

Type of Capital	Type of Driver	Mean	SD
Community	Societal	1.74	0.79
Human	Internal	1.96	0.93
Organizational	Internal	2.01	1.06
Financial	Internal	3.01	1.24
Physical	Internal	3.08	1.23
	Societal	1.74	0.79
	Internal	2.36	1.21

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

Table 24: List of Structural Features Ordered According to the Value Assigned by Business Partners

Structural Feature	Type of Structure	Mean	SD
Partnerships with other organizations	Informal	1.31	0.47
Implementation of plans	Informal	1.42	0.50
Implementation of policies	Informal	1.46	0.50
Implementation of monitoring & controlling practices	Informal	1.51	0.50
Having a cross-functional team	Informal	1.52	0.50
Implementation of reporting	Informal	1.54	0.50
Assignment of more budget	Formal	1.75	0.44
New position(s)	Formal	1.79	0.41
New revenue	Formal	1.87	0.34
Having a new department	Formal	1.87	0.34
Assignment of infrastructure	Formal	1.88	0.32
Assignment of an office	Formal	1.88	0.32
Assignment of machines	Formal	1.92	0.27
Acquiring debt	Formal	1.98	0.14

Note: Means from 1: most implemented, to 2: least implemented

Table 25: Type of Structures

Type of Structure	Mean	SD
Informal	1.39	0.42
Formal	1.77	0.49

Note: Means from 1: most implemented, to 2: least implemented

Table 26: List of Outcomes Ordered According to the Value Assigned by Business Partners

Code	Outcome	Type of Capital	Type of Outcome	Mean	SD
Y12	Built new relationships	Organizational	Internal	1.99	0.88
Y8	Shared own experiences	Human	Internal	2.00	1.02
Y2	Contributed positively to environmental challenges	Community	Societal	2.01	1.08
Y18	Networked	Organizational	Internal	2.06	1.03
Y6	Gained knowledge/learning	Human	Internal	2.09	0.97
Y5	Contributed positively to community sustainability	Community	Societal	2.10	1.13
Y20	Engaged with the community	Organizational	Internal	2.12	1.14
Y13	Improved reputation	Organizational	Internal	2.15	0.96
Y19	Collaborated with others	Organizational	Internal	2.24	1.07
Y3	Contributed positively to social challenges	Community	Societal	2.27	1.07
Y7	Gained expertise	Human	Internal	2.27	1.08
Y1	Contributed to the plan's sustainability goals	Community	Societal	2.33	1.04
Y10	Improved the organization's sustainability	Organizational	Internal	2.37	1.15
Y14	Gained legitimacy	Organizational	Internal	2.43	1.06
Y9	Improved competencies	Human	Internal	2.45	1.10
Y15	Became more influential	Organizational	Internal	2.57	0.99
Y11	Developed innovation capacity	Organizational	Internal	2.60	1.09
Y17	Found marketing opportunities	Organizational	Internal	2.69	1.03
Y21	Improved relationship with authorities	Organizational	Internal	2.69	1.12
Y16	Accessed new markets	Organizational	Internal	2.70	1.10
Y4	Contributed positively to economic challenges	Community	Societal	2.72	1.15
Y22	Improved relationship with NGOs	Organizational	Internal	2.85	1.21
Y31	Improved processes	Physical	Internal	3.30	1.29
Y27	Made new businesses	Financial	Internal	3.33	1.22
Y26	Developed new products/services	Financial	Internal	3.34	1.27
Y24	Reduced costs	Financial	Internal	3.42	1.29
Y23	Improved financial performance	Financial	Internal	3.45	1.13
Y30	Increased resources	Physical	Internal	3.46	1.27
Y25	Found funding opportunities	Financial	Internal	3.48	1.15
Y28	Attracted new investors	Financial	Internal	3.63	1.19
Y29	Increased financial resources	Financial	Internal	3.67	1.15

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

Table 27: Type of Outcomes per Capital

Type of Capital	Type of Outcome	Mean	SD
Human	Internal	2.20	1.05
Community	Societal	2.29	1.11
Organizational	Internal	2.42	1.09
Physical	Internal	3.38	1.28
Financial	Internal	3.47	1.20
	Societal	2.29	1.11
	Internal	2.74	1.25

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

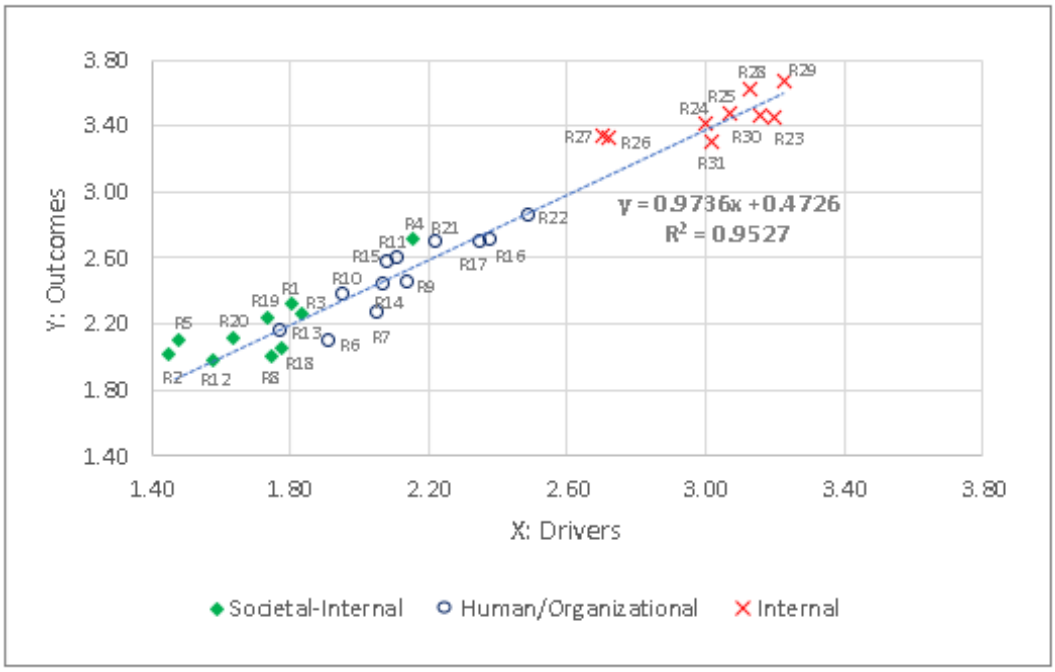
From the results presented in Tables 22 and 23, it can be seen that businesses declare that joining sustainability partnerships is driven more by societal drivers such as contributing positively to environmental challenges and to the sustainability of the community, than by internal drivers such as organizational, human, financial and physical capitals. Table 22 also shows that among internal drivers, organizational and human drivers such as building new relationships and engaging with the community, as well as sharing own experiences and gaining knowledge/learning are valuable, after community drivers. On the contrary, financial (developing new products/services, making new businesses, and reducing costs) and physical (improving processes, and increasing resources) are the least valuable drivers (Appendix XVII). Tables 24 and 25 show that businesses declare to be structured more informally by partnering with other organizations, or implementing plans, policies, and monitoring and controlling practices, than through formal features such as having more budget, positions, infrastructure, an office, or machines. In fact, all the informal structural features are declared to be implemented more than any of the formal ones. Finally, Table 27 shows that businesses declare valuing more gaining societal than internal outcomes. However, details presented in Table 26 show that built new relationships (an organizational outcome), and shared own experiences (a human outcome)

are as valuable as contributed positively to environmental challenges (a community outcome). Furthermore, human capitals on average are declared to be the most valuable outcomes, being followed by community outcomes. Like the findings on drivers, the least valuable are physical and financial outcomes (Appendix XVIII).

Although results show that businesses declare that they implemented more informal than formal structural features, information needs to be analysed separately to conclude with respect to drivers and outcomes. Figure 14 shows that there is a very high positive correlation (R^2 = .95) between the declared businesses drivers and outcomes, i.e., drivers that are highly valuable for business are also highly valuable outcomes, and vice versa. Figure 14 shows three groups of drivers-outcomes: (1) societal resources[84], the most valuable drivers and outcomes, representing those that are focused on the community, as well as those human and organizational resources society related; (2) human/organizational resources, i.e. those which benefit businesses but are less tangible or more subjective and internally-focused than those considered as societal resources such as becoming more influential, improving competencies and reputation, gaining legitimacy, learning and expertise, developing innovation capacity, or improving relationships; and (3) financial/physical resources, the least valuable drivers and outcomes, those that only, mostly or directly benefit businesses such as improving their physical processes, making new businesses, reducing costs, or increasing their financial or physical resources. Consequently, results from Tables 23 and 27 are adjusted as presented in Table 28, showing that the most valuable resources for businesses are societal and human/organizational resources, according to their responses.

[84] The vector (x,y), representing the pair driver-outcome, is represented through R_i for resource i =1 to 31, as presented in Table 22 for drivers and Table 26 for outcomes

Figure 14: Groups of Resources as Relationships between Drivers and Outcomes



Note: Numbers are based on the codes used in Table 22 for Drivers, and in Table 26 for Outcomes

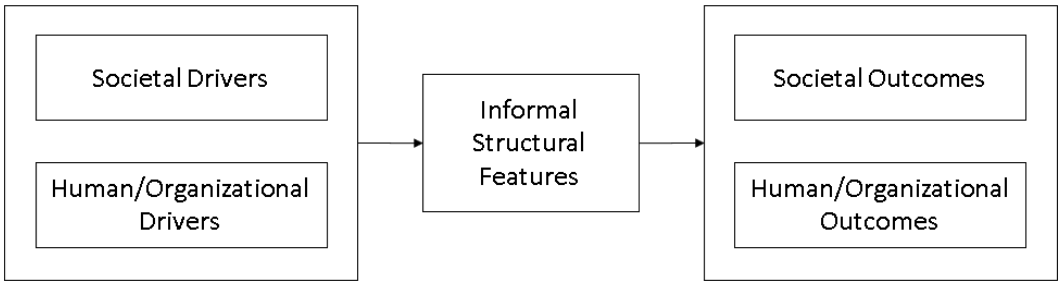
Table 28: Drivers and Outcomes as Resources

Resource (Means)	Drivers	Outcomes
Societal	1.72	2.18
Human/Organizational	2.13	2.49
Financial/Physical	3.02	3.45

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

Since many scholars argue that organizations partner for strategic reasons (e.g. Selsky & Parker, 2005; Vurro et al., 2010; Wassmer et al., 2014), and structures are key for the achievement of goals (Andrews, 1980; Hofer & Schendel, 1978), a model integrating the found types of drivers, structures, and outcomes for business partnering for local sustainability is presented in Figure 15.

Figure 15: Drivers-Structures-Outcomes Model for Business Partnering for Local Sustainability



6.4.2 Local Sustainability Business Partners and their Contribution to the SDGs

Businesses' expertise, knowledge, and resources are certainly fundamental for the SDGs to be a success (Sachs, 2012). However, businesses also need to engage in sustainability partnerships not only as an opportunity to satisfy their needs and contribute to society but also for their own sustainability (Leisinger, 2015; Polman, 2017).

Analysis from Table 29 shows that the SDGs represent an opportunity for businesses to achieve what drive them to join local sustainability partnerships. For instance, "contributing positively to environmental challenges", the driver declared to be the most valuable for businesses to join local sustainability partnerships (Table 22), can be reached by addressing SDG#1 - No Poverty since it aims to reduce the exposure of the poorest and most vulnerable to climate-related extreme events and environmental shocks and disasters; SDG#2 - Zero Hunger by ensuring sustainable food systems that help maintain ecosystems, strengthen adaptation to climate change, extreme weather, drought, and flooding, and improve land and soil quality; SDG#3 - Good Health and Well-being since this intents to reduce the number of deaths and illnesses from hazardous chemicals and air, water and soil pollution; SDG#6 - Clean Water and Sanitation which seeks to improve water quality by reducing pollution, eliminating dumping and

minimizing the release of hazardous chemicals; SDG#7 - Affordable and Clean Energy aiming for clean energy and cleaner fossil-fuel technology; SDG#8 - Decent Work and Economic Growth since it aims to decouple economic growth from environmental degradation; SDG#9 - Innovation, Industry and Infrastructure including upgrading infrastructure and retrofitting industries to make them sustainable, resource-use efficient, and adopting clean and environmentally sound technologies; SDG#11 - Sustainable Cities and Communities by addressing air quality, waste management, providing access to green public spaces, and implementing integrated policies and plans towards resource efficiency, climate change mitigation and adaptation, and resilience to disasters; SDG#12 - Responsible Consumption and Production by managing natural resources sustainably and using them efficiently, including environmentally sound management of chemicals and wastes throughout their life cycle, reducing waste generation, and rationalising inefficient fossil-fuel subsidies; SDG#13 - Climate Action through strengthening resilient and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters; SDG#14 - Life Below Water by preventing and reducing marine pollution, and sustainably managing and protecting marine and coastal ecosystems; SDG#15 - Life on Land ensuring conservation, restoration and sustainable use of terrestrial and inland freshwater ecosystems and their services, implementing sustainable forest management, combating desertification, and ensuring the conservation of mountain ecosystems; and SDG#17 - Partnerships for the Goals by participating in the development, transferring, dissemination and diffusion of environmentally sound technologies (United Nations Development Programme, 2018). Figures presented in Table 30 show that 68% of the drivers declared by businesses as the most valuable can be achieved through addressing any of the 17 SDGs, while 91% of them can be reached through more than half of the SDGs. These results represent a great opportunity for

businesses. Furthermore, Table 31 shows that on average 89% of societal drivers and of human/organizational drivers can be achieved thanks to business engagement in the SDGs. Table 29 also shows that 100% of the drivers can be achieved thanks to SDG#17 - Partnerships for the Goals, 95% because of SDG#8 - Decent Work and Economic Growth and SDG#12 - Responsible Consumption and Production, and 91% due to SDG#2 - Zero Hunger, SDG#3 - Good Health and Well-being, SDG#6 - Clean Water and Sanitation, SDG#11 - Sustainable Cities and Communities, SDG#13 - Climate Action, SDG#14 - Life Below Water, and SDG#15 - Life on Land. The lowest percentage (77%) can be achieved due to SDG#16 - Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions. The driver found among the ones declared to be most valuable for businesses that has the lowest relationship to the SDGs is accessing marketing opportunities.

Table 29: SDGs as Opportunities for Businesses to Achieve What Drive Them to Join Sustainability Partnerships

Code	Drivers[85]	SDG 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	SDG/D
X2	Contributing positively to environmental challenges	■	■	■			■	■	■	■		■	■	■	■	■		■	76%
X5	Contributing positively to community sustainability	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X12	Building new relationships	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X20	Engaging with the community	■	■	■	■	■	■		■		■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	88%
X19	Collaborating with others	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X8	Sharing own experiences				■	■			■		■	■	■					■	35%
X13	Improving reputation	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X18	Networking	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X1	Contributing to the plan's sustainability goals	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X3	Contributing positively to social challenges	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X6	Gaining knowledge/learning	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X10	Improving the organization's sustainability	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X7	Gaining expertise	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X14	Gaining legitimacy	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X15	Becoming more influential	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X11	Innovation capacity		■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	■	■	■	■		■	82%
X9	Improving competencies	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X4	Contributing positively to economic challenges	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	94%
X21	Improving relationship with authorities	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
X17	Marketing opportunities																	■	6%
X16	Having access to new markets	■	■	■			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	82%
X22	Improving relationship with NGOs	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
	%	86	91	91	86	86	91	86	95	86	82	91	95	91	91	91	77	100	

SDG/D represents the percentage of SDGs that represent an opportunity to achieve businesses' drivers

[85] Ordered from most to least valuable

Table 30: Numbers of Business Drivers Achievable by Engaging in the SDGs

Percentage of SDGs contributing to Drivers	Number of Drivers	Drivers (codes)	Percentage of Drivers achievable through SDGs
100%	15	X1, X3, X5, X6, X7, X9, X10, X12, X13, X14, X15, X18, X19, X21, and X22	68%
Between 75% and 99%	5	X2, X4, X11, X16, and X20	23%
Between 50% and 75%	0		0%
Between 0% and 50%	2	X8, and X17	9%
0%	0		0%

Table 31: Type of Business Drivers Achievable by Engaging in the SDGs

Drivers	Number of Drivers	Percentage achievable through the SDGs
Societal	10	89%
Human/Organizational	12	89%

With respect to outcomes, the achievements of businesses when partnering for local sustainability can contribute to the success of the global goals. Results from Table 32 show that outcomes with a societal focus declared to be achieved by businesses contribute on average to 89% of the SDGs, mainly thanks to community outcomes. The declared outcomes that can contribute to all the SDGs are building new relationships, sharing own experiences, gaining knowledge/learning, contributing positively to community's sustainability, and to the plan's sustainability goals, collaborating with others, contributing positively to social and economic challenges, gaining expertise, improving competencies, becoming more influential, and when relationships with authorities and NGOs have improved. Table 33 shows that more than 80% of business outcomes would benefit 18% of the SDGs, between 70% and 80% of the outcomes to 29% of the SDGs, between 60% and 70% would benefit 41% of the SDGs, and 12% of the SDGs would be benefited by between 50% and 60% of the businesses' declared outcomes. The SDGs with the largest contribution from business outcomes are SDG#8 – Decent Work and Economic

Growth, SDG#11 - Sustainable Cities and Communities, and SDG#17 - Partnerships for the Goals, all of which could be benefited by more than 80% of the outcomes. Especially relevant to these SDGs are building new relationships, sharing businesses experiences, contributing to environmental, social and economic challenges, to community's sustainability and its plan's goals, engaging with the community, collaborating with others, developing innovation capacity, and improving relationships with authorities and NGOs. Other highly benefited SDGs are SDG#6 – Clean Water and Sanitation, SDG#9 - Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure, SDG#12 - Responsible Consumption and Production, and SDG#13 - Climate Action. Overall, all the SDGs could be benefited by business outcomes.

Table 32: Business Outcomes as Contributors to the SDGs

Code	Outcomes[85]	SDG 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	SDG/O
Y12	Built new relationships	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y8	Shared own experiences	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y2	Contributed positively to environmental challenges	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	94%
Y18	Networked								■									■	24%
Y6	Gained knowledge/learning	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y5	Contributed positively to community sustainability	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y20	Engaged with the community	■	■	■	■	■	■					■	■	■	■	■		■	71%
Y13	Improved reputation																	■	12%
Y19	Collaborated with others	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y3	Contributed positively to social challenges	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y7	Gained expertise	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y1	Contributed to the plan's sustainability goals	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y10	Improved the organization's sustainability					■	■	■	■			■	■	■			■	■	59%
Y14	Gained legitimacy																	■	18%
Y9	Improved competencies	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y15	Became more influential	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y11	Developed innovation capacity		■	■			■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	76%
Y17	Found marketing opportunities						■	■	■	■		■	■	■					41%
Y21	Improved relationship with authorities	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y16	Accessed new markets					■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	71%
Y4	Contributed positively to economic challenges	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
Y22	Improved relationship with NGOs	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	100%
	%	59	64	64	59	68	77	73	82	77	64	82	77	77	68	68	64	86	

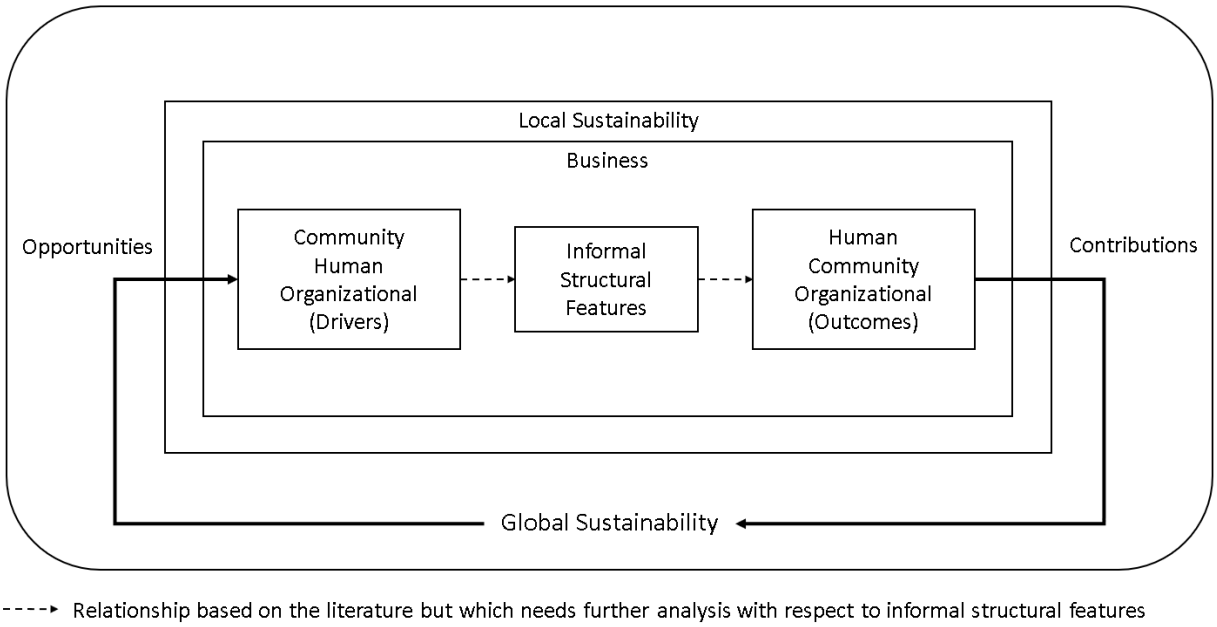
SDG/O represents the percentage of SDGs that can be achieved through businesses' outcomes

Table 33: Business Outcomes Contributing to the SDGs

Percentage of Outcomes contributing to SDGs	Number of SDGs	SDGs#	Percentage of SDGs benefited from Outcomes
Between 80% and 90%	3	8, 11, and 17	18%
Between 70% and 80%	5	6, 7, 9, 12, and 13	29%
Between 60% and 70%	7	2, 3, 5, 10, 14, 15, and 16	41%
Between 50% and 60%	2	1, and 4	12%

Results from the analyses of declared drivers and outcomes and their relationships to the SDGs lead to the conclusion that the SDGs represent a great opportunity for businesses to achieve their goals by engaging in local sustainability partnerships. Similarly, the outcomes businesses reach contribute to the achievement of the SDGs, especially those focused on sharing business experiences, the sustainability of the community and the plan's goals, and the improvement of businesses relationships with authorities and NGOs. This analysis leads to the model presented in Figure 16, which combines businesses society-related drivers, informal structural features, and society-related outcomes, with the SDGs in a positive relationship. As depicted, the SDGs, which could be interpreted as a proxy for global sustainability, represent a great opportunity for businesses to consider for joining sustainability partnerships and satisfy their goals, while the achievements of businesses from partnering contribute positively to the success of the SDGs and to global sustainability. As proposed by scholars, structures play a key role in the relationship between drivers and outcomes.

Figure 16: Model between Businesses' Drivers, Structural Features, and Outcomes in Relation to the Global Sustainability



6.5 Discussion

Results from this research show two main findings and contributions to the literature: (1) societal drivers and outcomes from partnering in local sustainability partnerships are declared to be the most valuable for business, and informal structural features the most implemented by businesses when partnering for sustainability; and (2) the SDGs are an opportunity for businesses to reach their goals, while the outcomes they achieve at the local level could positively contribute to the SDGs.

As discussed in the literature, research has mainly focused on business-related drivers and not on society related motivations for businesses to join partnerships. Despite the fact that two main reasons have been identified: an utilitarian or strategic, and an altruistic or social (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Vurro et al., 2010), most scholars have addressed the former that argues that businesses partner to obtain resources or skills that would improve their strategic positions (e.g.

Googins & Rochlin, 2000; Lavie, 2006; Selsky & Parker, 2005). This research contributes to this literature by highlighting the finding that according to their declarations, businesses value more contributing positively to environmental challenges and the sustainability of the community, as well as building new relationships and engaging with the community, than gaining knowledge, legitimacy, becoming more influential, reducing their costs or improving their financial performance when partnering for local sustainability. Interestingly, societal drivers to join partnerships are declared to be more valuable for businesses than human, organizational, financial or physical drivers, expanding the capitals view beyond those internal capitals that most research has focused on. Perhaps unexpectedly, businesses seem to be more interested in the community's sustainability and improving their relationship with it, than in obtaining resources or skills that would improve their strategic positions making them more successful in a traditional economic way. These results may be explained since these are long-term (M = 19.25 years) and large cross-sector partnerships (M = 470 partners in total, M = 287 active partners). While 35% of the businesses engaged in these partnerships have partnered for more than 5 years (85% for more than 1 year), getting involved and committed together with many organizations from other sectors for many years in similar conditions and numbers[86] (especially with those from the civil society) may be an incentive to think beyond the business box and focus on the common good. Furthermore, since these are partnerships led by local governments, or by organizations mandated by them, with public commitments and accountability, businesses may feel the pressure to act and not only declare their interest and appreciation for addressing sustainability goals. On the contrary and considering that drivers assessed in this research have been self-reported, the partnerships can also represent an opportunity for businesses to

[86] Total partners: Private sector (51%), Civil society (41%), Public sector (8%); Active partners: Private sector (43%), Civil society (48%), Public sector (10%)

greenwash their common practices. Further research is encouraged to assess the factuality of their declarations.

Similar to the findings on drivers, the outcomes declared to be most valuable for businesses are society-related such as building new relationships with the community, sharing their experiences, and contributing positively to environmental challenges. These results can be linked to organizational (Seitanidi & Crane, 2009), human (Arya & Lin, 2007), and synergistic outcomes (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012), respectively. However, they are not related to those considered strategic as argued by Hardy et al. (2003), nor to financial or physical capitals as proposed by RBV (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1996; Lavie, 2006). As with drivers, the declared as most valuable outcomes can be explained due to the nature of the partnerships, which is highlighted by the 97% of surveyed businesses that declared having achieved not negative outcomes from partnering. Furthermore, since the correlation between declared drivers and outcomes is very high (R^2 = .95), outcomes can be classified based on the levels of satisfaction in meeting business drivers, as proposed by Brinkerhoff (2002). When businesses have partnered for long periods of time, the main question is what happens between the time when drivers are first set, and outcomes are achieved. Based on the results, two main and complementary possibilities arise: businesses' goals are achieved thanks to the power of large CSSPs, and/or structures implemented for addressing sustainability partnerships play a key role in the achievement of goals. With respect to the former, although the units of analyses are not partnerships but business partners, this research indirectly contributes to their understanding through these results, but further analysis is needed.

On structures, findings show that businesses stated that they address sustainability partnerships mostly through informal structural features. As proposed in the literature, structures are the

arrangement of *dos* and *haves* to achieve expected goals (Bryson et al., 2006), playing a key role between business strategy and the environment (Hunger & Wheelen, 2011). The environment of partnerships is set by the community's sustainability challenges, uncertain contexts with complex wicked problems (Rühli et al., 2017) that, according to contingency theory, should be addressed through informal structures (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). This view is confirmed by the findings, highlighting that businesses would implement mostly informal structural features to address sustainability partnerships. Informal features are practices that may require lower levels of economic investment in comparison to formal structural features, a view that may help explain businesses preference for them, especially considering that the aim of the partnerships, as well as their aim for partnering, is not business-focused. Although this research contributes to the literature with some key informal structural features that businesses declare to implement when partnering for sustainability (partnering with other organizations and implementing plans, policies, and monitoring and controlling practices), deeper research is needed on structures and to understand their relationships with business drivers and outcomes.

As argued by scholars, businesses are key players in the achievement of the SDGs (e.g. Moore, 2015; Sachs, 2012), who are increasingly partnering with other organizations for the sustainability of society (George et al., 2016; LaFrance & Lehmann, 2005). This research has confirmed this relationship finding that while the SDGs represent a great opportunity for businesses to achieve their goals, the outcomes declared to be achieved by businesses through local sustainability partnerships contribute to global sustainability. Results show that there is a clear connection between what businesses declare aiming to achieve while partnering with what the SDGs pursue. Hence, the recommendation for businesses and those leading local sustainability initiatives is to focus on the SDGs as a framework that will help businesses achieve

their society-related goals. Then, as proposed by Figure 16, a virtuous cycle will emerge towards the achievement of outcomes that will contribute to the success of the SDGs, as supported by the results. A question still unanswered is the role structures play between drivers and outcomes, which scholars argue are a fundamental piece of strategy (e.g. Bryson et al., 2006; Mintzberg, 1980; Ranson et al., 1980). Further research is required to understand the role of informal structural features as the ones declared to be the most implemented by business partners. Similarly and as already suggested, the power of large CSSPs for drivers to be achieved as outcomes requires further analysis.

6.6 Conclusion

This research makes important contributions to the literature and to practice through the understanding of businesses partnering for local sustainability, and their relationships to global sustainability. First, the connections of business partners to local and global sustainability are better understood. Of note is the contribution made to the literature on community-related drivers and outcomes expanding RBV and other resources literature. Similarly, this research identifies informal structural features as the way businesses address sustainability partnerships, confirming what is proposed by contingency theory with respect to organizations facing complex, wicked and uncertain contexts such as sustainability. Second, a positive connection has been established between businesses and the SDGs, proposing a virtuous model of relationship that summarises some of the findings from this research. And third, although not the unit of analyses of this research, large CSSPs are better understood.

Further research should focus on the role business structures play in between drivers to partner, as a proxy for strategic goals, and the outcomes they achieve from partnering. Although this

research has found that informal structural features are the most implemented, no connection has been made between these and drivers nor outcomes. Finally, it would be worthwhile to assess directly from businesses what is their relationship with the SDGs, and if they see the global goals as opportunities while contributing to their success at the same time.

Chapter 7

7. Conclusions

7.1 Overview

This research explores the strategic engagement of organizations from across sectors in large cross-sector partnerships implementing community sustainability plans. As proposed by the descriptive and prescriptive schools of thought (Mintzberg & Lampel, 1999), strategic management has been defined as a pattern of decisions (Andrews, 1980) that determines long-term objectives through structures for the achievement of goals (Wheelen & Hunger, 2012) in interaction with the environment (Hofer & Schendel, 1978). Based on this definition, this dissertation argues that organizations are open systems interacting with the environment (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), which need structures to transform their strategic goals into outcomes (Andrews, 1980; Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012). Thus, to understand the strategic engagement of organizations in sustainability partnerships, considered strategic due to their collaborative nature (Gray, 1989; Lin & Darnall, 2015; Selsky & Parker, 2005) and topic specificity (Fiksel et al., 2014; Wassmer et al., 2017), this dissertation focuses on drivers, structural features, and outcomes. Drivers to join partnerships have been used as a proxy for strategic goals (Brinkerhoff, 2002), structural features have been used to understand the organizational structures, and outcomes are what organizations achieve from partnering for sustainability. This dissertation addresses several theoretical and empirical research questions through a survey that collected data from 224 organizations, including 71 businesses, all of which are engaged in one of the four large cross-sector partnerships implementing community sustainability plans selected for this research.

The dissertation has explored the role of structures in the achievement of strategic goals to assess the strategic engagement of organizations in large cross-sector sustainability partnerships (Chapter 4). This research also studied why, how and what organizations gain from partnering by assessing their drivers to partner for sustainability, the outcomes they achieve from partnering, the value assigned to specific drivers and outcomes by organizations, and their implemented structural features (Chapter 5). In addition, this dissertation studied the relationships between organizational drivers and structures, structures and outcomes, and drivers and outcomes, with the aim of having a thorough understanding of the partrners organizational strategy (Chapter 5). Finally, this research has addressed the relationships between business partners and global sustainability through an analysis of business drivers and outcomes, and the SDGs (Chapter 6).

Research findings show that structures are implemented by organizations when partnering for sustainability, confirming the strategic perspective of sustainability partnerships (Lin & Darnall, 2015; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Wassmer et al., 2017). However, findings reveal that structures do not mediate the relationships between goals and outcomes, which does not confirm their role in the achievement of strategic goals (Mintzberg, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012). It was also found that organizations, including businesses, implement informal more than formal structural features, in line with the contingency view with respect to how organizations face complex contexts (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967) such as those presented by sustainability challenges (Rühli et al., 2017).

Findings also show that organizations, including businesses, value joining sustainability partnerships to contribute and relate to society more than to gain internal resources, which have been the main focus of research on strategic resources through RBV (Barney et al., 2011; Barrutia & Echebarria, 2015; Hart, 1995). Similarly, organizations also value contributing, and

relating, to society more than they do gaining internal human, internal organizarional, financial or physical resources for their business as outcomes from partnering.

While a high correlation between drivers and outcomes was found for organizations and for businesses, a reason for them to be satisfied (Brinkerhoff, 2002), no relationships were found between drivers and structures, nor structures and outcomes, which is consistent with the other results on structures. Finally, this research found that the SDGs are an opportunity for businesses to achieve their strategic goals, while their outcomes from partnering for local sustainability contribute to global sustainability.

The following paragraphs build on the discussions from the manuscripts' findings, linking them in a comprehensive manner towards a broader and deeper discussion. Academic and practical contributions are also included in this chapter. Finally, this chapter ends with future research direction.

7.2 Discussion

By answering the proposed theoretical and empirical research questions on strategy, partnerships, and sustainability, and on RBV and contingency theory (as presented later in the contributions to theory section 7.3), this final discussion is based on six main findings that contribute to theory and practice. The first main finding is the confirmation that partnerships are strategic, and that sustainability is a strategic opportunity for organizations, as proposed by many scholars. The second is a conceptual model of strategy which relates organizational goals, structures, and outcomes with the environmental context. The third is that when facing uncertain environments such as those presented by sustainability challenges, organizations structure

informally, as proposed by contingency theory. The fourth is that organizations value contributing to society through community and external human and organizational resources, more than gaining internal resources, refining what it has been proposed by RBV. The fifth is that organizations achieve what drive them most to join sustainability partnerships, highlighting the value of large cross-sector partnerships. And the sixth is the relationship found between business drivers and outcomes, and the SDGs. These contributions lead to two main conclusions to be further discussed here: the relevance of sustainability partnerships, and the value of societal resources.

7.2.1 Sustainability Partnerships

This research confirms that organizations engage in sustainability partnerships for strategic reasons (e.g. Fiksel et al., 2014; Lin & Darnall, 2015) by implementing structures (Andrews, 1980; Mintzberg, 1978; Wheelen & Hunger, 2012). However, since structures do not mediate between drivers and outcomes, it can be argued that these are a necessary but not a sufficient condition for organizations to achieve strategic goals, which is consistent with organizations as open systems interacting with their environmental context (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Consequently, environmental context plays a key role as well, as proposed in the theoretical model presented in Figure 9. In this respect, large sustainability cross-sector partnerships are also key in the achievement of strategic goals, hence their strategic importance for organizations. This argument leads to an analysis of the sustainability context and the nature of the partnerships.

Sustainability challenges present a complex and uncertain context (Rittel & Webber, 1973; Rühli et al., 2017) that organizations address through informal and flexible structures (Lawrence &

Lorsch, 1967), a contingency perspective confirmed by this research. These results on informal structures are complemented with the very high correlation found between the importance assigned by organizations to drivers to partner, and the value they give to their outcomes, despite the unclear effect found from structures. Therefore, the fact that organizations are structured informally to face strategic sustainability partnerships and that societal drivers are highly achieved can be considered a sign that the sustainability context plays an important role in the achievement of goals. Similarly, the collaborative nature of the partnerships seems to influence partners' structures and the achievement of their strategic goals. Partnering with many partners from across sectors would create constant, varied and recurrent interactions with other partners, which can be understood as a result of the power of large cross-sector partnerships, setting a favourable context for the achievement of partner organizations' goals.

7.2.2 Societal Resources

Despite the existence of an extensive literature on drivers for organizations to join partnerships (Gray & Stites, 2013), this literature has mainly focused on resources that contribute to improve strategic positions in search of a competitive advantage (e.g. Lavie, 2006; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Vurro et al., 2010). In this context, RBV has been largely used to assess resources and explain organizational relationships and competitive advantage in business organizations, although it can be argued that RBV has evolved from a firm-focused view to an organizational theory (Barney et al., 2011; Barrutia & Echebarria, 2015). However, since the focus of the partnerships studied in this research is sustainability, based on the works of Gray and Stites (2013) and MacDonald (2016), this dissertation has added capitals focused on society to the traditional capitals proposed by RBV, refining its approach.

Since the resources perspective views organizations as systems only (or mainly) focused on improving their strategic positions and gaining competitive advantage (Lotia & Hardy, 2008; Vurro et al., 2010; Wassmer et al., 2014), findings from this research on the value organizations assign to societal resources and the structures implemented when partnering for sustainability can be explained in two different and complementary ways.

Organizations state a concern with the well-being of society, interacting with it and aiming to improve their relationships as relevant actors in the sustainability of local communities, a view that is consistent with those who aim to resolve problems and advance towards shared visions (Gray, 1989). Organizations seem to understand their role as open systems which depend on the environmental context to survive and succeed, and on the impact their actions have on their communities (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Scott, 2003). When these organizations actively commit to joining others from across sectors to collaborate for the achievement of sustainability goals for the community, they engage in a public commitment assuming a social, environmental and economic responsibility with society (Bryson et al., 2006; Waddock, 1988, 1991). Furthermore, through a strategic approach, organizations address sustainability partnerships through informal structural features, understanding the complexities of sustainability and the challenges these present.

Additionally, since organizations address sustainability partnerships through informal structures due to their strategic importance, and that the most valuable resources (societal resources) are highly achieved thanks to organizational structures and sustainability partnerships, it can be argued that societal resources are also strategic for organizations. Just like the resources proposed by RBV, societal resources such as contributing positively to environmental and social challenges or to community sustainability, can also be considered strategic resources for

organizations since they would improve the environmental contexts with which organizations interact and depend on for their own activities and survival. This finding is aligned with the natural RBV, which argues that "environmentally sustainable economic activities" also create competitive advantage (Hart, 1995, p. 991). An example of this is the relationship businesses should have with ecosystem services such as water purification or pollination, both services that the food industry needs for its own sustainability (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). While some resources focused on the community have been included by RBV as part of human and organizational capitals such as sharing experiences or collaborating with others, these have been clustered with others with an internal focus such as gaining knowledge or improving reputation (e.g. Arya & Lin, 2007; Gray & Stites, 2013; Kolk et al., 2010). This research contributes to a refinement of RBV's human and organizational categories into external and internal by highlighting that the external focus on society of human and organizational capitals, together with those proposed in this dissertation as community capitals, form an additional category of societal resources that can also be considered a strategic opportunity for organizations.

RBV is based on the view that a resource is "anything which could be thought of as a strength or weakness" (Wernerfelt, 1984, p. 172) and that the main purpose of an organization is to organize the use of resources to relate to the environment and survive (Penrose, 1959). Hence, being a contributor to community sustainability by improving social and environmental conditions can be considered a strength that would help organizations to survive, since they all depend on society and/or the environment for their own sustainability.

Therefore, while organizations address strategic sustainability partnerships through informal structures, being concerned with contributing to society more than gaining internal resources, societal resources can also be considered strategic, an approach not proposed by RBV.

7.3 Contribution to Academic Theories and Literature

There are six novel contributions to the academic literature on organizations partnering for sustainability. First to strategy, partnerships, and sustainability literature; second to the strategy literature; third to contingency theory; fourth to RBV; fifth to partnerships literature; and sixth to sustainability and business literature. The following list highlights the theoretical and empirical research questions being answered through the respective contributions. This research found no answers to ERQ1.2 on the relationship between structures and outcomes, and ERQ2.5 which asks whether drivers lead to the implementation of structures.

1. Findings from Chapter 4 contribute to the strategy, partnerships, and sustainability literature by confirming quantitatively the strategic engagement of organizations in partnerships and how sustainability is a strategic opportunity through the implementation of structures, answering ERQ1.1. A thorough literature search suggests that these statements have not been quantitatively assessed before. These findings give answers to TRQ1.1 and TRQ1.2.
2. The conceptual model presented in Figure 9 (Chapter 4) contributes to the strategy literature by integrating different views of strategy, highlighting the theoretical role of structures and the environment in the achievement of strategic goals in the context of sustainability partnerships. The model can be certainly used or adapted to different contexts considering organizations as open systems dependent on and impacting their

environmental context. The feedback loops between outcomes, structures, and goals show the dynamic evolution that organizational strategy can go through once outcomes have been reached (or not), and how structures and drivers can be adjusted accordingly. Furthermore, the connections between organizational strategy and the environment show that goals, structures, and outcomes contribute to the environment as well as depend on it. These findings answer TRQ1.3 and TRQ1.4.

3. With respect to how organizations structure to address complex contexts such as the ones that sustainability challenges present (Dentoni et al., 2016) (Chapter 5), this research confirms that informal structural features are the most implemented by organizations as proposed by contingency theory (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). Similarly, findings on business structural features when partnering for local sustainability confirm the contingency approach and contribute to a better understanding of business in the context of sustainability partnerships (Chapter 6). These findings answer TRQ3.1, ERQ1.3, and ERQ1.4.
4. The findings presented in Chapter 5 contribute to the resources literature by refining the internal focus of RBV and the resources literature to societal capitals, including those human and organizational capitals with a societal (external) focus, positioning them in a relevant place versus the other known capitals (internal human and organizational, financial, and physical). These results contribute to the category proposed by Gray and Stites (2013) on society-oriented drivers, to synergetic outcomes as identified by Austin and Seitanidi (2012), and to shared capitals as presented by MacDonald (2016). Additionally, this chapter contributes by differentiating between human, organizational, financial, and physical capitals, ranking resources according to their importance for

organizations, an assessment limitedly researched before. These contribute to answer TRQ2.1, TRQ2.2, ERQ2.1, ERQ2.2, ERQ2.3, ERQ3.1, ERQ3.2, and ERQ3.3.

More interestingly, these findings contribute to theory by identifying societal resources as strategic for organizations, since they implement informal structural features to address sustainability partnerships, which have been confirmed to be strategic for organizations.

5. Results show that organizations achieve what drives them to join sustainability partnerships (ERQ2.4), emphasizing the power of large cross-sector partnerships, an important contribution to the partnerships literature. Thanks to this understanding, large cross-sector partnerships are better understood.
6. Through Chapter 6, this research contributes to the business, partnerships, and sustainability literature by understanding businesses engaged in sustainability partnerships, and connecting their local engagement to global sustainability. Furthermore, the model presented in Figure 16 represents the links between businesses and global sustainability by highlighting how the SDGs represent an opportunity for businesses to achieve their strategic goals, while business outcomes from local partnering can contribute to global sustainability. These results answer ERQ4.1.

7.4 Practical Implications

Four practical implications can be highlighted from this research. First is the power of large sustainability partnerships, second is how organizations should address complex environments such as sustainability, third is the relevance of societal drivers for organizations, and fourth is the relationship between businesses partnering at the local level and global sustainability.

1. One of the most relevant practical implication is the power of large cross-sector partnerships. This research shows that by engaging in large partnerships organizations from across sectors claim to achieve their goals. This finding is a practical contribution relevant for organizations that are or plan to partner for sustainability, as well as for those leading community sustainability partnerships since it highlights the benefits organizations can gain thanks to the power of large cross-sector partnerships. Certainly, this contribution can be considered in the design of cross-sector partnerships.
2. Another practical implication of this research is how organizations address sustainability, i.e., through the implementation of informal structural features such as partnering with other organizations, implementing policies, plans, and monitoring and controlling practices, as well as having cross-functional teams.
3. The third practical implication is based on the finding that organizations are driven by obtaining societal goals such as contributing to the sustainability of society. This finding is especially relevant for the community and those who are leading sustainability partnerships in the design of CSSPs since the role of partners is a key in the success of the partnerships. Organizations in general, including businesses, engage with many others from across sectors for long periods of time, committing to community sustainability. This can be considered as positive news for organizations from across sectors, society, and those leading sustainability partnerships, especially considering the power of organizations.
4. Finally, global sustainability challenges, as presented through the SDGs, are an opportunity for businesses to achieve the strategic goals that drive them to join local partnerships, while by partnering they contribute to the achievement of the SDGs. In fact,

businesses are increasingly partnering to address sustainability (George et al., 2016) with global corporations (Nestlé, 2017; PwC, 2015; Unilever, 2018), and organizations working with businesses in sustainability (Global Reporting Initiative, 2016; United Nations Global Compact, n.d.; World Business Council for Sustainable Development, 2017) adopting the SDGs framework as part of their strategic plans and value propositions. Results from this research contribute to businesses understanding that sustainability and partnerships are an opportunity to satisfy their needs, contribute to society, and to their own sustainability (Leisinger, 2015; Polman, 2017; T. Porter & Derry, 2012).

These results should be considered by policy makers at the local and global level to engage organizations from across sectors whose collaboration will benefit not only themselves but also sustainable development globally.

7.5 Future Research Direction

This research has several important findings and contributions to literature and practice. However, it has also left some questions unanswered and opened new ones that should be addressed in order to understand organizations engaged in sustainability partnerships better.

Some interesting avenues for further research involve the understanding of contexts, which play a central role in the achievement of organizational goals. Based on the theoretical model presented in Figure 9 and on the discussed findings, it is important to assess the role environmental context plays for understanding organizations partnering for sustainability. This

research has directly assessed drivers, structures, and outcomes by collecting data from organizations, but the environmental context has been found to be relevant for organizations to achieve their goals, therefore its importance and the encouragement to be further studied. Similarly, and following the request presented by other scholars (Branzei & Le Ber, 2014; Clarke & MacDonald, 2016), it is important to study large and long-term cross-sector social partnerships in depth, which according to the findings from this research, play a key role in the achievement of the goals of partner organizations.

Also important is to assess organizations through other theoretical perspectives. New avenues for further research suggest the use of institutional theory to understand isomorphic processes among partners' organizational structures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983), and of relational view (Dyer & Singh, 1998) to assess the influence of many others and through long periods of time in the achievement of organizational goals.

Another pending matter to be addressed are the relationships between organizational drivers and structures, and structures and outcomes. There is very limited research on these relationships and this research could not find statistically significant results. While as discussed, these relationships per se cannot explain the achievement of outcomes without contexts, it is important to combine these four variables together to get a better sense of what happens through this process.

Time is another factor that is worth studying. Some of the organizations partnering in these long-term partnerships have been doing it for many years, which could be considered unusual for organizations engaged in areas not directly related to their core businesses. Interesting would be to understand the dynamics affecting and modifying the partnerships, as well as the partners through the years.

Considering the focus of this research, it would be interesting to assess specifically organizations from different sectors to understand their roles in sustainability partnerships. Especially attractive as well is to study multinational corporations, who are very powerful actors and whose actions and impacts are worldwide. It would also be interesting to study partnerships from non-developed countries, as well as focus on organizations that are either not active or have left the partnerships.

Important as well it would be to measure the impact local sustainability partnerships have on their local targets, what is the contribution of partner organizations to those targets, and how the targets and the partners' actions contribute (or not) to the grand challenge of global sustainability.

Finally, qualitative research focused on partner organizations would improve the understanding of results such as those presented in this research, by bringing a deeper and more vivid reflection of the engagement of partners in sustainability partnerships. Similarly, longitudinal research would further enrich the literature by expanding the static view provided by cross-sectional research.

In conclusion, this research furthers the understanding of partners engaged in large cross-sector social partnerships, contributing to the sustainability, strategy and partnerships literature. In particular it is grounded in the management literature, utilising and contributing to RBV and contingency theories. Through partnering with ICLEI – Local Governments for Sustainability in the design and dissemination, the results from this research will also help practice.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Surveys

Survey in English

International Research on Cross-sector Partnerships for Implementing Sustainability Community Strategies - The Partners

A research developed by the School of Environment, Enterprise and Development at the University of Waterloo (Canada), in collaboration with XXX.

Invitation

Dear partner:

In collaboration with XXX we are inviting your organization to participate on an international survey. As part of the research entitled "Cross-sector Social Partnerships for the Implementation of Community Sustainability Strategies: A Study on the Relationships between Collaborative Structures and Outcomes" led by Dr. Amelia Clarke at the Faculty of Environment at the University of Waterloo in Canada, the city of XXX has been selected as one of the five sustainability partnerships to participate on a survey for assessing partners and their role for achieving sustainability goals. The main purpose of this research is to contribute to the design of better and more appropriate cross-sector partnerships for partners.

This survey will provide us with information with respect to your partner organization, its implementation structural features, drivers and outcomes achieved as a partner of XXX. According to the information provided by the Partnership, your organization is a very important partner whose answers will be highly valuable not only for this research but also for the Partnership.

We would appreciate it if you complete the attached survey, which is expected to take between ten and fifteen minutes. The questions are focused on the organization you represent and not on your views or opinions. You may omit any questions you prefer not to answer. There are no known or anticipated risks to participating in this study. All information you provide will be considered confidential, but the aggregate findings will be shared with participating cities and the larger sustainable cities movement. The data collected through this study will be kept for a period of ten years in a locked office at the University of Waterloo.

If you are interested in participating in this study, consent to participate is implied by responding the survey. If after receiving this letter, you have any questions, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please feel free to contact Professor Amelia Clarke (amelia.clarke@uwaterloo.ca) or Eduardo Ordóñez (eordonez@uwaterloo.ca) or our project website (https://uwaterloo.ca/implementing-sustainable-community-plans/).

Thank you in advance for your interest in this project.

Yours sincerely,
Dr. Amelia Clarke
Director of the Master of Environment and Business Program; Associate Professor

Eduardo Ordóñez (MEng)
PhD student in Social and Ecological Sustainability
Faculty of Environment
University of Waterloo

In collaboration with XXX
Funded by Social Sciences and Human Resources Council of Canada

Part A: The partner organization

(Partner: organization which has joined the partnership as a member)

Q1. Please type the name of your organization

Q1.1. Please select your position as the one responding the survey

- Board member/Councillor
- CEO/Executive Director
- Senior administrator
- Department manager
- Sustainability Manager
- Green Champion or Green Team Representative
- Program manager
- Analyst
- Junior staff
- External advisor
- Owner
- Business Partner

Other:	

Q2: Do you confirm the participation of the organization you represent on BGCP?

- Yes
- No

Q3: Please select one or several of the following economic sectors that best represent your organization

(https://www.ic.gc.ca/eic/site/cis-sic.nsf/eng/h_00004.html)

- Accommodation and Food Services
- Administrative and Support, Waste Management and Remediation Services
- Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting
- Arts, Entertainment and Recreation
- Construction
- Educational Services: University
- Educational Services: College
- Educational Services: School
- Educational Services: Childcare

- Finance and Insurance
- Health Care and Social Assistance: Hospital
- Health Care and Social Assistance: Medical Centre
- Information and Cultural Industries
- Management of Companies and Enterprises
- Manufacturing excluding Food Manufacturing
- Food Manufacturing
- Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction
- Other Services (except Public Administration)
- Professional, Scientific and Technical Services
- Public Administration: Federal/National Government (As a whole)
- Public Administration: Federal/National Government (As a department)
- Public Administration: Provincial Government (As a whole)
- Public Administration: Provincial Government (As a department)
- Public Administration: Local Government (As a whole)
- Public Administration: Local Government (As a department)
- Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
- Retail Trade
- Transportation and Warehousing
- Utilities
- Wholesale Trade

Q3.1 Select the one corresponding to the size of your organization

- Very small (1-49 full time employees)
- Small (50-99 full time employees)
- Medium (100-499 full time employees)
- Large (500+ full time employees)

Q3.2 If an Association, please select as many as necessary

- Chamber of commerce
- Board of trade
- Union
- Neighbourhood Committee

Other:	
Please type the number of members:	

Q3.3 Select an Educational Institution if that is the case

- University
- College
- School
- Childcare

Other:	

Q3.4 If a Non-Governmental Organization / Non for Profit Organization, please select as many as necessary

- Environmental
- Social
- Economic
- Political
- Cultural

Other:	

Q4: Was your organization involved in the development of the Partnership and/or its vision and objectives?

- Yes
- No

Q5: How long has your organization been a partner?

- Less than 1 year
- Between 1 and 5 years
- Between 5 and 10 years
- More than 10 years

Q5.1: Is your organization involvement mandatory or voluntary?

- Mandatory
- Voluntary

Q6: Are there any formal requirements for being a partner?

- Yes, go to Q6.1
- No, go to Q7

Q6.1 Please select as many formal requirements as necessary

- Commit to specific goals
- Implement a program
- Participate on working sessions and / or events
- Communicate about the partnership vision and objectives
- Commit financial resources
- Commit staff
- Build partnerships

Other:	

Q7: Does your organization have a main contact permanently representing your organization?

- Yes, go to Q7.1
- No, go to Part B

Q7.1: What is his/her position in your organization?

- Board member/Councillor
- CEO/Executive Director
- Senior administrator
- Department manager
- Program manager
- Analyst
- Junior staff
- External advisor
- Owner
- Business Partner

Other:	

Q7.1.1: Which department does he/she work in? (Select as many as necessary)

- Sustainability
- Environment
- Corporate Social Responsibility
- Communications
- Marketing
- Public Relations
- External Affairs
- General Management
- Human Resources

- Community Relations
- Planning
- Operations/Facilities Management
- Energy
- Natural Resources

Other:	

Part B: Drivers to be part of the sustainability partnership

Q8: Drivers for your organization to become a partner

What value did your organization assign to the following drivers when joining the partnership?

Q8.1: Community Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Contributing positively to all the sustainability goals of the vision					
Contributing positively to environmental challenges					
Contributing positively to social challenges					
Contributing positively to economic challenges					
Contributing positively to the sustainability of the community					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q8.2: Human Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Gaining knowledge / Learning					
Gaining expertise					
Sharing own experiences					
Improving competencies					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q8.3: Organizational Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Improving the sustainability of your organization					
Innovation capacity					
Building new relationships					
Improving reputation					
Gaining legitimacy					

Becoming more influential					
Having access to new markets					
Marketing opportunities					
Networking					
Collaborating with others					
Engaging with the community					
Improving relationship with authorities					
Improving relationship with NGOs					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q8.4: Financial Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Improving financial performance					
Reducing costs					
Funding opportunities					
Developing new products/services					
Making new businesses					
Attracting new investors					
Increasing financial resources					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q8.5: Physical Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Increasing resources					
Improving processes					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q9: Are the original drivers your organization became a partner exactly the same as why it remains a partner?

- Yes, go to Part C
- No, go to Q9.1

Q9.1: What value does your organization assign today to the following drivers for remaining in the partnership?

Q9.1.1: Community Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Contributing positively to all the sustainability goals of the vision					
Contributing positively to environmental challenges					
Contributing positively to social challenges					
Contributing positively to economic challenges					
Contributing positively to the sustainability of the community					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q9.1.2: Human Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Gaining knowledge / Learning					
Gaining expertise					
Sharing own experiences					
Improving competencies					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q9.1.3: Organizational Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Improving the sustainability of your organization					
Innovation capacity					
Building new relationships					
Improving reputation					
Gaining legitimacy					
Becoming more influential					
Having access to new markets					

Marketing opportunities					
Networking					
Collaborating with others					
Engaging with the community					
Improving relationship with authorities					
Improving relationship with NGOs					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q9.1.4: Financial Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Improving financial performance					
Reducing costs					
Funding opportunities					
Developing new products/services					
Making new businesses					
Attracting new investors					
Increasing financial resources					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q9.1.5: Physical Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Increasing resources					
Improving processes					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Part C: The organization implementation structure

(Implementation structure: organizational structures in charge of sustainability within the organization)

Q10: Before joining the Partnership, did your organization have a structure for implementing sustainability? (e.g. a department with staff and/or budget)

- Yes, go to Q10.1
- No, go to Q10.2

Q10.1: Did your organization change the structure due to joining the Partnership?

- Yes, go to Q10.1.1
- No, go to Q10.2.1

Q10.1.1: Please select Yes or No to the following structural changes on your organization:

	Yes	No
A new department		
New position(s)		
A cross-functional team		
Partnerships with other organizations		
Assignment of more budget		
New revenue		
Acquiring debt		
Assignment of machines		
Assignment of an office		
Assignment of infrastructure		
Implementation of Policies		
Implementation of Plans		
Implementation of Reporting		
Implementation of Monitoring & Controlling practices		

Please include if there is Other

Q10.2: Did your organization implement a structure due to joining the Partnership?

- Yes, go to Q10.2.1
- No, go to Part D

Q10.2.1: Please select Yes or No to the following structural changes on your organization:

	Yes	No
A new department		
New position(s)		
A cross-functional team		
Partnerships with other organizations		
Assignment of more budget		
New revenue		
Acquiring debt		
Assignment of machines		
Assignment of an office		
Assignment of infrastructure		
Implementation of Policies		
Implementation of Plans		
Implementation of Reporting		
Implementation of Monitoring & Controlling practices		

Please include if there is Other

Part D: Organization outcomes

(Outcomes: different types of benefits achieved by the organization due to being a partner)

Q12. As a result of remaining a partner of the partnership, your organization has achieved ...

Please rate the achieved outcomes according to the value assigned by your organization

Q12.1: Community Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Contributing positively to all the sustainability goals of the vision					
Contributing positively to environmental challenges					
Contributing positively to social challenges					
Contributing positively to economic challenges					
Contributing positively to the sustainability of the community					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q12.2: Human Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Gaining knowledge / Learning					
Gaining expertise					
Sharing own experiences					
Improving competencies					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q12.3: Organizational Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Improving the sustainability of your organization					
Innovation capacity					
Building new relationships					
Improving reputation					
Gaining legitimacy					
Becoming more influential					
Having access to new markets					
Marketing opportunities					
Networking					
Collaborating with others					
Engaging with the community					
Improving relationship with authorities					
Improving relationship with NGOs					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q12.4: Financial Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Improving financial performance					
Reducing costs					
Funding opportunities					
Developing new products/services					
Making new businesses					
Attracting new investors					
Increasing financial resources					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q12.5: Physical Capital

	No value	Little value	Neutral	Some Value	Very valuable
Increasing resources					
Improving processes					

If Other, please include as well as its value for the organization

Q13. Are there any negative outcomes due to being a partner?

- Yes, go to Q13.1
- No, go to page 18

Q13.1 Please name the main negative outcomes

Thank you

Thank you for taking the time of participating in this survey. This information is not only valuable for our research but also for the Secretariat. Can we follow up if we have additional questions? If yes, please leave your contact details including name, organization and email address in the comment box below.

Survey in French

Étude internationale de partenariats intersectoriels en vue de la mise en œuvre de stratégies de développement durable des collectivités – Les partenaires

Une étude élaborée par la *School of Environment, Enterprise and Development* de l'University of Waterloo, en collaboration avec la direction de l'environnement et du développement durable de la Ville de Montréal.

Invitation

Cher partenaire,

En collaboration avec la Ville de Montréal, nous invitons votre organisation à participer à un sondage international. Dans le cadre de la recherche intitulée « Partenariats intersectoriels sociaux en vue de la mise en œuvre de stratégies de développement durable des collectivités : une étude des relations entre les structures de collaboration et les résultats », conduite par Dr Amelia Clarke de la *Faculty of Environment* de l'University of Waterloo, la Ville de Montréal a été choisie, en tant que partie prenante de l'un des cinq plans de développement durable, afin de participer au sondage servant à évaluer les partenaires et leur rôle dans l'atteinte des objectifs de durabilité. L'objectif principal de cette recherche est de contribuer à l'amélioration du concept de partenariats intersectoriels pour les partenaires.

Ce sondage nous fournira de l'information en ce qui a trait à votre organisation, ses caractéristiques structurelles de mise en œuvre, ses facteurs et les résultats atteints en tant que partenaire du plan de développement durable de la collectivité montréalaise. Selon l'information fournie par la direction de l'environnement et du développement durable, votre organisation est un partenaire très important et vos réponses seront précieuses, non seulement pour cette recherche, mais aussi pour le plan.

Nous vous invitons à remplir le sondage ci-joint, ce qui devrait vous prendre entre dix et quinze minutes. Les questions sont axées sur l'organisation que vous représentez et non sur vos idées ou opinions. Vous pouvez passer par-dessus toutes questions auxquelles vous ne voulez pas répondre. Il n'y a aucun risque connu ou anticipé relié à votre participation à cette étude. Les réponses individuelles demeureront confidentielles, mais les données recueillies seront partagées avec les villes participantes et avec le mouvement des villes durables. Les données amassées par cette étude seront conservées pendant une période de dix ans dans un bureau verrouillé de l'University of Waterloo.

Si vous souhaitez participer à cette étude, vous fournissez votre consentement implicite en répondant au sondage. Après avoir reçu cette lettre, si vous avez des questions ou désirez obtenir de plus amples renseignements vous permettant de prendre une décision sur votre participation, veuillez contacter la professeure Amelia Clarke (amelia.clarke@uwaterloo.ca) ou Eduardo Ordóñez-Ponce (eordonez@uwaterloo.ca) ou encore, consultez le site web du projet (https://uwaterloo.ca/implementing-sustainable-community-plans/).

Merci d’avance pour votre intérêt à ce projet.

Sincèrement,
Dr Amelia Clarke
Directrice du *Master of Environment and Business Program*; professeure agrégée

Eduardo Ordóñez-Ponce (MEng)
Doctorant en durabilité sociale et environnementale (*Social and Ecological Sustainability*)
Faculty of Environment
University of Waterloo

En collaboration avec la direction de l’environnement et du développement durable de la Ville de Montréal

Financée par le Conseil de recherches en sciences humaines du Canada

Partie A : L'organisation partenaire

(Partenaire : l'organisation qui s'est jointe au plan en tant que membre)

Q1. Veuillez entrer le nom de votre organisation

Q1.1. Veuillez sélectionner votre poste en tant que répondant au sondage

- Membre non dirigeant du C.A.
- PDG/Directeur exécutif
- Administrateur principal
- Gestionnaire de direction
- Gestionnaire de programme
- Analyste
- Employé subalterne
- Conseiller externe
- Propriétaire
- Partenaire d'affaires
- Chef en durabilité/environnement

Autre :	

Q2 : Confirmez-vous que l'organisation que vous représentez participe au plan de développement durable de la collectivité montréalaise?

- Oui
- Non

Q3 : Veuillez sélectionner quel(s) secteur(s) économique(s) suivant(s) représente(nt) le mieux votre organisation

(https://www.ic.gc.ca/eic/site/cis-sic.nsf/eng/h_00004.html)

- Hébergement et services de restauration
- Services administratifs, services de soutien, services de gestion des déchets et services d'assainissement
- Agriculture, foresterie, pêche et chasse
- Arts, spectacles et loisirs
- Construction
- Services d'enseignement : université
- Services d'enseignement : collège (ou CÉGEP)
- Services d'enseignement : école
- Services d'enseignement : garderie

- Finance et assurances
- Soins de santé et aide sociale : hôpital
- Soins de santé et assistance sociale : centre médical
- Industrie de l'information et industrie culturelle
- Gestion de sociétés et d'entreprises
- Manufacturier (excluant secteur de l'alimentation)
- Manufacturier - alimentation
- Extraction minière et extraction de pétrole et de gaz
- Autres services (sauf les administrations publiques)
- Services professionnels, scientifiques et techniques
- Administrations publiques : gouvernement fédéral/national (en entier)
- Administrations publiques : gouvernement fédéral/national (un service)
- Administrations publiques : gouvernement provincial (en entier)
- Administrations publiques : gouvernement provincial (un service)
- Administrations publiques : gouvernement local (en entier)
- Administrations publiques : gouvernement local (un service)
- Services immobiliers et services de location
- Commerce de détail
- Transport et entreposage
- Services publics
- Commerce de gros

Q3.1 Si votre organisation est un commerce, veuillez sélectionner ce qui correspond à sa taille

- Très petite (1 à 49 employés à temps plein)
- Petite (50 à 99 employés à temps plein)
- Moyenne (100 à 499 employés à temps plein)
- Grande (500 employés et plus à temps plein)

Q3.2 S'il s'agit d'une association, veuillez cocher autant de cases que nécessaire

- Chambre de commerce
- Syndicat
- Table de quartier

Veuillez sélectionner le nombre de membres :	
Autre :	

Q3.3 Sélectionnez un établissement d'enseignement, si c'est le cas

- Université
- Collège (ou CÉGEP)
- École
- Services de garde

Autre :	

Q3.4 S'il s'agit d'une organisation non gouvernementale ou à but non lucratif, veuillez cocher autant de cases que nécessaire

- Environnementale
- Sociale
- Économique
- Politique
- Culturelle

Autre :	

Q4 : Votre organisation a-t-elle été active dans la conception du plan, de sa vision et ses objectifs?

- Oui
- Non

Q5 : Depuis quand votre organisation est-elle partenaire?

- Moins d'un an
- De 1 à 5 ans
- De 5 à 10 ans
- Plus de 10 ans

Q5.1 : L'engagement de votre organisation était-il obligatoire ou volontaire?

- Obligatoire
- Volontaire

Q6 : Existe-t-il des exigences formelles pour devenir partenaire?

- Oui. Allez à la question Q6.1
- Non. Allez à la question Q7

Q6.1 Veuillez cocher autant d'exigences formelles que nécessaire

- S'engager à des objectifs précis

- Mettre en place un programme
- Participer à des sessions de travail ou à des événements
- Partager la vision du plan et ses objectifs
- S'engager financièrement
- S'engager à affecter du personnel
- Établir des partenariats

Autre :	

Q6.2 Veuillez cocher autant d'exigences formelles réalisées dans le cadre du Plan de développement durable de la collectivité montréalaise

- Travailler aux côtés de l'administration montréalaise à faire de Montréal une métropole durable
- S'engager à mettre en œuvre au moins dix actions du plan
- Promouvoir des actions du plan 2010-2015 auprès d'autres organisations ou auprès du public lorsque ces actions sont directement reliées à leur mission ou offre de service
- Inciter au moins un de leurs collaborateurs d'affaires à devenir partenaire du plan
- Rendre compte de leur progression
- Diffuser leurs engagements sur leur propre site Web

Autre :	

Q7 : Est-ce que votre organisation a un interlocuteur principal qui la représente de façon permanente?

- Oui. Allez à la question Q7.1
- Non. Allez à la partie B

Q7.1 : Quel est son poste dans l'organisation?

Remplir seulement si l'interlocuteur principal est différent de vous en tant que répondant à ce sondage

- Membre non dirigeant du C.A.
- PDG/Directeur général
- Administrateur principal
- Gestionnaire de direction
- Gestionnaire de programme
- Analyste
- Employé subalterne
- Conseiller externe
- Propriétaire
- Partenaire d'affaires
- Chef en durabilité/environnement

Autre :	

Q7.1.1 : Dans quel service travaille l'interlocuteur principal pour le plan? (veuillez cocher autant de cases que nécessaire)

- Durabilité
- Environnement
- Responsabilité sociale organisationnelle
- Communications
- Marketing
- Relations publiques
- Affaires extérieures
- Gestion générale
- Ressources humaines
- Relations communautaires
- Planification
- Gestion des opérations et des installations
- Énergie
- Ressources naturelles

Autre :	

Partie B : Facteurs d'adhésion au plan de durabilité

Q8 : Facteurs faisant en sorte que votre organisation **devienne** un partenaire

Quelle valeur votre organisation a-t-elle assignée aux facteurs suivants **lors de son adhésion** au plan?

Q8.1 : Capital communautaire

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Contribuer de façon positive à tous les objectifs de la vision durable					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis environnementaux					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis sociaux					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis économiques					
Contribuer de façon positive au développement durable de la communauté					
Contribuer de façon positive à votre secteur (Entreprise et industrie, OBNL, corps publics)					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q8.2 : Capital humain

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Acquérir des connaissances/apprendre					
Acquérir de l'expertise					
Partager sa propre expérience					
Améliorer ses compétences					
Obtenir du soutien de la part des pairs et partager des bonnes pratiques					
Saisir des opportunités pour monter des projets collaboratifs et novateurs					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q8.3 : Capital organisationnel

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Améliorer la durabilité de votre organisation					
Possibilité d'innovation					
Établir de nouvelles relations					
Améliorer la réputation					
Acquérir de la légitimité					
Devenir plus influent					
Acquérir un accès à de nouveaux marchés					
Occasions de marketing					
Réseautage					
Collaborer avec d'autres					
Engagement auprès de la communauté					
Améliorer les relations avec les autorités					
Améliorer les relations avec les ONG					
Améliorer l'accès à l'information et saisir des opportunités intéressantes					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q8.4 : Capital financier

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Améliorer la performance financière					
Réduire les coûts					
Occasions de financement					
Développer de nouveaux produits/services					
Faire de nouvelles affaires					
Attirer de nouveaux investisseurs					
Augmenter les ressources financières					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q8.5 : Capital physique

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Augmenter les ressources					
Améliorer les processus					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q9 : Les facteurs ayant conduit votre organisation à devenir un partenaire sont-ils les mêmes que ceux qui maintiennent votre organisation comme partenaire?

- Oui. Allez à la partie C
- Non. Allez à la question Q9.1

Q9.1 : Facteurs faisant en sorte que votre organisation **demeure** un partenaire

Quelle valeur votre organisation a-t-elle assignée aux facteurs suivants **dans le maintien de son adhésion** au plan?

Q9.1.1 : Capital communautaire

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Contribuer de façon positive à tous les objectifs de la vision durable					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis environnementaux					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis sociaux					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis économiques					
Contribuer de façon positive au développement durable de la communauté					
Contribuer de façon positive à votre secteur (Entreprise et industrie, OBNL, corps publics)					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q9.1.2 : Capital humain

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Acquérir des connaissances/apprendre					
Acquérir de l'expertise					
Partager sa propre expérience					
Améliorer ses compétences					
Obtenir du soutien de la part des pairs et partager des bonnes pratiques					
Saisir des opportunités pour monter des projets collaboratifs et novateurs					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q9.1.3 : Capital organisationnel

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Améliorer la durabilité de votre organisation					
Possibilité d'innovation					
Établir de nouvelles relations					
Améliorer la réputation					
Acquérir de la légitimité					
Devenir plus influent					
Acquérir un accès à de nouveaux marchés					
Occasions de marketing					
Réseautage					
Collaborer avec d'autres					
Engagement auprès de la communauté					
Améliorer la relation avec les autorités					
Améliorer la relation avec les ONG					
Améliorer l'accès à l'information et saisir des opportunités intéressantes					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q9.1.4 : Capital financier

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Améliorer la performance financière					
Réduire les coûts					
Occasions de financement					
Développer de nouveaux produits/services					
Faire de nouvelles affaires					
Attirer de nouveaux investisseurs					
Augmenter les ressources financières					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q9.1.5 : Capital physique

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Augmenter les ressources					
Améliorer les processus					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Partie C : Structure de mise en œuvre de l'organisation

(Structure de mise en œuvre : structures organisationnelles responsables de la durabilité au sein de l'organisation)

Q10 : Avant de vous joindre au plan de développement durable de la collectivité montréalaise, votre organisation était-elle dotée d'une structure pour mettre en œuvre le développement durable? (c.-à-d. un service muni de personnel ou d'un budget)

- Oui. Allez à la question Q10.1
- Non. Allez à la question Q10.2

Q10.1 : Votre organisation a-t-elle changé sa structure en raison de son adhésion au plan?

- Oui. Allez à la question Q10.1.1
- Non. Allez à la question Q10.2.1

Q10.1.1 : Veuillez sélectionner Oui ou Non pour les changements structurels suivants pour votre organisation :

	Oui	Non
Un nouveau service		
Un ou des nouveau(x) poste(s)		
Une équipe polyvalente		
Partenariats avec d'autres organisations		
Attribution de plus de budgets		
Nouveaux revenus		
Acquisition de dette		
Attribution de machines		
Attribution d'un bureau		
Attribution d'infrastructure		
Mise en œuvre de politiques		
Mise en œuvre de plans		
Mise en œuvre de rapports		
Mise en œuvre de pratiques de suivi et de contrôle		

Veuillez indiquer s'il y en a d'autres

Q10.2 : Votre organisation a-t-elle changé sa structure après avoir adhéré au plan?

- Oui. Allez à la question Q10.2.1
- Non. Allez à la partie D

Q10.2.1 : Veuillez sélectionner Oui ou Non pour les changements structurels suivants pour votre organisation :

	Oui	Non
Un nouveau service		
Un ou des nouveau(x) poste(s)		
Une équipe polyvalente		
Partenariats avec d'autres organisations		
Attribution de plus de budgets		
Nouveaux revenus		
Acquisition de dette		
Attribution de machines		
Attribution d'un bureau		
Attribution d'infrastructure		
Mise en œuvre de politiques		
Mise en œuvre de plans		
Mise en œuvre de rapports		
Mise en œuvre de pratiques de suivi et de contrôle		

Veuillez indiquer s'il y en a d'autres

Partie D : Résultats pour l'organisation

(Résultats : différents types d'avantages obtenus par l'organisation en raison de son adhésion en tant que partenaire du plan et du fait qu'elle reste partenaire)

Q12. Du fait qu'elle reste partenaire du plan, votre organisation a obtenu...

Veuillez évaluer les résultats obtenus selon la valeur assignée par votre organisation

Q12.1 : Capital communautaire

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Contribuer de façon positive à tous les objectifs de la vision durable					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis environnementaux					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis sociaux					
Contribuer de façon positive aux défis économiques					
Contribuer de façon positive au développement durable de la communauté					
Contribuer de façon positive à votre secteur (Entreprise et industrie, OBNL, corps publics)					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q12.2 : Capital humain

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Acquérir des connaissances/apprendre					
Acquérir de l'expertise					
Partager sa propre expérience					
Améliorer ses compétences					
Obtenir du soutien de la part des pairs et partager des bonnes pratiques					
Saisir des opportunités pour monter des projets collaboratifs et novateurs					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q12.3 : Capital organisationnel

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Améliorer la durabilité de votre organisation					
Possibilité d'innovation					
Établir de nouvelles relations					
Améliorer la réputation					
Acquérir de la légitimité					
Devenir plus influent					
Acquérir un accès à de nouveaux marchés					
Occasions de marketing					
Réseautage					
Collaborer avec d'autres					
Engagement auprès de la communauté					
Améliorer la relation avec les autorités					
Améliorer la relation avec les ONG					
Améliorer l'accès à l'information et saisir des opportunités intéressantes					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q12.4 : Capital financier

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Améliorer la performance financière					
Réduire les coûts					
Occasions de financement					
Développer de nouveaux produits/services					
Faire de nouvelles affaires					
Attirer de nouveaux investisseurs					
Augmenter les ressources financières					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q12.5 : Capital physique

	Pas de valeur	Peu de valeur	Neutre	Un peu de valeur	Beaucoup de valeur
Augmenter les ressources					
Améliorer les processus					

Si autre, veuillez l'ajouter, ainsi que sa valeur pour l'organisation

Q13. Existe-t-il des conséquences négatives au fait d'être partenaire?

- Oui. Allez à la question Q13.1
- Non. Allez à la page 18

Q13.1 Veuillez indiquer les conséquences négatives principales

Merci

Merci d'avoir pris le temps de répondre à ce sondage. Cette information sera précieuse, non seulement pour cette recherche, mais aussi pour la direction de l'environnement et du développement durable de la Ville de Montréal. Pouvons-nous vous contacter si nous avons d'autres questions? Si oui, veuillez fournir plus de détails plus bas, incluant votre nom, le nom de votre organisation et une adresse courriel.

Ces informations seront essentielles pour que nous puissions vous partager les résultats de la recherche, en tant que répondant.

Informations

Nom :

Organisation :

Adresse courriel :

Survey in Korean

지속가능발전 지역 전략의 이행을 위한

전 분야 파트너십에 대한 국제 연구 – 파트너십 참여자

연구기관: 캐나다 워털루 대학교 환경경영개발학부
협력기관: 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회
한국지속가능발전센터

친애하는 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회 참여위원님들께,

캐나다 워털루 대학의 아멜리아 클라크 박사가 이끌고 있는 본 연구팀은, 지역 지속가능발전 전략을 이행하기 위한 사회적 파트너십을 연구하는 프로젝트를 진행 중입니다. 지속가능발전 목표를 달성하기 위한 다양한 이해당사자들과 그들의 역할을 파악하기 위하여, 전 세계 도시 중 총 5 개 도시의 지속가능발전 파트너십 활동 조사지역을 선정하는데, 현재 스페인 바르셀로나, 영국 브리스틀, 캐나다 몬트리올과 함께 광주광역시가 4 번째 지역으로 선정되었습니다. 본 연구의 핵심 목적은 다양한 이해당사자들을 위한 보다 적절한 파트너십 방안을 구상하는데 도움이 되고자 합니다.

이에, 본 연구팀은 광주광역시지속가능발전 참여위원님들께 국제적인 설문조사에 적극 참여해 주시기를 요청드리는 바입니다.

본 설문조사를 통해 지속가능발전 파트너십 참여 단체, 참여단체들의 지속가능발전 이행구조의 특징, 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회 참여동기 및 달성 성과에 대한 내용을 파악하고자 합니다. 귀 기관의 답변내용은 본 연구뿐만 아니라 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회의 파트너십에도 매우 중요한 가치를 지닐 것입니다.

첨부한 설문지를 작성해 주시면 감사하겠으며, 작성하는데 약 10~15 분 정도의 시간이 소요될 것으로 예상합니다. 설문내용은 개인의 관점이나 의견이 아닌, 귀하가 소속되어 있는 단체에 초점을 두고 있습니다. 질문에 따라 응답이 곤란할 경우, 넘어가실 수 있습니다. 본 설문 응답으로 인한 어떠한 위험사항은 없습니다. 귀하께서 제공한 모든 정보는 비밀 유지되며, 다만, 집합적 통계결과는 본 연구 참여 도시 및 세계 지방정부 관계자들과 공유될 것입니다. 본 연구를 통해 수집된 데이터는 워털루대학에 10 년 동안 보관될 예정입니다.

본 연구에 참여하고자 하시는 분들은 설문응답을 통해 자동적으로 연구 참여하는 것으로 간주됩니다. 본 공문을 수령하신 후 질문사항이 있거나 설문참여를 위해 추가로 필요로 하는 정보가 있으면 언제든지 아래 연락처로 연락주시기 바랍니다.

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연구지원기관
캐나다 사회과학연구지원협의회(Social Sciences and Human Resources Council of Canada)

연구과제에 대한 정보
https://uwaterloo.ca/implementing-sustainable-community-plans/

Part A: 파트너

(파트너: 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 위원으로 참여하는 기관/단체)

Q1. 귀하가 소속된 기관/단체의 이름을 아래 목록에서 선택해 주세요

Q1.1. 귀하가 소속된 기관/단체에서의 직함에 체크해 주시기 바랍니다.

- 비(非) 임원(Non-Executive Board member)
- 최고경영자/상무/전무/사무국장/사무처장(CEO/Executive Director)
- 선임사원/대리/간사(Senior Administrator)
- 부장(Department Manager)
- 프로그램 팀장(Program manager)
- 분석가(Analyst)
- 사원/간사(Junior staff)
- 외부 자문관(External advisor)
- 소유주(Owner)
- 사업 파트너(Business Partner)
- 지속가능성/환경 관련 담당자(Sustainability/Environmental Lead)

기타:	

Q2: 귀하의 기관/단체가 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여하는 것이 맞습니까?

- 예
- 아니오

Q3: 다음의 보기 중 귀하의 기관/단체와 가장 가까운 업종분야를 골라주세요. 하나 또는 여러 개 선택이 가능합니다.

(https://www.ic.gc.ca/eic/site/cis-sic.nsf/eng/h_00004.html)

- 숙박 및 음식업 서비스
- 행정지원, 폐기물관리, 복원/복구 서비스
- 농업, 임업, 어업
- 문화예술, 엔터테인먼트, 레크리에이션
- 건설
- 교육서비스: 대학
- 교육서비스: 전문대학
- 교육서비스: 학교
- 교육서비스: 보육(어린이집 등)
- 금융 및 보험
- 건강의료 및 사회지원: 종합병원(3 차병원)
- 건강의료 및 사회지원: 의료원(1 차, 2 차병원)
- 정보 및 문화산업
- 기업 관리
- 식료품을 제외한 제조업
- 식료품 제조업
- 광업, 채석, 오일 및 가스 추출
- 기타 서비스(공공행정 제외)
- 전문적인 과학기술 서비스
- 공공행정: 연방/국가정부(전체)
- 공공행정: 연방/국가정부(하나의 부서)
- 공공행정: 광역정부(전체)
- 공공행정: 광역정부(하나의 부서)
- 공공행정: 지방정부(전체)
- 공공행정: 지방정부(하나의 부서)
- 부동산 및 임대업
- 소매업
- 교통 및 물류창고업

- 공공사업(수도, 전기, 가스)
- 도매업

Q3.1 귀하의 기관/단체가 '기업'일 경우, 귀하가 속한 기관/단체의 규모와 가장 가까운 것을 보기에서 골라주세요.

- 영세 기업/기관/단체(상근인력 1-49 명)
- 소기업/기관/단체(상근인력 50-99 명)
- 중기업/기관/단체(상근인력 100-499)
- 대기업/기관/단체(상근인력 500 명 이상)

Q3.2 귀하의 기관/단체가 '협회'인 경우, 아래 보기 중 해당 사항에 체크해 주세요(복수 응답 가능).

- 상공회의소
- 무역협회
- 노동조합
- 마을위원회

귀하의 기관/단체의 회원 수를 적어주세요.	
기타:	

Q3.3 귀하의 기관/단체가 '교육기관'인 경우, 아래 보기 중 해당 사항에 체크해 주세요(복수 응답 가능).

- 대학교(4 년제)
- 전문대학(2 년제)
- 학교
- 보육기관

기타:	

Q3.4 귀하의 기관/단체가 '비영리민간단체'의 경우, 아래 보기 중 해당 사항에 체크해 주세요(복수 응답 가능).

- 환경단체
- 사회단체
- 경제단체
- 정치단체
- 문화단체

기타:	

Q4: 귀하의 기관/단체는 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회의 설립, 또는 협의회의 비전 및 목표 수립에 참여했습니까?

- 예
- 아니오

Q5: 귀하의 기관/단체가 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여한 기간은 얼마입니까?

- 1 년 미만
- 1 년~5 년 미만
- 5 년~10 년 미만
- 10 년 이상

Q5.1: 귀하의 기관/단체는 의무적(당연직)입니까? 자발적(위촉직)입니까?

- 의무적(당연직) 참여
- 자발적(위촉직) 참여

Q6: 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회 위원이 되는데, 공식적인 참여요건이 있습니까?

- 예, Q6.1 로 가세요.
- 아니오, Q7 로 가세요.

Q6.1 어떠한 공식적인 참여요건들이 있는지 선택해 주세요(복수 응답 가능).

- 특정 목표의 이행 합의
- 프로그램 이행
- 협의회 회의 또는 행사 참여
- 협의회 비전 및 목표에 대한 소통
- 재정지원
- 실무인력 지원
- 파트너십 구축

기타:	

Q7: 귀하의 기관/단체에는 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회의 활동에 참여하는 담당자가 있습니까?

- 예, Q7.1 로 가세요.
- 아니오, Part B 로 가세요.

Q7.1: 주(主) 담당자의 직함은 어떻게 됩니까? 귀하가 아닌 다른 주(主) 담당자가 있을 경우에만 응답해 주세요.

- 비(非) 임원(Non-Executive Board member)
- 최고경영자(CEO)/상무/전무(CEO/Executive Director)
- 선임사원/대리/간사(Senior Administrator)
- 부장(Department Manager)
- 프로그램 팀장(Program manager)
- 분석가(Analyst)
- 사원/간사(Junior staff)
- 외부 자문관(External advisor)
- 소유주(Owner)
- 사업 파트너(Business Partner)
- 지속가능성/환경 관련 담당자(Sustainability/Environmental Lead)

기타:	

Q7.1.1: 귀하가 근무하고 있는 부서는 어디입니까?(복수 응답 가능)

- 지속가능발전
- 환경
- 기업사회적책임(CSR)
- 커뮤니케이션
- 마케팅
- 홍보
- 대외협력
- 총무
- 인사
- 지역홍보
- 기획
- 시설운영관리
- 에너지
- 자연자원

기타:	

Part B: 지속가능발전협의회 참여 동기

Q8: 귀하의 기관/단체가 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여하게 된 동기

귀하의 기관/단체가 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여할 때, 다음의 내용들에 어느 정도 가치를 부여했는지 해당란에 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

Q8.1: 지역공동체 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
전반적인 지속가능발전 비전과 목표에 적극 기여					
환경문제에 적극 기여					
사회문제에 적극 기여					
경제문제에 적극 기여					
지역 지속가능발전에 적극 기여					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q8.2: 인적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
지식 획득/학습					
전문성 획득					
경험공유					
경쟁력 제고					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q8.3: 조직적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
우리 기관/단체의 지속가능성 제고					
혁신 역량					
새로운 관계 구축					
평판 제고					
정당성 획득					
영향력 증대					
새로운 시장에의 접근					
마케팅 기회					
네트워크					
타 기관/단체와의 협력					
지역사회 참여					
정부와의 관계 개선					
시민단체와의 관계 개선					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q8.4: 재정적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
재정운영 개선					
비용 절감					
자금지원의 기회					
신상품/서비스의 개발					
새로운 사업 개발					
새로운 투자자 유치					
재원 확대					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q8.5: 물리적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
자원의 증대					
조직의 운영과정 개선					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q9: 귀 기관/단체가 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 현재 참여하고 있는 동기가 처음 참여했을 때와 동일합니까?

- 예, Part C 로 가세요.
- 아니오, Q9.1 로 가세요.

Q9.1: 귀하의 기관/단체가 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 계속 참여하고 있는 동기

귀 기관/단체가 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 계속 참여하기 위해, 다음 내용들에 현재 어느 정도 가치를 부여하고 있는지 해당란에 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

Q9.1.1: 지역공동체 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
전반적인 지속가능발전 비전과 목표에 적극 기여					
환경문제에 적극 기여					
사회문제에 적극 기여					
경제문제에 적극 기여					
지역 지속가능발전에 적극 기여					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q9.1.2: 인적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
지식 획득/학습					
전문성 획득					
경험 공유					
경쟁력 제고					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q9.1.3: 조직적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
우리 기관/단체의 지속가능성 제고					
혁신 역량					
새로운 관계 구축					
평판 제고					
정당성 획득					
영향력 증대					
새로운 시장에의 접근					
마케팅 기회					
네트워크					
타 기관/단체와의 협력					
지역사회 참여					
정부와의 관계 개선					
시민단체와의 관계 개선					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q9.1.4: 재정적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
재정운영 개선					
비용 절감					
자금지원의 기회					
신상품/서비스의 개발					
새로운 사업 개발					
새로운 투자자 유치					
재원 증대					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q9.1.5: 물리적 자본

	전혀 부여하지 않음	거의 부여하지 않음	보통	조금 부여	매우 부여
자원의 증대					
조직의 운영과정 개선					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Part C: 조직 이행 구조

(이행구조: 조직 내 지속가능발전 담당 구조)

Q10: 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 **참여하기 전**, 귀하의 기관/단체에 지속가능발전을 담당하는 조직구조가 있었습니까?(예를 들어, 예산과 상근 인력을 둔 담당 부서 등)

- 예, Q10.1 로 가세요.
- 아니오, Q10.2 로 가세요.

Q10.1: 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여하게 되면서 귀 기관/단체의 조직에 변화가 있었습니까?

- 예, Q10.1.1 로 가세요.
- 아니오, Q10.2.1 로 가세요.

Q10.1.1: 귀하의 기관/단체의 조직 변화 내용을 아래 항목별로 해당란에 각각 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

	예	아니오
신규부서		
신규 직책/담당자		
전 분야 총괄팀		
타 기관/단체와의 협력		
추가 예산 배정		
신규 수입		
부채 발생		
기계 배치		
사무실 배치		
기반시설 조성		
정책 이행		
계획 이행		
보고서 작성 및 보고		
사업 모니터링 및 관리 이행		

추가하여 다른 내용이 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q10.2: 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여하게 되면서, 귀 기관/단체에 조직적 변화가 있었습니까?

- 예, Q10.2.1 로 가세요.
- 아니오, Part D 로 가세요.

Q10.2.1: 귀하의 기관/단체의 조직 변화 내용을 아래 항목별로 해당란에 각각 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

	예	아니오
신규부서		
신규 직책/담당자		
전 분야 총괄팀		
타 기관/단체와의 협력		
추가 예산 배정		
신규 수입		
부채 발생		
기계 배치		
사무실 배치		
기반시설 조성		
정책 이행		
계획 이행		
보고서 작성 및 보고		
사업 모니터링 및 관리 이행		

추가하여 다른 내용이 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Part D: 조직 성과

(성과: 협의회 참여를 통해 참여기관/단체가 얻은 다양한 형태의 혜택)

Q12. 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여한 성과로써, 아래 표의 각 항목별 내용에 대해 귀하의 기관/단체가 목적 달성한 정도를 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

Q12.1: 지역공동체 자본

	전혀 달성되지 않음	거의 달성하지 않음	보통	조금 달성	매우 달성
전반적인 지속가능발전 비전과 목표에 적극 기여					
환경문제에 적극 기여					
사회문제에 적극 기여					
경제문제에 적극 기여					
지역 지속가능발전에 적극 기여					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q12.2: 인적 자본

	전혀 달성하지 않음	거의 달성하지 않음	보통	조금 달성	매우 달성
지식 획득/학습					
전문성 획득					
경험 공유					
경쟁력 제고					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q12.3: 조직적 자본

	전혀 달성하지 않음	거의 달성하지 않음	보통	조금 달성	매우 달성
우리 기관/단체의 지속가능성 제고					
혁신 역량					
새로운 관계 구축					
평판 제고					
정당성 획득					
영향력 증대					
새로운 시장에의 접근					
마케팅 기회					
네트워크					
타 기관/단체와의 협력					
지역사회 참여					
정부와의 관계 개선					
시민단체와의 관계 개선					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q12.4: 재정적 자본

	전혀 달성하지 않음	거의 달성하지 않음	보통	조금 달성	매우 달성
재정운영 개선					
비용 절감					
자금지원의 기회					
신상품/서비스의 개발					
새로운 사업 개발					
새로운 투자자 유치					
재원 증대					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q12.5: 물리적 자본

	전혀 달성하지 않음	거의 달성하지 않음	보통	조금 달성	매우 달성
자원 증대					
조직의 운영과정 개선					

다른 내용의 가치가 있다면, 적어주시기 바랍니다.

Q13. 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회에 참여한 이후 부정적인 결과가 있습니까?

- 예, Q13.1 로 가세요.
- 아니오, page 18 로 가세요.

Q13.1 주요 부정적인 결과에 대해 간략히 적어주시기 바랍니다.

감사합니다.

본 설문에 응답에 주시어 감사합니다. 귀하의 응답내용은 연구뿐만 아니라 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회의 사무국에 유용하게 사용될 예정입니다.

연구팀에서 추가 설문이 필요할 경우, 귀하께 연락을 취할 수 있을런지요? 동의하신다면, 귀하의 이름, 소속, 이메일 주소를 아래에 적어주시기 바랍니다.

귀하의 연락처는 본 연구팀의 연구결과를 귀하와 공유하기 위해 필요합니다.

연락처

이름:

소속 기관/단체명:

이메일 주소:

Survey in Spanish

Estimado miembro de Barcelona + Sostenible:

En colaboración con la Secretaría de Barcelona + Sostenible estamos invitando a su organización a participar en una encuesta internacional. Como parte de la investigación titulada "Alianzas Multisectoriales para la Implementación de Estrategias de Sostenibilidad Comunitarias: Un estudio sobre las relaciones entre las estructuras de colaboración y los resultados", dirigido por la Dra. Amelia Clarke de la Facultad de Medio Ambiente de la Universidad de Waterloo en Canadá, Barcelona + Sostenible ha sido seleccionado como uno de los cinco planes de sostenibilidad para participar en una encuesta para evaluar los miembros y su rol para alcanzar los objetivos de sostenibilidad. El objetivo principal de esta investigación es contribuir al diseño de mejores y más adecuadas alianzas multisectoriales para los miembros.

Esta encuesta nos proporcionará información con respecto a su organización, las características estructurales de implementación, los motivos y los resultados alcanzados como miembro de Barcelona + Sostenible. De acuerdo con la información proporcionada por la Secretaría de Barcelona + Sostenible, su organización es un miembro muy importante cuyas respuestas serán de gran valor no sólo para esta investigación, sino también para la Secretaría.

Estaríamos muy agradecidos si usted completa la encuesta que se espera tome entre diez y quince minutos. Las preguntas se centran en la organización a la que representa y no en sus puntos de vista u opiniones. Puede omitir cualquier pregunta que usted prefiere no contestar. No hay riesgos conocidos o previstos por participar en este estudio. Toda la información que usted proporcione será considerada confidencial, pero los resultados agregados serán compartidos con las ciudades participantes y el movimiento de ciudades sostenibles. Los datos recogidos a través de este estudio se mantendrán por un período de diez años en una oficina cerrada en la Universidad de Waterloo en Canadá.

Si su organización está interesada en participar en este estudio, el consentimiento por participar es implícito al responder la encuesta. Si después de recibir esta invitación, usted tiene alguna pregunta o desea información adicional para ayudarle a tomar una decisión acerca de la participación, no dude en ponerse en contacto con la profesora Amelia Clarke (amelia.clarke@uwaterloo.ca) o Eduardo Ordóñez (eordonez@uwaterloo.ca) o en la página web del proyecto (uwaterloo.ca/seed/LA21).

Gracias de antemano por su interés en este proyecto.

Sinceramente

Dra. Amelia Clarke

Directora del Programa de Maestría en Medio Ambiente y Empresas; Profesor Asociado

Eduardo Ordóñez

Estudiante de Maestría en Estudios Ambientales, Programa de Gestión de la Sostenibilidad University of Waterloo

En colaboración con Barcelona + Sostenible

Financiado por Social Sciences and Human Resources Council of Canada

Parte A: Organización miembro

P1: Por favor seleccione el nombre de su organización

P1.1: Por favor seleccione su cargo como la persona que responde la encuesta

- Miembro de la Junta / Consejero
- Gerente General / Director Ejecutivo
- Administrador Senior
- Gerente de Departamento
- Director del Programa
- Analista
- Personal Subalterno
- Asesor externo
- Otros:

P2: ¿Con qué plan de sostenibilidad está su organización involucrada?

- Barcelona + Sostenible
- Bristol Green Capital Partnership

P3: Por favor seleccione uno o varios de los siguientes tipos de organización que mejor representa la suya

P3.1: Sector Económico[87] (por favor elija uno)

- Alojamiento y Servicios de Alimentación
- Servicios Administrativos y de Apoyo, Gestión de Residuos y Servicios de Remediación
- Agricultura, Forestal, Pesca y Caza
- Arte, Entretenimiento y Recreación
- Construcción
- Servicios Educativos: Universidad
- Servicios Educativos: Instituto Profesional
- Servicios Educativos: Escuela
- Servicios Educativos: Jardín Infantil
- Finanzas y Seguros
- Salud y Asistencia Social: Hospital
- Salud y Asistencia Social: Centro Medico
- Información e Industrias Culturales
- Administración de Empresas
- Manufacturas excluyendo Fabricación de Alimentos
- Fabricación de Alimentos

[87] https://www.ic.gc.ca/eic/site/cis-sic.nsf/eng/h_00004.html

- Minería, Canteras y Extracción de Petróleo y Gas
- Otros Servicios (excepto Administración Pública)
- Servicios Profesionales, Científicos y Técnicos
- Administración Pública: Gobierno Nacional (Como un todo)
- Administración Pública: Gobierno Nacional (Como departamento)
- Administración Pública: Gobierno Provincial (Como un todo)
- Administración Pública: Gobierno Provincial (Como departamento)
- Administración Pública: Gobierno Local (Como un todo)
- Administración Pública: Gobierno Local (Como departamento)
- Corretajes y Alquileres de Bienes Inmuebles
- Comercio al por menor
- Transporte y Almacenamiento
- Servicios básicos (agua, energía, etc.)
- Comercio Mayorista

P3.2: Si es una Organización No Gubernamental / Sin Ánimo de Lucro, seleccione tantas como sea necesario

- Ambiental
- Social
- Económica
- Política
- Otro:

P3.3: Si es una Asociación, seleccione tantas como sea necesario

- Cámara de Comercio
- Juntas de Comercio
- Sindicatos
- Juntas de Vecinos
- Otro:

P3.4: Seleccione una Empresa si es su caso

- Pequeñas (1-99 empleados a tiempo completo)
- Medianas (100 a 499 empleados a tiempo completo)
- Grandes (más de 500 empleados a tiempo completo)

P3.5: Seleccione una Institución de Educación si es su caso

- Universidad
- Instituto Técnico-Profesional
- Escuela

- Jardín Infantil
- Otro:

P4: ¿Participó su organización en la formulación inicial del plan?

- Sí
- No

P5: ¿Cuánto tiempo lleva su organización como miembro?

- Menos de 1 año
- Más de 1 año y menos de 5 años
- Más de 5 años y menos de 10 años
- Más de 10 años

P6: ¿El involucramiento de su organización ha sido obligatorio o voluntario?

- Obligatorio
- Voluntario

P6.1: ¿Tiene su organización requisitos formales para ser miembros?

- Sí , ir a Hoja 3
- No, ir a Hoja 4

P6.1.1 Seleccione tantos requisitos formales como sea necesario

- Comprometerse con objetivos específicos
- Implementar un programa
- Participar en sesiones de trabajo
- Comunicar sobre el plan
- Comprometer recursos financieros
- Comprometer personal
- Crear alianzas
- Otros:

P7: ¿Su organización tiene un contacto principal que representa permanentemente a su organización en el plan?

- Sí , ir a Hoja 5
- No, ir a Parte B: Razones

P7.1: ¿Cuál es la posición de él/la representante en la organización?

- Miembro del Directorio / Consejero
- Gerente General / Director Ejecutivo
- Administrador Senior

- Gerente de Departamento
- Director del Programa
- Analista
- Personal Subalterno
- Asesor externo
- Otro:

P7.1.1: ¿En qué departamento trabaja él/ella? (Seleccionar tantos como sea necesario)

- Sostenibilidad
- Medio ambiente
- Responsabilidad Social Corporativa
- Comunicaciones
- Mercadeo
- Relaciones Públicas
- Asuntos Externos
- Administración General
- Recursos Humanos
- Relaciones con la Comunidad
- Planificación
- Operaciones / Gestión de Instalaciones
- Energía
- Recursos Naturales
- Otro:

Parte B: Razones para ser parte del plan de sostenibilidad

P8: Razones de su organización para convertirse en un miembro

¿Qué valor tenían para su organización las siguientes razones cuando se incorporó al plan?

P8.1: Capital Comunitario

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Contribuir positivamente a todos los objetivos de sostenibilidad del plan					
Contribuir positivamente a los retos ambientales					
Contribuir positivamente a los retos sociales					
Contribuir positivamente a los retos económicos					
Contribuir positivamente a la sostenibilidad de la comunidad					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P8.2: Capital Humano

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Ganar conocimiento					
Ganar experiencia					
Aprendizaje					
Compartir experiencias					
Mejorar competencias					

P8.3: Capital Organizacional

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Mejorar la sostenibilidad de su organización					
Capacidad de innovación					
Construcción de nuevas relaciones					
Mejorar la reputación					
Ganar legitimidad					
Ser cada vez más influyente					
Tener acceso a nuevos mercados					
Oportunidades de mercadeo					
Redes					
Colaborar con otros					

Compromiso con la comunidad					
Mejorar la relación con autoridades					
Mejorar la relación con las ONGs					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P8.4: Capital Financiero

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Mejorar los resultados financieros					
Reducción de costes					
Oportunidades de financiamiento					
Desarrollo de nuevos productos / servicios					
Hacer nuevos negocios					
Atraer nuevos inversionistas					
Aumentar recursos financieros					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P8.5: Capital Físico

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Aumento de recursos					
Mejora de procesos					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P9: ¿Son las razones originales por las cuales su organización se convirtió en un miembro exactamente las mismas de por qué sigue siendo un miembro?

- Sí, ir a Hoja Parte C: Estructura
- No, ir a Hoja 7

P9.1: ¿Qué valor tienen para su organización hoy las siguientes razones para permanecer en el plan?

P9.1.1: Capital Comunitario

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Contribuir positivamente a todos los objetivos de sostenibilidad del plan					
Contribuir positivamente a retos ambientales					
Contribuir positivamente a retos sociales					
Contribuir positivamente a retos económicos					
Contribuir positivamente a la sostenibilidad de la comunidad					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P9.1.2: Capital Humano

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Ganar conocimiento					
Ganar experiencia					
Aprendizaje					
Compartir experiencias					
Mejorar competencias					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P9.1.3: Capital Organizacional

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Mejorar la sostenibilidad de su organización					
Capacidad de innovación					
Construcción de nuevas relaciones					
Mejorar la reputación					
Ganar legitimidad					
Ser cada vez más influyente					
Tener acceso a nuevos mercados					
Oportunidades de mercadeo					
Redes					
Colaborar con otros					
Compromiso con la comunidad					
Mejorar la relación con autoridades					
Mejorar la relación con las ONGs					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P9.1.4: Capital Financiero

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Mejorar los resultados financieros					
Reducción de costes					
Oportunidades de financiamiento					
Desarrollo de nuevos productos / servicios					
Hacer nuevos negocios					
Atraer nuevos inversionistas					
Aumentar recursos financieros					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P9.1.5: Capital Físico

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Aumento de recursos					
Mejora de procesos					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

Parte C: La estructura de implementación de la organización

P10: Antes de unirse al plan, tenía su organización una estructura para implementar sostenibilidad? (Por ejemplo, un departamento con personal y/o presupuesto)

- Sí, ir a Hoja 9
- No, ir a Hoja 12

P10.1: ¿Su organización cambio la estructura debido a unirse al plan?

- Sí, ir a Hoja 10
- No, ir a Hoja 13

P10.1.1: Por favor seleccione Sí o No a los siguientes cambios estructurales en su organización:

	Sí	No
• Un nuevo departamento		
• Nueva(s) posición(s)		
• Un equipo multifuncional		
• Alianzas con otras organizaciones		
• Asignación de más presupuesto		
• Nuevos ingresos		
• Adquisición de deuda		
• Asignación de Máquina(s)		
• Asignación de Oficina		
• Asignación de Infraestructura		
• Implementación de Políticas		
• Implementación de Planes		
• Implementación de Reportes		
• Implementación de prácticas de Monitoreo y Control		

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

Parte D: Resultados para la Organización

P12. Como resultado de permanecer como miembro del plan, su organización ha logrado ...

Por favor evalúe los resultados logrados en función del valor que ellos tienen para su organización

P12.1: Capital Comunitario

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Contribuir positivamente a todos los objetivos de sostenibilidad del plan					
Contribuir positivamente a retos ambientales					
Contribuir positivamente a retos sociales					
Contribuir positivamente a retos económicos					
Contribuir positivamente a la sostenibilidad de la comunidad					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P12.2: Capital Humano

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Ganar conocimiento					
Ganar experiencia					
Aprendizaje					
Compartir experiencias					
Mejorar competencias					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P12.3: Capital Organizacional

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Mejorar la sostenibilidad de su organización					
Capacidad de innovación					
Construcción de nuevas relaciones					
Mejorar la reputación					
Ganar legitimidad					
Ser cada vez más influyente					
Tener acceso a nuevos mercados					
Oportunidades de mercadeo					
Redes					

Colaborar con otros					
Compromiso con la comunidad					
Mejorar la relación con autoridades					
Mejorar la relación con las ONGs					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P12.4: Capital Financiero

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Mejorar los resultados financieros					
Reducción de costes					
Oportunidades de financiamiento					
Desarrollo de nuevos productos / servicios					
Hacer nuevos negocios					
Atraer nuevos inversionistas					
Aumentar recursos financieros					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P12.5: Capital Físico

	Sin Valor	Poco Valor	Neutral	Algo de Valor	Mucho Valor
Aumento de recursos					
Mejora de procesos					

Si hay Otro, por favor ingresarlo así como su valor

P13. ¿Han tenido resultados negativos producto de ser miembro?

- Sí, ir a Hoja 15
- No, ir a Hoja Gracias

P13.1 Por favor nombrar los principales resultados negativos

Gracias

Gracias por tomarse el tiempo de participar en esta encuesta. Esta información no sólo es valiosa para nuestra investigación, sino también para la Secretaría de Barcelona + Sostenible.

¿Podemos seguir en contacto si tenemos más preguntas? Si es así, por favor deje sus datos de contacto, incluyendo nombre, organización y dirección de correo electrónico en el cuadro de comentarios a continuación.

Appendix II: Invitations to Respond the Survey

Invitation to Barcelona + Sustainable Partners

Senzilla col·laboració en recerca sobre aliances per la sostenibilitat

BCN Sostenible <bcnsostenible@bcn.cat>

Mon 2015-06-15 7:51 AM

To: BCN Sostenible <bcnsostenible@bcn.cat>;

1 attachments (142 KB)

Carta_invitacio_B+S.pdf;

Benvolguts, Benvolgudes,

Com a membres de Barcelona + Sostenible us proposem una col·laboració senzilla en un projecte de recerca, en benefici de la mateixa xarxa B+S. Es tracta d'omplir un qüestionari online sobre les vostres motivacions per formar part de Barcelona + Sostenible i els resultats que heu obtingut,

Omplint el qüestionari participareu en un estudi internacional de la Universitat de Waterloo (Canadà) que té per objectiu contribuir a la millora de les aliances multisectorials per la sostenibilitat, especialment per als seus membres,

Per participar si us plau feu clic aquí: http://fluidsurveys.com/surveys/amelia-clarke/encuesta-aliados-investigacion-internacional/

Adjuntem una carta dels investigadors amb més informació.

Gràcies pel vostre suport,

Secretaria Barcelona + Sostenible
La Fàbrica del Sol. Pg. de Salvat Papasseit, 1. 08003 Barcelona
Tel. 93 256 25 93
www.bcn.cat/bcnsostenible
www.bcn.cat/bcnsostenible/organitzacions
#bcnsostenible

University of Waterloo
School of Environment, Enterprise and Development
University of Waterloo
200 University Avenue West
Waterloo, Ontario, Canada
N2L 3G1
Tel 519-888-4567 x 39810
Fax 519-746-2031
www.environment.uwaterloo.ca/seed/

Estimado miembro de Barcelona + Sostenible:

En colaboración con la Secretaría de Barcelona + Sostenible estamos invitando a su organización a participar en una encuesta internacional. Como parte de la investigación titulada "Alianzas Multisectoriales para la Implementación de Estrategias de Sostenibilidad Comunitarias: Un estudio sobre las relaciones entre las estructuras de colaboración y los resultados", dirigido por la Dra. Amelia Clarke de la Facultad de Medio Ambiente de la Universidad de Waterloo en Canadá, Barcelona + Sostenible ha sido seleccionado como uno de los cinco planes de sostenibilidad para participar en una encuesta para evaluar los miembros y su rol para alcanzar los objetivos de sostenibilidad. El objetivo principal de esta investigación es contribuir al diseño de mejores y más adecuadas alianzas multisectoriales para los miembros.

Esta encuesta nos proporcionará información con respecto a su organización, las características estructurales de implementación, los motivos y los resultados alcanzados como miembro de Barcelona + Sostenible. De acuerdo con la información proporcionada por la Secretaría de Barcelona + Sostenible, su organización es un miembro muy importante cuyas respuestas serán de gran valor no sólo para esta investigación, sino también para la Secretaría.

Estaríamos muy agradecidos si usted completa la encuesta que se espera tome entre diez y quince minutos. Las preguntas se centran en la organización a la que representa y no en sus puntos de vista u opiniones. Puede omitir cualquier pregunta que usted prefiere no contestar. No hay riesgos conocidos o previstos por participar en este estudio. Toda la información que usted proporcione será considerada confidencial, pero los resultados agregados serán compartidos con las ciudades participantes y el movimiento de ciudades sostenibles. Los datos recogidos a través de este estudio se mantendrán por un período de diez años en una oficina cerrada en la Universidad de Waterloo en Canadá.

Si su organización está interesada en participar en este estudio, el consentimiento por participar es implícito al responder la encuesta. Si después de recibir esta invitación, usted tiene alguna pregunta o desea información adicional para ayudarle a tomar una decisión acerca de la participación, no dude en ponerse en contacto con la profesora Amelia Clarke (amelia.clarke@uwaterloo.ca) o Eduardo Ordóñez (eordonez@uwaterloo.ca) o en la página web del proyecto (uwaterloo.ca/seed/LA21).

Gracias de antemano por su interés en este proyecto.

Sinceramente

Dra. Amelia Clarke
Directora del Programa de Maestría en Medio Ambiente y Empresas; Profesor Asociado

Eduardo Ordóñez
Estudiante de Maestría en Estudios Ambientales, Programa de Gestión de la Sostenibilidad
University of Waterloo

En colaboración con Barcelona + Sostenible
Financiado por Social Sciences and Human Resources Council of Canada

Invitation to Bristol Green Capital Partnership Partners

Vicki Woolley <vicki@bristolgreencapital.org>

Thu 2016-03-03, 6:38 AM

Eduardo Ordonez;

+1 more

Dear Eduardo,

The survey has now gone out to our members and is available on our website:

http://us10.campaign-archive2.com/?u=527bb491f3a2e36532f740f5e&id=37babcf2da&e=[UNIQID]

As mentioned in my previous e-mail, I will focus on further promotion of the survey to members on my return from holiday in mid-March.

As regards below, I don't know of any Bristol link to this I'm afraid. I will forward to colleagues in local authority who may be planning to attend, and I have cc'd Gary in as he may have suggestions,

Best Wishes

Vicki

Vicki Woolley

Operations Manager

07957 628223

www.bristolgreencapital.org

Twitter: @bgreencapital

http://bristolgreencapital.org/partnership-selected-for-international-study-on-how-citywide-partnerships-contribute-to-sustainable-development/

Partnership selected for international study on how citywide partnerships contribute to sustainable development

10th May 2016

An international research team based at the University of Waterloo in Canada has selected Bristol Green Capital Partnership as one of the five international initiatives to be assessed on how partner organisations are contributing to the sustainable development of their cities.

Eduardo Ordonez-Ponce, the lead researcher of this stage of the project and the 'Implementing Sustainable Community Plans' research programme, tells us more about the project and how members of Bristol Green Capital Partnership can participate.

"Bristol has been selected to be a part of our research project focusing on the partnering of organisations for the sustainability of their cities. For the last six years, our research team has been studying the different dimensions of cross-sector partnerships for the implementation of community sustainability plans, which includes research focused on collaborative governance structures, indicators for measuring progress and partner motivations. The current stage of the research project seeks to understand how partner organisations are structured around sustainability challenges, what drives the organisations to be part of initiatives such as Bristol Green Capital Partnership, and what the organisations can achieve as members of partnerships. The end goal of this research is to help local governments and inform practitioners who design and implement community sustainability plans and partnerships by determining effective strategies for engaging different organisations in order to successfully contribute to the sustainability of their cities.

The overall project is led by Dr. Amelia Clarke and includes several North American and European researchers who are in association with non-academic partners, such as **ICLEI Local Governments for Sustainability**. At the current stage of the project, the partnership of **Barcelona + Sostenible** has already participated and over 85 of the partner organisations have been surveyed. The City of Barcelona started working towards a commitment for the sustainability of the city in 2002, and today more than 400 partner organisations, such as businesses, NGOs, government agencies and universities, have signed a new commitment for the year 2022. With the City of Bristol having recently been recognised as the **European Green Capital 2015** for its impressive work and progress towards sustainable development, we are interested in learning more about how and why organisations are involved. Other partnerships participating in this international research project include cities from Canada, Australia and Korea, all of which will be surveyed in the upcoming years.

The current project invites **Pledge member organisations of the Bristol Green Capital Partnership to complete an online survey.** This survey explores the main drivers for organisations to join and remain members of the partnership; the organisational structures for them to approach their and the city's sustainability challenges; and the outcomes they have achieved thanks to being part of the Partnership. In addition to sharing the anonymised results with the Bristol Green Capital Partnership Community Interest

Company, the data collected from Bristol will be compared with the four other cities in order to share transferable lessons with additional organisations. The outcomes of this research will be published in academic formats, as well as in executive reports that will be made available to all organisations who participate in the survey.

Overall, this research aims to provide valuable information from the experiences of successful international partnerships to practitioners in charge of designing and implementing community sustainability initiatives, as well as to the organisations themselves in order to learn what drives them, how they approach sustainability, and what they can gain from being partners for sustainability. This research will be beneficial to all stakeholders engaged in sustainability initiatives, and will therefore be shared with participating organisations.

Take 10 minutes to fill in the online survey here.

More information on the 'Implementing Sustainable Community Plans' research programme can be found here: https://uwaterloo.ca/implementing-sustainable-community-plans/

More information about this particular research study can be found here: https://uwaterloo.ca/implementing-sustainable-community-plans/current-students-studies/eduardo-ordonez

Invitation to Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development Partners

3/25/2018 Fwd: [SD센터] 캐나다 워털루 대학 국제 지역 지속가능발전 파트너십 현황 설문조사 사업협력의 건 - Eduardo Ordonez

Fwd: [SD센터] 캐나다 워털루 대학 국제 지역 지속가능발전 파트너십 현황 설문조사 사업협력의 건

사단법인한국지속가능발전센터 <kicsd.re.kr@gmail.com>

Sat 2018-03-24 8:53 PM

To: Eduardo Ordonez <eordonez@uwaterloo.ca>;

3 attachments (326 KB)

Invitation UWaterloo - Gwangju.docx; Invitation UWaterloo - Gwangju_국문.docx; 설문지_국문_번역초안.docx;

---------- Forwarded message ---------
From: 사단법인한국지속가능발전센터 <kicsd.re.kr@gmail.com>
Date: 2016년 3월 3일 (목) 19:44
Subject: [SD센터] 캐나다 워털루 대학 국제 지역 지속가능발전 파트너십 현황 설문조사 사업협력의 건
To: 김경일 업-(푸른광주21협의회) <greengj@hanmail.net>
Cc: 김병완 <byyakim@hanmail.net>, 김병완 <byyakim@gwangju.ac.kr>

안녕하세요,

일전에 말씀드렸던, 캐나다 워털루(Waterloo)대학의 '국제 지역 지속가능발전 파트너십 현황 설문조사' 사업 협력 건 관련하여,

캐나다 워털루 대학 연구팀의 공식서한과 설문내용 자료를 보내드리니, 사전에 참고하시기 바랍니다.

<요청사항>

1. 광주광역시지속가능발전협의회의 100여명의 참여위원 기관/단체들을 대상으로 하며, 최소 20개 이상의 기관/단체의 응답이 필요합니다.

2. 설문조사는 온라인 시스템을 통해 진행됩니다. 온라인시스템은 컴퓨터용과 모바일용 플랫폼이 모두 개발되어 있어서, 설문 참여율을 높일 수 있도록 준비했다고 합니다.

3. 설문조사 기간은 3월~5월까지 2개월간 진행할 계획이며, 통계적으로 유의미한 응답수가 확보되지 않으면, 워털루대학 연구팀이 광주광역시에 와서 직접 면접조사를 진행할 계획이랍니다. 직접 면접조사가 필요할 경우, 광주의제에서 미팅일정을 잡아주시기 요청드려요.

4. 첨부한 invitation letter(국/영문)을 보시고, 영문 letter에 광주의제의 직인을 찍어 pdf파일로 보내주세요. 워털루대학에서 증빙자료로 필요하다고 합니다.

5. 광주의제에 관한 영문 소개자료(조직현황, 활동, 비전 등)가 있는가요? 있으면, 보내주시면 좋겠습니다. 광주의제 홈페이지 주소를 알려주기는 했으나, 국문뿐이라, 혹시, 영문자료가 있으면, 더욱 좋을 것 같습니다. pdf파일로 보내주시면 가장 좋습니다.

6. 연구성과 발표 및 5개 도시 파트너십 기구 네트워크를 위한 유엔 해비타트 III 사이드이벤트 공동개최 제안: 워털루대학, 5개 연구참여도시

5개국 5개 대도시(인구 100만 이상)의 파트너십 참여기관 100개이상 파트너십기구들을 대상으로 국제연구가 진행되는 만큼,

본 연구결과를 가능한 7월~8월 중 마무리해서, 오는 유엔 해비타트 III 회의(10/17~10/21)에서 사이드 이벤트로 연구결과를 발표하고, 5개 도시들이 서로 파트너십 활동 경험을 나누는 자리를 마련했으면 합니다. 협치기구간 국제네트워크를 구축하는 계기가 될 뿐만 아니라, 5개 도시뿐들만 아니라 세계 지방정부들을 대상으로 하는 명실상부 국제회의가 되겠네요.

제가 이를 캐나다 워털루대학 연구책임자인 아멜리아 박사에게 제안했고, 다른 4개 도시들에게 국제회의 공동개최 여부를 협의중에 있습니다.

동일하게, 광주의제에도 캐나다 워털루대학, 연구참여도시들과 함께 국제회의 공동개최하는 것에 참여하시면 어떨지 제안드립니다.
광주광역시장님이 함께 가시는지 모르겠지만, 이런 정도의 국제회의 공동개최라면, 광주광역시 홍보팀과 더불어 함께 유엔 해비타트 회의 참가하시면, 큰 성과로 남을 수 있지 않나 생각해 봅니다.
공동개최에 따른 펀딩 부분이 관건일텐데, 사이드이벤트 장소사용료, 행사진행비 약간 정도 예상하고 있습니다. 공동개최니, 십시일반하면, 비용부담을 줄일 수 있지 않을까 생각되네요.

광주의제에 너무 많은 제안을 해서 부담을 드리는 건 아닌지 모르겠습니다....헙~ 그러나, 기왕 에콰도르에 가는 거, 남들이 여태 못했던것을 인권도시 광주와 했으면 해서 슬쩍 제안하는 것이니, 가볍게 생각하시면 좋겠습니다.

마지막으로, 국문번역된 설문지 내용을 보시고, 이해가 안되는 내용이 있으면 의견주시기 바랍니다. 정확한 데이터 분석을 위해 질문내용이 정확하게 이해되지 않으면 안되어서요....^.^

경효드림

--

윤경효 Denise K.H. Yoon
Director
Mobile. 010-5434-9167 | Email. dyoon1130@gmail.com | Skype ID. denise_yoon

(사)한국지속가능발전센터
서울특별시 마포구 월드컵로 26길 39 시민공간 나루 5층(성산동 249-10) (우)03969

the Korea Institute Center for Sustainable Development(KICSD)
5F, #39, Worldcup-ro 26, Mapo-gu, Seoul, Korea South, 03969

Tel | 02-706-6179 Email | kicsd.re.kr@gmail.com
Website | www.kicsd.re.kr

한국지속가능발전센터(KICSD)는 17개 지속가능발전목표(SDGs)의 국내 이행을 위한 교육 및 정책연구 민간단체입니다.

<후원계좌>
농협 021-01-173910(예금주: 한국지속가능발전센터)

Invitation to Sustainable Montreal Partners

Fw: SONDAGE - PARTENAIRES DES PLANS MONTRÉAL DURABLE - Université de Waterloo en collaboration avec ICLEI Canada

From: developpementdurable@ville.montreal.qc.ca
Sent: February 20, 2017 9:46 PM
To:
Subject: SONDAGE - PARTENAIRES DES PLANS MONTRÉAL DURABLE - Université de Waterloo en collaboration avec ICLEI Canada

Chers partenaires des Plans de développement durable de la collectivité montréalaise,

Les partenaires des plans de développement durable sont invités à participer à un sondage international auxquelles font aussi partie trois autres villes : Barcelone (Espagne), Bristol (RU) et Gwangju (Corée).
Le sondage auxquels vous êtes conviés s'inscrit dans une recherche réalisée par l'Université de Waterloo en collaboration avec ICLEI 1 Canada. Cette étude porte sur les « partenariats sociaux intersectoriels en vue de la mise en œuvre de stratégies de développement durable des collectivités : une étude des relations entre les structures de collaboration et les résultats atteints ». Les quatre villes sélectionnées ont mis sur pied des partenariats pour accélérer leurs résultats en terme de développement durable de leur collectivité. Le sondage sert notamment à identifier les facteurs qui les ont conduits à collaborer et à demeurer partenaires, leurs structures organisationnelles de contribution vers l'atteinte des objectifs de durabilité et les résultats atteints en tant que partenaires du(es) plan(s) du développement durable de Montréal.

Le sondage devrait prendre entre dix et quinze minutes de votre temps. Les questions sont axées sur l'organisation du réseau des partenaires et non sur vos idées ou opinions. Les réponses individuelles demeureront confidentielles, mais les données agrégées seront partagées avec les villes participantes et avec le mouvement des villes durables (ICLEI, etc.). Les données compilées dans cette étude seront conservées pendant une période de dix ans dans un bureau verrouillé de l'University of Waterloo.

Vous trouverez un lien vers le sondage à la fin de ce courriel. Si vous souhaitez participer à cette étude, vous fournissez votre consentement implicite en répondant au sondage.

Si vous avez des questions ou désirez obtenir de plus amples renseignements vous permettant de prendre une décision sur votre participation, veuillez contacter la professeure Mme Amelia Clarke (amelia.clarke@uwaterloo.ca) ou M. Eduardo Ordóñez-Ponce (eordonez@uwaterloo.ca) ou encore, consultez le site web du projet (https://uwaterloo.ca/implementing-sustainable-community-plans/ - en anglais seulement).

Lien vers le sondage :

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/K8XF792

Merci d'avance pour votre intérêt à ce projet.

Cordialement,

Danielle Lussier
Directrice du bureau du développement durable
Direction générale, Ville de Montréal

Dr Amelia Clarke
Directrice du *Master of Environment and Business Program*; professeure agrégée

Eduardo Ordóñez-Ponce
Doctorant en durabilité sociale et environnementale, Faculté de l'environnement, Université de Waterloo

Recherche financée par le Conseil de recherches en sciences humaines du Canada (CRSH)

1- L'ICLEI (International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives), Conseil international pour les initiatives écologiques locales (en français) est une association fondée en 1990 sous le parrainage du programme des Nations unies pour l'environnement. L'ICLEI est chargé de mettre en place et soutenir des projets de développement durable des villes à l'échelle de la planète.

L'ICLEI regroupe aujourd'hui plus de 370 acteurs locaux (villes, communes et associations municipales) répartis dans 61 pays.

Appendix III: Independent Samples Tests to Determine Response Bias

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	3.74	0.06	1.83	60	0.07	0.28	0.15	-0.03	0.58
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	0.10	0.76	0.14	26	0.89	0.01	0.08	-0.15	0.17
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	0.02	0.89	1.31	60	0.19	0.17	0.13	-0.09	0.44

Appendix IV: Independent Samples Tests Between Pairs of CSSPs to Determine Response Bias

Independent Samples Test (Barcelona – Bristol)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	.48	.49	.33	60	.74	.06	.18	-.30	.42
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	4.13	.05	.79	26	.44	.07	.09	-.12	.26
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.28	.60	-.20	60	.84	-.03	.17	-.38	.31

Independent Samples Test (Barcelona – Gwangju)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	.22	.64	-.50	60	.62	-.08	.16	-.40	.24
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	.14	.71	.58	26	.57	.06	.11	-.16	.29
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.02	.89	-.23	60	.82	-.04	.16	-.36	.29

Independent Samples Test (Barcelona – Montreal)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	.77	.38	.84	60	.41	.13	.16	-.18	.44
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	2.96	.10	-1.06	26	.30	-.10	.09	-.29	.09
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.32	.57	-.15	60	.88	-.02	.16	-.34	.29

Independent Samples Test (Bristol – Gwangju)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	1.26	.27	-.79	60	.43	-.14	.18	-.49	.21
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	3.92	.06	-.09	26	.93	-.01	.10	-.22	.20
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.45	.51	-.02	60	.98	.00	.17	-.34	.34

Independent Samples Test (Bristol – Montreal)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	2.23	.14	.41	60	.68	.07	.17	-.27	.41
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	.61	.44	-2.12	26	.04	-.17	.08	-.33	.00
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	1.21	.28	.06	60	.95	.01	.16	-.32	.34

Independent Samples Test (Gwangju – Montreal)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	.16	.69	1.41	60	.16	.21	.15	-.09	.51
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	2.64	.12	-.61	26	.12	-.16	.10	-.37	.05
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.18	.68	.09	60	.93	.01	.15	-.29	.32

Appendix V: Independent Samples Tests Between Type of Organizations to Determine Response Bias

Independent Samples Test (Civil Society – Private Sector)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	.36	.55	-.57	60	.57	-.10	.17	-.44	.25
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	.08	.78	.47	26	.64	.04	.08	-.13	.21
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.13	.72	-.63	60	.53	-.10	.15	-.41	.21

Independent Samples Test (Civil Society – Public Sector)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	.50	.48	-.20	60	.84	-.03	.17	-.37	.30
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	1.91	.18	.58	26	.56	.06	.10	-.15	.26
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.47	.50	-.20	60	.85	-.03	.16	-.35	.29

Independent Samples Test (Private Sector – Public Sector)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Score (Drivers)	Equal variances assumed	.00	.95	.40	60	.69	.06	.16	-.26	.38
Score (Structures)	Equal variances assumed	2.62	.12	.21	26	.84	.02	.10	-.18	.22
Score (Outcomes)	Equal variances assumed	.13	.72	.40	60	.69	.07	.16	-.26	.39

Appendix VI: Paired Samples Statistics - Hypothesis 4a

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Internal_Goals	2.37	224	0.64	0.04
	Societal_Goals	1.70	224	0.59	0.04

Note: means from 1: most valuable to 5: less valuable

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Internal_Goals - Societal_Goals	0.67	0.58	0.04	0.59	0.75	17.30	223	0.00

Appendix VII: Paired Samples Statistics - Hypothesis 4b

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	FinPhy _Goals	3.08	224	0.95	0.06
	HumOrg_Goals	1.99	224	0.60	0.04

Note: means from 1: most valuable to 5: less valuable

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	FinPhy_Goals - HumOrg_Goals	1.08	0.77	0.05	0.98	1.19	21.01	223	0.00

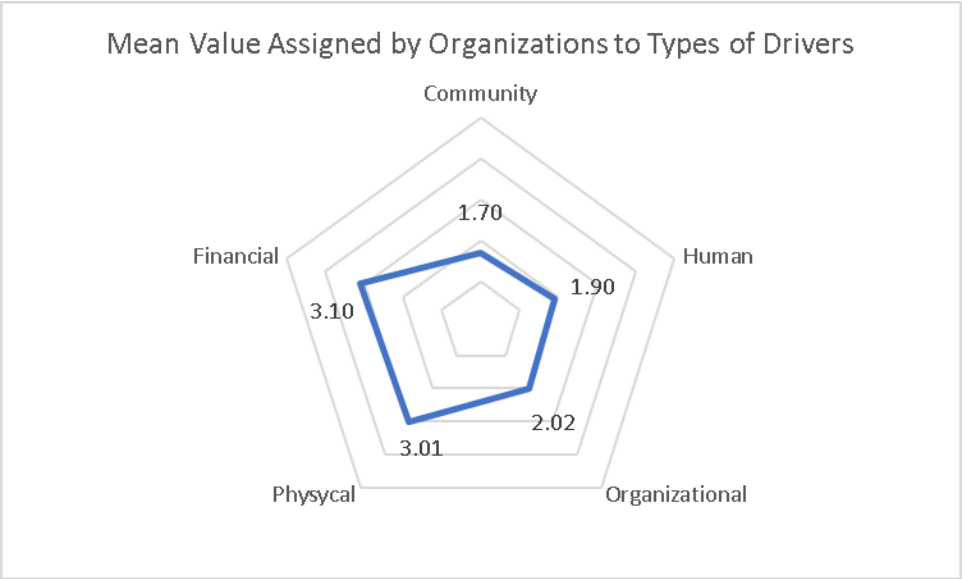
Appendix VIII: Values Assigned by Organizations to Drivers to Partner

Code	Driver	Type of Capital	Type of Driver	Mean	SD
X2	Contributing positively to environmental challenges	Community	Societal	1.44	0.74
X5	Contributing positively to community sustainability	Community	Societal	1.46	0.64
X20	Engaging with the community	Organizational	Internal	1.55	0.76
X12	Building new relationships	Organizational	Internal	1.56	0.72
X19	Collaborating with others	Organizational	Internal	1.59	0.79
X8	Sharing own experiences	Human	Internal	1.63	0.73
X1	Contributing to the plan's sustainability goals	Community	Societal	1.63	0.74
X18	Networking	Organizational	Internal	1.63	0.84
X3	Contributing positively to social challenges	Community	Societal	1.66	0.78
X6	Gaining knowledge/learning	Human	Internal	1.87	0.84
X10	Improving the organization's sustainability	Organizational	Internal	1.96	0.97
X13	Improving reputation	Organizational	Internal	2.00	0.96
X7	Gaining expertise	Human	Internal	2.04	0.90
X11	Innovation capacity	Organizational	Internal	2.05	0.90
X9	Improving competencies	Human	Internal	2.06	0.96
X15	Becoming more influential	Organizational	Internal	2.12	1.01
X14	Gaining legitimacy	Organizational	Internal	2.13	0.96
X22	Improving relationship with NGOs	Organizational	Internal	2.21	1.02
X21	Improving relationship with authorities	Organizational	Internal	2.23	1.04
X4	Contributing positively to economic challenges	Community	Societal	2.30	0.99
X17	Marketing opportunities	Organizational	Internal	2.56	1.23
X16	Having access to new markets	Organizational	Internal	2.61	1.19
X25	Funding opportunities	Financial	Internal	2.85	1.26
X31	Improving processes	Physical	Internal	2.88	1.18
X26	Developing new products/services	Financial	Internal	2.91	1.29
X27	Making new businesses	Financial	Internal	3.02	1.32
X30	Increasing resources	Physical	Internal	3.14	1.20
X29	Increasing financial resources	Financial	Internal	3.14	1.27
X24	Reducing costs	Financial	Internal	3.16	1.22
X23	Improving financial performance	Financial	Internal	3.28	1.20
X28	Attracting new investors	Financial	Internal	3.30	1.26

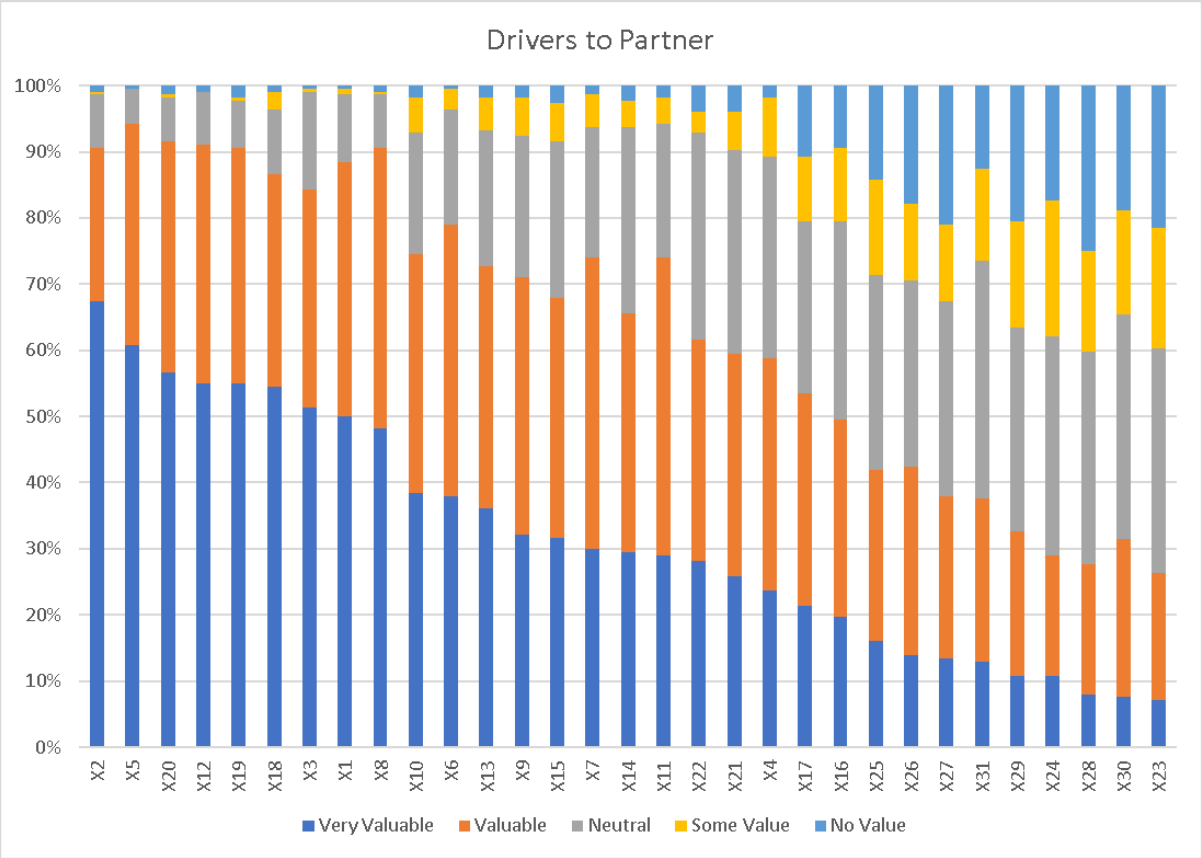
Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

Type of Capital	Mean	SD
Community	1.70	0.84
Human	1.90	0.88
Organizational	2.02	1.02
Physical	3.01	1.20
Financial	3.10	1.27

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable



Note: 1: Very Valuable; 2: Valuable: 3: Neutral; 4: Little Value; 5: No Value



Note: Codes are in Figure 13

Appendix IX: Paired Samples Statistics - Hypothesis 5

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Formal_SF	1.86	134	0.21	0.02
	Informal_SF	1.48	134	0.36	0.03

Note: means between 1: Yes and 2: No

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Formal_SF – Informal_SF	0.37	0.31	0.03	0.32	0.43	14.14	133	0.00

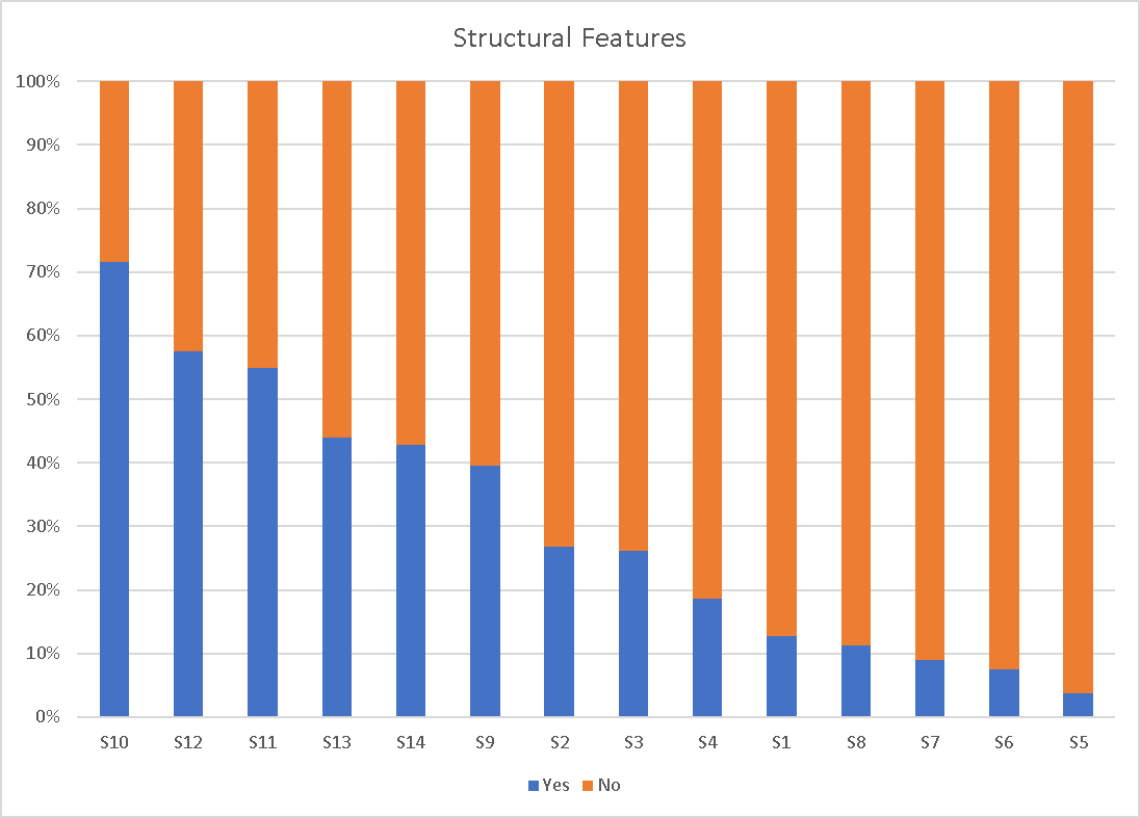
Appendix X: Values Assigned by Organizations to Structural Features

Code	Structural Feature	Type of Structure	Mean	SD
S4	Partnerships with other organizations	Informal	1.28	0.45
S12	Implementation of plans	Informal	1.43	0.50
S11	Implementation of policies	Informal	1.45	0.50
S13	Implementation of reporting	Informal	1.56	0.50
S14	Implementation of monitoring & controlling practices	Informal	1.57	0.50
S3	Having a cross-functional team	Informal	1.60	0.49
S2	New position(s)	Formal	1.73	0.44
S5	Assignment of more budget	Formal	1.74	0.44
S6	New revenue	Formal	1.81	0.39
S1	Having a new department	Formal	1.87	0.33
S10	Assignment of infrastructure	Formal	1.89	0.32
S9	Assignment of an office	Formal	1.91	0.29
S8	Assignment of machines	Formal	1.93	0.26
S7	Acquiring debt	Formal	1.96	0.19

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

Type of Structure	Mean	SD
Informal Features	1.48	0.50
Formal Features	1.86	0.35

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable



Note: Codes are in Figure 13

Appendix XI: Paired Samples Statistics - Hypothesis 6a

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Internal_Out	2.73	199	0.80	0.06
	Societal_Out	2.19	199	0.87	0.06

Note: means from 1: most valuable to 5: less valuable

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Internal_Out – Societal_Out	0.54	0.58	0.04	0.46	0.63	13.26	198	0.00

Appendix XII: Paired Samples Statistics - Hypothesis 6b

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	FinPhy_Out	3.42	199	1.01	0.07
	HumOrg_Out	2.37	199	0.81	0.06

Note: means from 1: most valuable to 5: less valuable

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	FinPhy_Out – HumOrg_Out	1.05	0.77	0.05	0.94	1.15	19.14	198	0.00

Appendix XIII: Values Assigned by Organizations to Outcomes

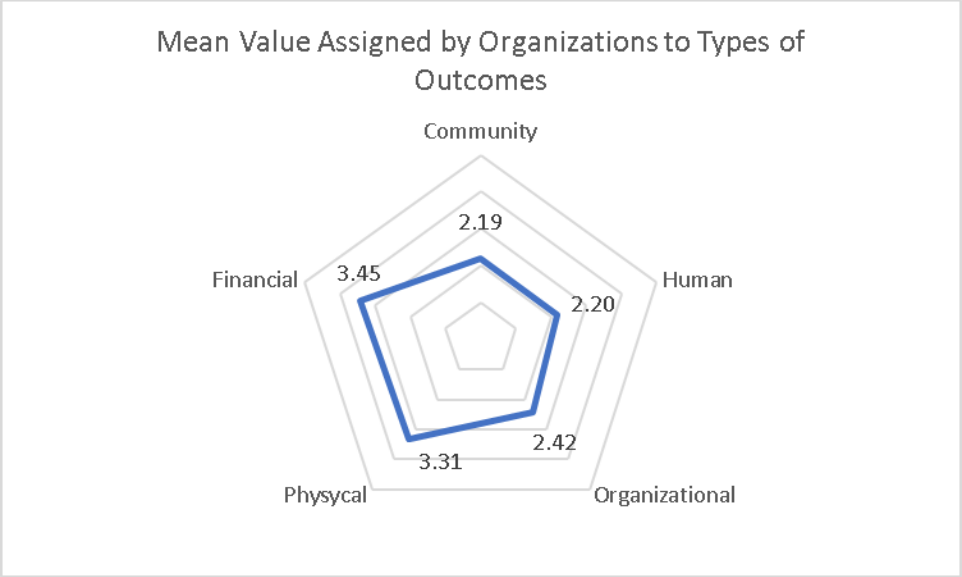
Code	Outcome	Type of Capital	Type of Outcome	Mean	SD
Y2	Contributed positively to environmental challenges	Community	Societal	1.91	0.97
Y12	Built new relationships	Organizational	Internal	1.99	0.95
Y8	Shared own experiences	Human	Internal	2.00	0.96
Y5	Contributed positively to community sustainability	Community	Societal	2.01	1.01
Y20	Engaged with the community	Organizational	Internal	2.02	1.01
Y18	Networked	Organizational	Internal	2.03	1.04
Y19	Collaborated with others	Organizational	Internal	2.09	1.01
Y6	Gained knowledge/learning	Human	Internal	2.12	0.99
Y3	Contributed positively to social challenges	Community	Societal	2.15	1.03
Y1	Contributed to the plan’s sustainability goals	Community	Societal	2.17	0.97
Y7	Gained expertise	Human	Internal	2.26	1.04
Y13	Improved reputation	Organizational	Internal	2.32	1.00
Y10	Improved the organization’s sustainability	Organizational	Internal	2.39	1.09
Y14	Gained legitimacy	Organizational	Internal	2.41	1.04
Y9	Improved competencies	Human	Internal	2.41	1.05
Y15	Became more influential	Organizational	Internal	2.50	1.06
Y11	Developed innovation capacity	Organizational	Internal	2.60	1.05
Y21	Improved relationship with authorities	Organizational	Internal	2.60	1.11
Y22	Improved relationship with NGOs	Organizational	Internal	2.61	1.12
Y4	Contributed positively to economic challenges	Community	Societal	2.70	1.06
Y17	Found marketing opportunities	Organizational	Internal	2.95	1.17
Y16	Accessed new markets	Organizational	Internal	2.99	1.18

Code	Outcome	Type of Capital	Type of Outcome	Mean	SD
Y31	Improved processes	Physical	Internal	3.22	1.21
Y26	Developed new products/services	Financial	Internal	3.31	1.21
Y25	Found funding opportunities	Financial	Internal	3.39	1.20
Y27	Made new businesses	Financial	Internal	3.39	1.23
Y30	Increased resources	Physical	Internal	3.40	1.19
Y24	Reduced costs	Financial	Internal	3.41	1.18
Y23	Improved financial performance	Financial	Internal	3.49	1.12
Y29	Increased financial resources	Financial	Internal	3.56	1.16
Y28	Attracted new investors	Financial	Internal	3.59	1.16

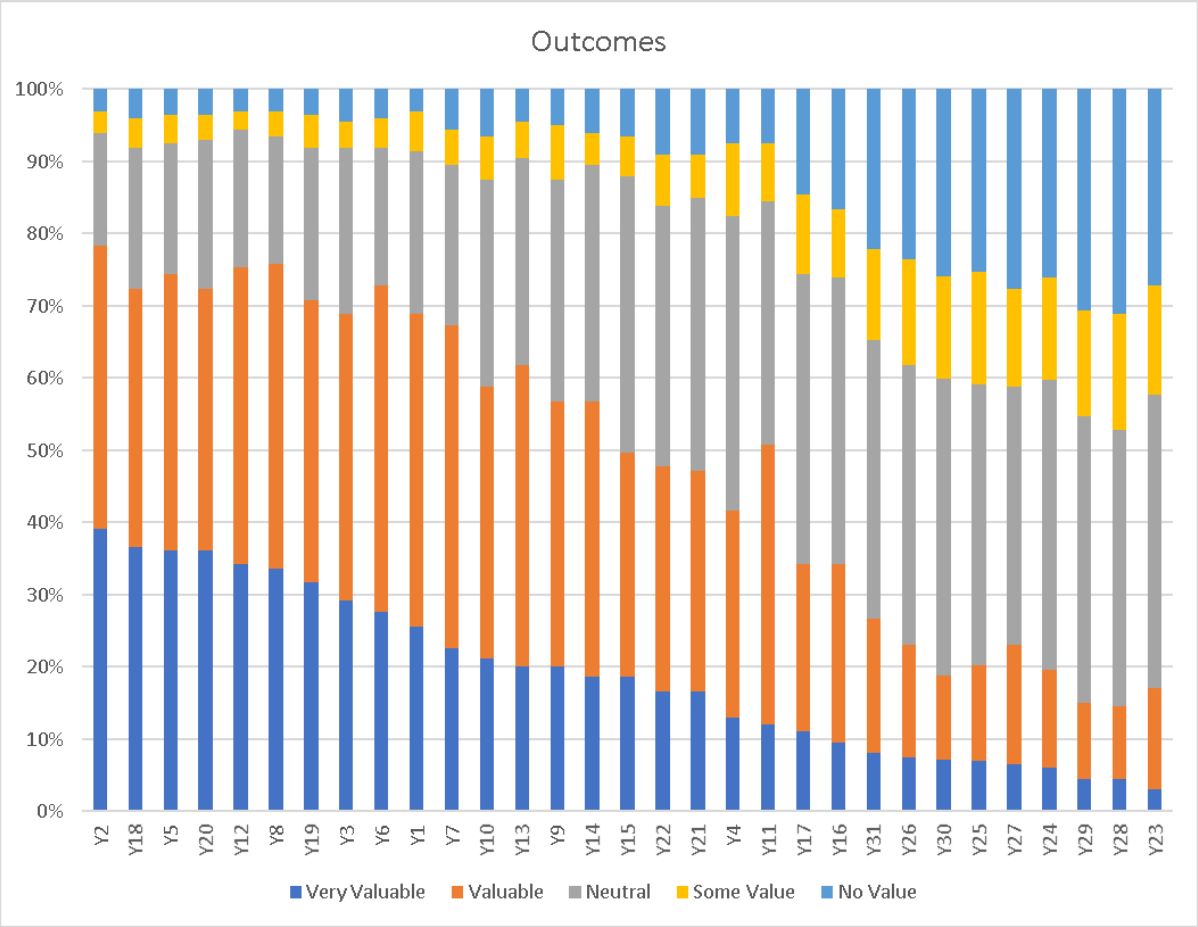
Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable

Type of Capital	Mean	SD
Community	2.19	1.04
Human	2.20	1.02
Organizational	2.42	1.11
Physical	3.31	1.21
Financial	3.45	1.18

Note: Means from 1: most valuable, to 5: least valuable



Note: 1: Very Valuable; 2: Valuable: 3: Neutral; 4: Little Value; 5: No Value



Note: Codes are in Figure 13

Appendix XIV: Regression Analysis - Hypothesis 7

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.96[a]	.92	.92	.15

a. Predictors: (Constant), Drivers

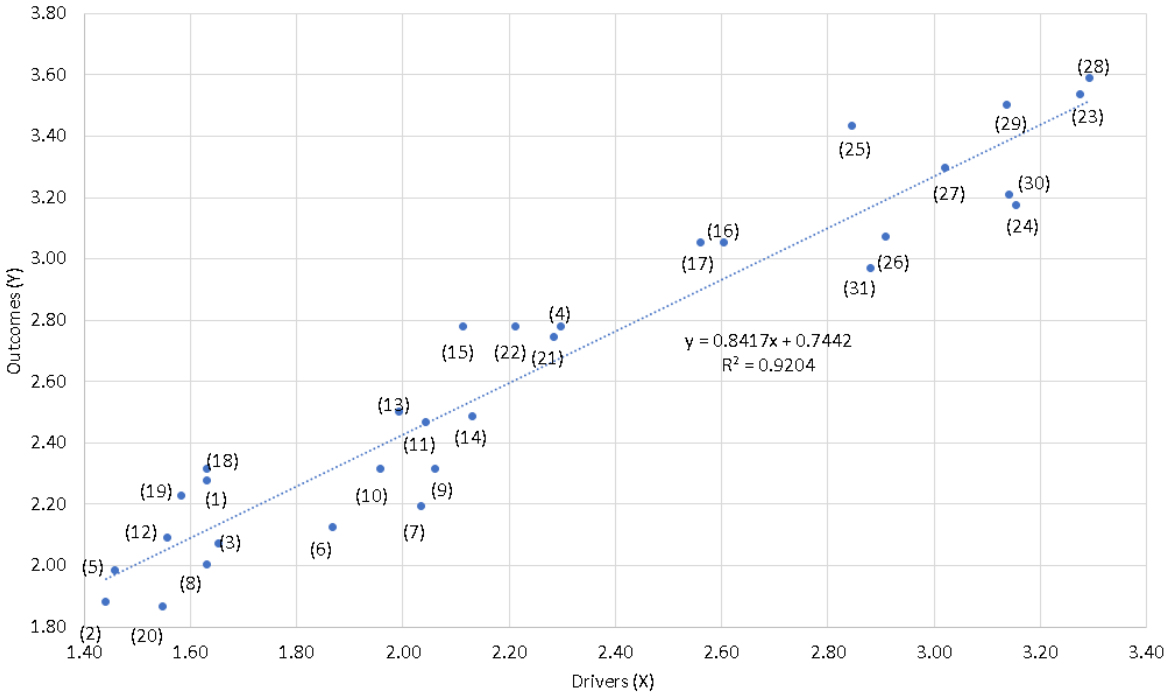
ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.93	1	7.93	333.78	.00[b]
	Residual	0.69	29	.02		
	Total	8.62	30			

a. Dependent Variable: Outcomes
b. Predictors: (Constant), Drivers

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.75	.11		6.94	.000
	Drivers	.84	0.05	.96	18.27	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Outcomes



Note: Numbers correspond to vectors as coded in Figure 13

Appendix XV: Multiple Regression Analysis - Hypotheses 8a and 8b

Multiple Regression Analysis – Hypothesis 8a

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.01[a]	.00	-.01	.36

a. Predictors: (Constant), Internal_Goals, Society_Goals

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.00	2	.00	.02	.98[b]
	Residual	17.28	131	.13		
	Total	17.29	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Informal_SF

b. Predictors: (Constant), Internal_Goals, Societal_Goals

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.50	.14		10.73	.00
	Societal_Goals	-0.01	.08	-0.02	-0.17	.87
	Internal_Goals	.00	.06	.00	-.00	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: Informal_SF

Multiple Regression Analysis– Hypothesis 8b

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.01[a]	.00	-.01	.21

a. Predictors: (Constant), Internal_Goals, Society_Goals

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.02	2	.00	.20	.82[b]
	Residual	5.92	131	.05		
	Total	5.93	133			

a. Dependent Variable: Formal_SF

b. Predictors: (Constant), Internal_Goals, Societal_Goals

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.91	.08		23.25	.00
	Societal_Goals	-0.01	.05	-0.02	-0.22	.83
	Internal_Goals	-0.02	.04	-0.04	-0.41	.68

a. Dependent Variable: Formal_SF

Appendix XVI: Multiple Regression Analysis - Hypotheses 9a and 9b

Multiple Regression Analysis – Hypothesis 9a

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.21[a]	.04	.03	.85

a. Predictors: (Constant), Formal_SF, Informal_SF

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.23	2	2.12	2.96	.06[b]
	Residual	91.56	128	.72		
	Total	95.80	130			

a. Dependent Variable: Societal_Outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Formal_SF, Informal_SF

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients B	Unstandardized Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.72	.65		1.11	.27
	Informal_SF	.27	.24	.11	1.12	.27
	Formal_SF	.51	.41	.13	1.24	.22

a. Dependent Variable: Societal_Outcomes

Multiple Regression Analysis – Hypothesis 9b

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.24[a]	.06	.04	.75

a. Predictors: (Constant), Formal_SF, Informal_SF

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.34	2	2.18	3.91	.22[b]
	Residual	71.35	128	.56		
	Total	75.71	130			

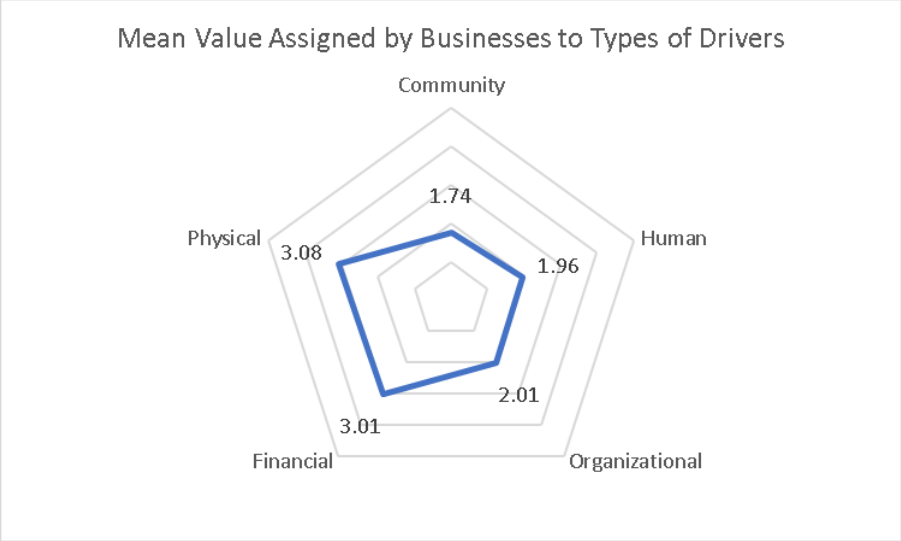
a. Dependent Variable: Internal_Outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Formal_SF, Informal_SF

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	1.25	.58		2.17	.03
	Informal_SF	.24	.21	.11	1.11	.27
	Formal_SF	.58	.36	.16	1.59	.12

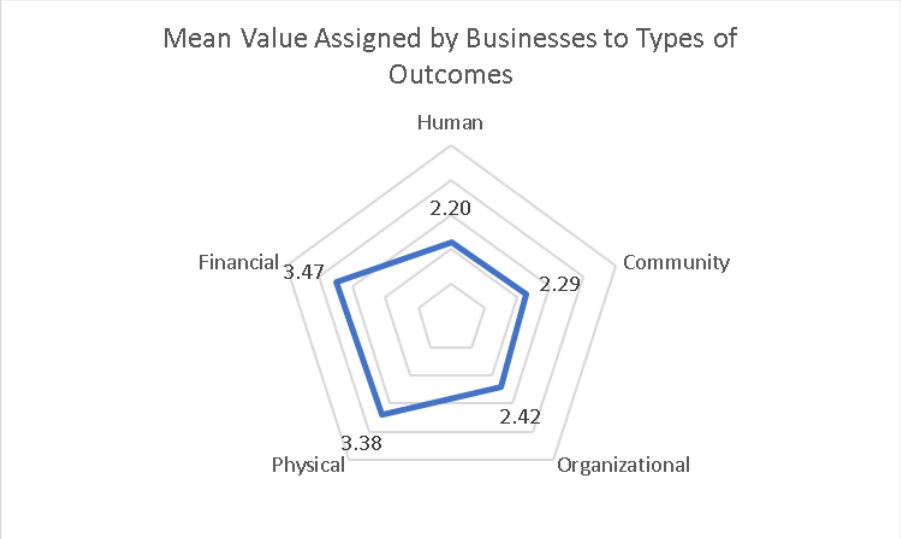
a. Dependent Variable: Internal_Outcomes

Appendix XVII: Values Assigned by Businesses to Drivers to Partner



Note: 1: Very Valuable; 2: Valuable: 3: Neutral; 4: Little Value; 5: No Value

Appendix XVIII: Values Assigned by Businesses to Outcomes



Note: 1: Very Valuable; 2: Valuable: 3: Neutral; 4: Little Value; 5: No Value