



People, Planet, Profits
Understanding Stakeholder Dynamics in Cross-Sector
Partnerships for Climate Change

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Disclaimer:

This document represents part of the author's study programme while at the International Institute of Social Studies. The views stated therein are those of the author and not necessarily those of the Institute.

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List of Acronyms

ISS	Institute of Social Studies
CSP	Cross-Sector Partnership
CSSP	Cross-Sector Social Partnership
CFM	Climate Fund Managers
DFCD	Dutch Fund for Climate and Development
DFI	Developmental Finance Institution
EC	European Commission
FMO	Nederlandse Financierings-Maatschappij voor Ontwikkelingslanden
FP	For-Profit (organization)
MFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OF	Origination Facility
PPP	Public-private partnership
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SNV	Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
COP	Conference of the Parties
WEF	World Economic Forum
WWF	World Wildlife Foundation

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Abstract

Climate change is one of the most complex and urgent priorities requiring active engagement from a diverse range of stakeholders and sectors. Yet, organizations operating within their fields of knowledge often possess differences in values, missions, goals, practices, and priorities, which can produce collaborative tensions when these priorities diverge. This research explores how governments, non-profit organizations, and for-profit institutions overcome differences in institutional logics to collaborate in cross-sector partnerships for climate governance. using the Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (DFCD) as a case study. Funded by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the Netherlands, the DFCD is comprised of two developmental organizations, SNV and World Wildlife Foundation Netherlands, and two developmental finance institutions, FMO and CFM, DFCD engages in climate resilience funding by mobilizing private sector investment for projects related to climate adaptation and mitigation. By engaging in an abductive thematic analysis of interviews with participants from each organization, these findings identify key logics and values present in the DFCD to construct an understanding of the factors both within the partnership and in the external development field that influenced their ability to navigate tensions and align efforts towards their shared partnership goal. The main findings of this research show that while sector-specific logics can create tension and misalignment, organizations can engage in formal and informal practices to actively bridge gaps in understanding, turning differences into strategic advances that increases the chance of partnership survival. Highlighting the relevance of resource dependency, logic compatibility, and organizational centrality, a visual was constructed that maps out the interplay of dynamics surrounding the DFCD partnership. The insights from this research expand existing knowledge on the role of institutional logics and values by identifying strategies to navigate organizational difference, which can better inform policymakers and stakeholders seeking to engage in collaborations for sustainable development.

Relevance to Development Studies

This study contributes to development studies by analysing how the existence of multiple institutional logics within cross-sector partnerships for climate change (collaborations between the government, private sector, and non-profit sector) affect stakeholder ability to navigate divergences in values. As challenges such as climate change take the forefront of global priorities, seen in multi-level dialogues such as the yearly United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change Conference of the Parties gatherings, actors from a diverse range of sectors are being called to actively participate in forming innovative solutions and addressing systemic needs in development. However, the existence of sectors operating within distinct logics, which influence organizational priorities, missions, motivations, and theories of change, the challenge exists in how these different sectors can not only align efforts to effectively collaborate with each other but also produce sustainable and effective change. Actors operating within different logics also employ frames to diagnose issues they

view as relevant, thereby prescribing a course of action that follows their line of motivation, creating the potential for certain logics to take precedence and divert resources away from other areas. Therefore, this research contributes to the work of development studies which applies an intersectional and multi-dimensional systems approach to global issues by contributing an institutional theory-based approach in understanding how partnerships for climate change can mitigate tensions and conflict. Thus, this study offers insights into both organizational practices and strategies that can guide the formation of more resilient, and impactful, partnerships.

Keywords

Cross-sector partnerships; Climate change; Adaptation, Mitigation, Blended finance, Institutional logics, Frame theory, Collaborative governance, Private sector mobilization

Chapter 1 Introduction

In 2025, the 196 parties committed under the 2015 Paris Agreement to limit “the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels” with the hopes of not exceeding 1.5°C by the end of this decade (UNFCCC, 2024), are expected to deliver reports on progress towards efforts in climate mitigation and adaptation. The calls for increased efforts and attention towards not only reducing greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) by 45% by 2030 have been steadily growing alongside a concerted global effort towards understanding how to both mitigate and adapt to the exacerbating effects of climate change related phenomenon. In response, concerted efforts are being made by actors in all sectors – public society, businesses, civil society actors, and governmental bodies – to combine efforts in the two sides of the coin of climate action – mitigation, and adaptation.

As one of the five building blocks of the United Nations Global Goals, partnerships to achieve sustainable development goals and produce innovative solutions are taking precedence amongst initiatives seeking to facilitate transformational change (Van Tulder and Keen, 2018, p.315). Cross-sector partnerships (‘CSP’s, also referred to as ‘multi-sector partnerships’, cross-sector collaborations’, ‘multi-stakeholder partnerships’, etc.) are collaborations between at least two societal sectors in pursuit of a shared economic, social, or environmental goal (Vogel et. al, 2021). CSP’s are increasingly being relied upon and called for on a global scale as a silver bullet to address grand challenges, characterized by Rittel and Webber (1973) for “their circular causality, persistence, absence of well-structured alternative solutions, relative lack of room for trial-and-error learning”. According to Forsyth (2010) there may be “no alternative to CSP’s because climate change policy needs the full participation of non-state actors, and a greater amount of deliberation about how climate change affects local populations” (p. 693).

By focusing on the micro-level behaviours of organizations acting on a meso-level of collaboration within the field of development, this study fills a gap in literature that has predominantly focused on logic multiplicity within organizations (for example, social enterprises) or on partnership dyads facing competing logics (such as public-private partnerships (PPP’s)). By analyzing collaboration across sectors within a shared field of development, this study employed findings across existing literature in order to complement observations from the DFCD case study to produce a level of understanding appropriate for the context of tri-sector CSP’s for development.

Chapter 2 Contextual Background

The Business of Climate Change

Traditionally, the expected role of the private sector has been to drive economic growth through production, innovation, and investments. However, growing realizations about a single sector's capacity to address the multi-dimensional challenge of climate change has led to a global push for active resource mobilization and innovation capacity that businesses can provide. Given the rise in climate change-related occurrences affecting livelihoods around the globe, the focus has now shifted towards climate adaptation as a priority area. Adaptation involves “adjusting ecological, social or economic systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli” and their effects “which moderates harm or exploits beneficial opportunities” suggesting that the extreme weather events can be mitigated, adapted to, and provide advantageous opportunity (UNFCCC, n.d., Mackay, 2008, p.6).

The 29th session of the Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC COP 29) to be held in November 2024 in Azerbaijan seek to converge on a “new collective quantified goal on finance” (IISD, 2024) to revitalize efforts in mobilizing finance for climate action, “replacing the previous target of \$1 billion USD per year by 2020” which was met in 2022 (Griffa, 2024). With access to a wealth of financial and non-monetary resources, the private sector is seen to be in a unique position to support the development of innovative solutions at the pace of scalability necessary to meet the urgency of climate adaptation. Anash (2019) illustrates this global narrative shift towards practices that places emphasis on the financialization of climate adaptation strategies that are framed in terms of market-driven solutions, investment-centred language, and even the term ‘risk’ from a financial assessment perspective. Biagini notes that “in the industrialized countries, extreme weather events are already a business risk, and awareness of climate change appears to be increasing” (2013, p. 1).

The UN Secretary General Climate Change Support Team (CCST) found that organizations are engaged in altering their long-term business models through practices such as the “adoption of internal carbon prices, innovations in insurance, and a move away from carbon-intensive activities” to address supply chain challenges and increased resource competition from disruptions in agricultural production (DCED, 2016, p.2). Despite this, the unpredictability of integrating climate risk knowledge poses challenges for businesses, which is significantly felt in developing countries where “the markets for adaptation and disaster risk management consultancy services are still developing” (DCED, 2016, p.3). Local governance contexts pose additional challenges when policy and regulatory environments potentially limit private sector involvement in climate-related service provisions that have historically been considered public functions. In their 2021 report, the World Bank identified a need for increased governmental capacity in strengthening financial incentives for private participation in climate and development initiatives by widening the availability of climate risk and vulnerability data, reducing perceived risk of investments, or for fostering horizontal collaborations across sectors (Tall *et al.*, 2021, p.27).

Blended Finance

One of the ways that governments are incentivizing private sector involvement in climate-related resilience building efforts involves the use of blended finance, which is the leveraging of public sources of finance to mitigate the risks and costs associated with investing in climate adaptation projects (Choi, 2020). According to the OECD (2024), private finance mobilized largely by multilateral development banks accounted for approximately 70% of overall funds leveraged from 2020-2022. The estimated costs of financing adaptation efforts in developing countries are approximately US\$240 billion per year, with the highest costs being allocated towards “river flood protection, infrastructure and coastal protection, and for the regions of East Asia and the Pacific and Latin America and the Caribbean” (UNFCCC, 2023, p.9). A growing call to action for the mobilization of private sector involvement in developmental policy through cross-sector partnerships therefore represents a transformational shift in the traditional roles and practices previously associated with for-profit businesses and non-profit organizations.

Partnerships as Panacea for Climate Action

The use of blended finance therefore serves as a strategic tool to enhance available funding needed to address gaps in adaptation financing; however, its effectiveness often depends upon the ability of multiple stakeholders to coordinate and implement adaptation efforts. Pérez-Pineda and Wehrmann (2021) affirms the need for contextual awareness to ensure the quality of multi-stakeholder collaborations (quality defined by the authors as “success in terms of envisioned outcomes”) by “enhancing the identification and agreement on shared objectives, responsibilities, and monitoring mechanisms, while limiting the possibilities to dominate cooperation in multi-stakeholder partnerships for the sake of individual benefits” (p.651). According to Pfisterer (2013), the “collaborative advantage” of multi-sectoral collaborations is achieved when sectoral actors contribute their “core complementary competencies” thereby creating value through the linking of business and developmental interests, yet criticism of CSP’s question the sustainability and impact of partnerships with contradictory logics due to “divergent expectations of, and approaches to, value creation” (p.15).

According to Selsky and Parker, these partnerships “between governments, businesses, and civil society organizations are blurring the boundaries between sectors” (2005, p.853). This intersectoral blurring of responsibility is evident in the rise of collaborative governance structures, defined by the authors as the adaptation or capture of a “role or function traditionally associated with another sector, such as when governments contract out social welfare functions to nonprofits or businesses” (ibid., p. 853). With a shift in the developmental agenda towards what Marques defines as the good governance agenda which promotes “multistakeholder dialogue and the participation of non-state actors in the policy process” (2010, p.5), institutional complexity can occur when these differing logics that produce value creation may also impact the success of these collaborations by creating tension or producing asymmetries in power dynamics (Vogel et. al, 2021).

Multi-Sector Collaborations for Climate in the Netherlands

Cross-sector partnerships have been an integral part of economic and developmental policy in the Netherlands, with an emphasis on joint PPP's that target issues related to sustainable development goals. As a country well-experienced in mitigating and adapting to flood risk through investments in resilience building, the Dutch Government capitalizes on their expertise in water, energy, and agricultural sectors through engaging in development initiatives for climate resilience abroad. This approach not only boosts the capacities of local private and non-profit organizations domestically but allows for two-way engagement and investment with developing states to achieve national targets in sustainable development. As part of their foreign trade and development plan in 2022, the previous Dutch coalition government thus committed to the mobilization of “€1.8 billion in public and private climate finance by 2025, half of which will be for adaptation” (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2022, p.3).

A Vehicle for Dutch Innovation

As part of their 2017-2021 Coalition Agreement entitled “Confidence for the Future”, the Government of the Netherlands, established a national climate fund within their existing development cooperation budget as part of their Official Development Assistance (ODA) targets. Part of this establishment involved the Ministry of Foreign Affairs opening a tender for applicants to bid for to manage the €160 million DFCD fund aimed at “ensuring the greatest possible return on internationally agreed public and private climate finance” (Coalition Agreement 2017 p. 53). In May 2019, the bid was awarded to a consortium of Dutch organizations comprised of FMO (a development financial institution (DFI), and the project's managing partner), Climate Fund Managers (CFM, a for-profit blended finance investment manager), SNV (a non-profit social development organization), and World Wildlife Foundation Netherlands (WWF, an international non-governmental organization focused on environmental conservation and preservation).

The thematic undercurrent of this policy strategy reflects opportunistic capitalization of investment-driven sustainable growth that encourages the alignment of domestic climate policies with investment opportunities in climate and development. Central to narratives within the field of developmental economics, this integration of “investment-driven growth and innovation” into environmental, social, and political interventions highlights the multi-dimensional advantages of both contributing to international efforts in solving complex developmental challenges while generating economic and political benefits. Thus, governments are increasingly aligning sustainable growth narratives in developmental policy with the potential to attract domestic public and private investments in pursuit of a ‘triple win’ rhetoric – a win for the people, planet, and profits, by seeking to deliver “synergistic mitigation-adaptation-development outcomes via a single intervention” (Ellis and Tschakert, 2019).

Research Problem

Climate governance, specifically policy initiatives and mechanisms for the promotion of sustainable development, requires participation and therefore inter-disciplinary ownership from multiple sectors, most importantly from non-governmental actors. However, the existence of multiple values, priorities, practices, and perceptions pose significant challenges for effective collaboration due to potential tensions arising from diverging goals and approaches.

While the success of cross-sector partnerships in tackling intricate socioeconomic and environmental problems depends on the inclusion of a diverse range of sectoral actors, the variety of interpretations and prescriptive solutions for the future “is in fact also its Achilles heel”, potentially leading to collaborative tensions (Harsman, 2024, p.109). The wide range of sector-specific values, practices, approaches, and understandings of issues can exert different, often conflicting, pressures and influences” on sectoral actors, notably those who are required to operate within and alongside distinct institutional logics (Greenwood et al., 2011, quoted in Yin and Jamali, 2021, p.675). The existence of competing institutional logics alone is not sufficient for partnership dissolution, yet existing literature identifies institutional complexity as a primary risk of “cognitive dissonance and failed organizational expectations”, which can increase conflicts and power imbalances, rendering them susceptible to long-term incompatibility or even failure (Yin and Jamali 2021, p.674-675).

The United Nations 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes that the achievement of the SDG’s requires “an unprecedented level of cooperation and collaboration among civil society, business, government, NGOs, foundations, academia, and others”, placing SDG 17 (Partnerships for the Goals) at the centre of the SDG framework (Stibbe and Prescott, 2020). The 2023 United Nations Climate Change Conference (COP28) in Dubai saw national leaders publicly committing to partner with NGO’s and private sector to accelerate several initiatives for climate action. If cross-sector partnerships continue to be a necessary governance tool for policy formation and implementation in addressing complex issues such as climate change, it is necessary to understand the practices that help sectors navigate collaborative imbalances manifested through competing theories of change because “they are a foundational barrier to progress on grand challenges” (Gray et al., 2022, p.16). This research thereby focuses on the dynamics of stakeholder collaboration within multi-sector partnerships to enhance understanding of how developmental partnerships can overcome tensions stemming from value differences, by unpacking how actors engage with “different institutional demands and potentially conflicting institutional logics through day-to-day work, effort, and engagement to generate collaborative value” (Yin and Jamali, 2021, p.674).

Chapter 3 Research Question

Considering the identified challenges faced by the development field in ensuring that multi-stakeholder collaboration for climate adaptation initiatives is robust enough to succeed, as well as drawing upon institutional theory and cross-sector partnership literature, the following research question has been posed:

How can cross-sector collaborations for climate action overcome challenges posed by competing institutional logics, based on the case study of the Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (DFCD)?

The following sub-research questions were formulated to understand the practical ways that organizations can navigate competing demands from multiple logics, situated within a broader field of institutional theory as a lens for viewing the embeddedness of these partnerships within the context of developmental policy.

1. What organizational practices enable developmental cross-sector partnerships to manage competing institutional logics?
2. How do diverging institutional logics affect developmental cross-sector partnerships?

Chapter 4 The Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (DFCD)

Political Context of the Partnership Formation

In 2018, the DFCD was publicly announced as a “key instrument” (Government of the Netherlands, 2018) in support of the Dutch Government’s commitment to the Paris Agreement. Public-private partnerships (PPP’s) have been integrated historically into Dutch climate and economic diplomacy efforts as a way of both capitalizing on the capacities of the public and private sector, as well as providing access into foreign trade market opportunities, thereby promoting local economic growth through investments abroad. From the period of 2022-2024 the Netherlands Government increased its developmental budget by an additional €300 million per year, with €109 earmarked towards facilitating international climate policy in developing countries (Government of the Netherlands, 2024). The 2022 policy’s strategy to “maximize development impact” is rooted in the practice of “using development cooperation to leverage finance”, which involves the leveraging of funds to facilitate active involvement and investment from development banks and capital managers, within the Netherlands (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2022, p.20).

As a vehicle for sustainable development efforts, the DFCD enables the Netherlands to achieve a dual impact by leveraging its expertise in thematic areas interconnected with risk reduction and resilience building, such as agriculture, land use, and flood mitigation and protection (Government of the Netherlands, 2022), while strengthening its national position as a development actor. An injection of €40 million in 2023 by the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs was made to help further DFCD financing objectives, with a specific focus on the thematic areas in LDC’s of climate adaptation, biodiversity, gender equality, and social inclusion (DFCD, 2023). Project funding is not limited to the Dutch government, however, as the partnership has allowed for the enhancement of strategic alignment between supranational policy objectives and the Netherlands’ climate and development commitments. In October 2024, the European Union (EU) launched three investment programs supported by the European Fund for Sustainable Development Plus (EFSD+) aimed at mobilising €6.3 billion in public and private investments for sustainable development initiatives in partnership with development finance institutions, including a budgetary guarantee of up to €105 million, enabling FMO and the DFCD to “increase its exposure... with €240 million” (DFCD, n.d.).

The target countries and contexts that the DFCD target can include “all OECD-DAC developing countries” yet the fund requires “at least 25% of resources must go to projects in LDCs (Least Developed Countries), with at least 25% allocated towards Dutch foreign trade and development cooperation (BHOS) priority countries (SEO, 2024, p.6). The DFCD’s overall mandate as a green financing instrument is to overcome two identified “prohibitive market barriers for financing climate adaptation, and to a lesser extent, climate mitigation projects” in developing countries. By leveraging the original €160 million

fund in combination with available public resources, private capital is mobilized as a main source of financing for projects related to climate adaptation. As outlined in the project’s original Theory of Change, (see Table 1, and Appendix 1 for the full version), funds allocated by the Ministry and external donors (such as the European Commission), are used to provide Technical Assistance (TA), grant funding, and debt and equity financing for risk mitigation in order to support projects in reaching bankability in order to attract private financing (SEO, 2024). In their 2024 interim external evaluation, SEO Amsterdam Economics described a bankable project as one that demonstrates commercial viability (determined by the financial feasibility of cashflows); a company is therefore considered bankable if they can demonstrate “recent profitability, maintains low risks, and provide financial reports in line with standard accounting practices” (SEO, 2024, p.4).

Impact	Climate resilient economic growth in developing countries	
Outcomes	Climate Change Mitigation	Lower GHG emissions
	Climate Change Adaptation	Climate-resilient land use and ecosystems Climate-resilient water supply and sanitation Climate-resilient food security
	Economic & Human Development	Improved wellbeing, economic prospects, livelihoods, inclusion
Intermediate Outcomes	Further private sector investment in other projects that contribute to DFCD objectives	
Outputs	30 foreseen graduated projects from the Water Facility that crowd in private finance towards mitigation and adaptation outputs	
	25 foreseen graduated projects from the Land Use Facility that crowd in private finance towards mitigation and adaptation outputs	
Activities	Water Facility	Infrastructure development and finance to mitigate private sector risk
	Land Facility	Growth finance and sector expertise to mitigate private sector risk

Table 1 DFCD Theory of Change, adapted from DFCD Bid Application (2019) (see full version in Appendix 1)

Organizational Members: A Profile

As a Dutch entrepreneurial public-private development bank (with company shared divided between the Dutch State and commercial banks), FMO employs financial management and investments to partner with financial institutions and mobilize capital in thematic sectors such as agribusiness, food, water, and energy (FMO, n.d.). CFM, a subsidiary of FMO, engages in blended finance through its flagship fund Climate Investor One that focuses on “financing renewable energy projects in emerging markets” by reducing technical, operational, currency, and credit and political risks of climate infrastructure investments (CFM, n.d.). Comprising one of the two organizations operating within the Origination Facility, SNV is an international development organization that engages in sustainable “transformations in vital agri-food, energy, and water systems” in countries located in Africa and Asia (SNV, n.d.). SNV’s developmental network and systems thinking approach to sustainable transformations in resilience building works alongside WWF-Netherlands’ experience in conservation work related to climate and development (DFCD, 2019).

Organizational Structure



Figure 1: Organizational Structure of the DFCD (sourced from van Bork et. al, 2024)

The DFCD partnership emphasizes and capitalizes on the specialized purpose of each organization to target different ‘stages’ of progression that chosen projects will experience. The Origination Facility, where eligible projects are identified and provided with technical and financial assistance to become viable business cases, is co-managed by WWF and SNV. Once projects ‘graduate’ from the Facility and are categorized into two investment windows – land use projects overseen by FMO (related to agroforestry, sustainable land use, or climate resilient food production), or water use initiatives (involving water and sanitation infrastructure, and environmental protection), overseen by CFM – they receive further grant funding and technical assistance to reach financial viability for additional private sector investments (DFCD, n.d.)

Relevance of the DFCD as a Case Study for CSP Dynamics

The Dutch Fund for Climate and Development was chosen as a case study for several reasons. Primarily, the diverse range of stakeholders presented an opportunity to engage with a range of actors operating within the defined sectors – private, not-for-profit, and governmental – towards a defined, common objective. Secondly, the mandate of the partnership itself is situated within the field of developmental policy, specifically in the sub-field of climate financing. This allowed for an analysis of not only CSP dynamics, but how collaborations are currently being utilized on a trans-national scale to address an area of growing attention and investment. The case study’s approach to climate adaptation reflects the growing political and social relevance of resilience-building initiatives that seek to reduce environmental, social, or economic vulnerabilities of populations to the unsolvable force of climate change (Dolsak and Prakash, 2018).

Chapter 5 Theoretical Framework

This chapter presents the theoretical underpinnings of the research by compiling existing literature on cross-sector partnerships, analysed within the larger research context of developmental partnerships through the lens of institutional logics (part of a larger subset of institutional theory), and frame theory.

Cross Sector Partnerships

Cross sector partnerships are increasingly being perceived as the ‘silver bullet’ of developmental policy, in a new era defined by Austin (2000) as the “collaborative paradigm of the twenty-first century” (van Tulder et al., 2016, p.2). The rise in attention towards the value creation potential of multi-sector collaboration has risen in parallel with management and policy-centred literature on partnerships, as well as an increase in global calls for joined efforts to tackle the world’s most pressing challenges as well as spearhead innovation and development both domestically and globally. In current literature, there are numerous theories developed that help to understanding the motivations behind stakeholder interest in forming and participating in cross-sector partnerships. Understanding existing literature is a necessary factor to begin mapping out the social impact of CSP’s by highlighting the characteristics that emphasize effectiveness, impact, sustainability, and other indicators that comprise monitoring and evaluation (Van Tulder, 2016).

Primarily, cross-sector partnerships form to produce a type of value that would not exist otherwise; value here is defined by Austin, 2010 as “the transitory and enduring benefits relative to the costs that are generated due to the interaction of the collaborators and that accrue to organizations, individuals, and society” (p.3). Austin and Seitanidi (2012) maps out different types of value creation perceived by stakeholders that motivate the formation of cross-sector collaborations how they evolve throughout the different forms of partnerships. The first type of value created from partnerships comes from the “derived benefit(s) accruing to another partner simply from having a collaborative relationship with the other organization” known as “associational value” (ibid., p.5). These benefits can include increased reputation, access to networks previously inaccessible, or improved social standing, as example of what the author describes as types of “projected credibility” (ibid., p.5). “Interaction value” involves intangible and immaterial benefits that are both produced by and are requirements of value co-creation; for example, this can include “reputation, trust, relational capacity, learning, knowledge, joint problem solving, communication, coordination, transparency, accountability, and conflict resolution” (ibid., p.6). The third type of value creation identified is embodied in the idea that partnerships ultimately produce more value and impact than what could feasibly be achieved independently, known as “synergistic value” creation (ibid., p.6). The authors conclude that innovation is a key aspect of CSP’s that enable organizations to combine their individual assets to produce “completely new forms of change”, achieving “significant organizational and systemic transformation and advancement at the micro, meso, and macro levels” (ibid., p.6). Significantly, it is this

expectation and potential for synergistic outcomes that contribute towards the increasing attention and urgency for CSP's to address complex developmental challenges that necessitate longer-term systemic and transformative solutions. The fourth type of value creation identified by Austin and Seitanidi is one most frequently appearing in CSP literature, which concerns itself with transferred resources as a value asset, related to resource dependency theory (which is elaborated upon in this chapter) (*ibid.*, p.6).

Extensive literature exists that identify internal motivations that organizations have to engage in partnerships, which shed light on the desired additionalities and perceived needs identified by stakeholders that can be met through collaboration. Related to Austin's (2012) concept of associational value creation, organizations can view partnerships as ways to boost their reputation, public image, or improve their brand legitimacy to bolster their perceived social or environmental impact, also known as "legitimacy-oriented motivations" that can be "sought either proactively or reactively" (Gray and Stites, 2013, p.31). For instance, a business can engage in a partnership with an NGO or charity organization in response to receiving negative socioeconomic or environmental publicity to earn back public respect and trust (Selsky, 2005, p.858). The rise in the integration of corporate social responsibility (CSR) within organizations reflect a rise in societal expectations of behavioural standards and conducts regarding the activities and responsibilities corporations have, mirrored in the adoption of sustainable practices and ethical supply chains by businesses. The desire to increase positive public perception and image, as well as a rise in stakeholder and shareholder interest in "discretionary firm behaviour", can foster the desire and interest in forming partnerships to tackle these perceived risks and problems (Gray and Stites, 2013). In their analysis of CSP's for sustainability, Gray and Stites (2013) identify the external, macro influences that prompt organizations to consider collaboration, which differ from internal motivations for partnership formation – these are known as "drivers" (p.29). Forming partnerships out of an internal motivation for legitimacy can also overlap with external drivers (also known as the contextual factors) that "affect an organization's tendency to become active with regard to sustainability" such as social perceptions, expectations and preferences, technological developments, concerns about globalization, the regulatory environment, or decline in government efficacy (Gray and Stites, 2013, p.29).

By approaching these motivations from a theoretical perspective, one can identify underlying social, economic, and political elements of the type of value creation is perceived by CSP stakeholders, as well as where the benefits of CSP's fill areas of need. For the scope of this research, three prominent theories were identified that contribute to the understanding of institutional logics and CSP's, building from existing literature previously identified. The theory that presents the most relevance for the purposes of this study that places CSP within the context of multi-dimensional grand challenges such as climate change will be discussed last, namely the institutional lens by which CSP's are viewed on a societal sector platform (Selsky and Parker, 2005).

Firstly, CSP's grounded in management and organization-based literature highlights resource-dependency theory as an influential motivator for CSP formation and existence (Selsky and Parker, 2005, Gray and Stites, 2013). One argument for why CSP's form is that organizations "lack critical competencies they cannot develop on their own or in a timely

fashion” and therefore require resource acquisition; these can be material or immaterial, ranging from financial, technological, human, information, or social resources (Selsky and Parker, 2011, Vurro et al., 2010). As organizations can capitalize on leveraging their core assets and provide capital that is perceived to be needed and valuable by the other, sectors can engage in risk sharing and accumulate resources in a more efficient manner than they would achieve alone (Gray and Stites, 2013). This relates to the concept defined by Austin and Seitanidi as “resource complementarity” value which requires the ability for partners to not only recognize the nature of resources that other stakeholders have the potential to offer, but how those resources are used in a complementary nature, as well as the directionality of resource flow (2012, p.932). Assessing the partnership’s organizational fit potential in the early formation stages is an important determinant of resource complementarity, as it evaluates the alignment of perceived values and mission between organizations, and more broadly the “suitability of a collaboration to evolve into an integrative or transformational relationship where the long-term value creation potential of the partnership for the partners and society is higher” (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012, p.931).

Secondly, Selsky and Parker (2011) identify a strong normative component in CSP formation that assumes that social issues arise externally, thus prompting stakeholders to “work together toward a single common end requiring the transmutation of materials, ideas, and/or social relations to achieve that end” (Roberts and Bradley, 1991, quoted in Selsky, 2005, p.852). Termed the “social-issue platform”, partnering organizations are seen as stakeholders of issues, and not individual organizations, yet are able to “retain organizational autonomy while joining forces to tackle a shared social problem” (Selsky, 2005, p.852). This approach to CSP formation emphasizes a more altruistic lens versus a utilitarian view of collaboration, which mirrors popular discourse that emphasizes the need for CSP’s to join forces and tackle challenges that cannot be understood nor faced alone (Vurro et al., 2010). Although the partnership focus is on the external issue, individual organizations seek to benefit from the perceived value potential of the partnership – “issues are selected because they are, or are shaped to be, strategic... supporting the core mission of the corporate partner” (Selsky and Parker, 2005, p.853).

Lastly, the theory that this research builds off concerns itself with CSPs that combine elements of both previously covered theories towards efforts that resemble collaborative governance. Developed by Selsky (2005), this platform of analyzing CSPs allow for the reciprocal added value of partnerships in both addressing a socio-economic, political, or environmental issue (for example fostering sustainable agricultural practices in a specific region vulnerable to the effects of climate change-induced events), while also integrating and capitalizing on the issue by incorporating it into their existing organizational mission and goals. Thus, issues that can encompass socio-economical, political, or environmental definitions are tackled by organizations who not only observe a gap in their available resources and abilities that partnerships can fulfil but are also both intrinsically and externally motivated to utilize their defined roles to begin addressing the problem. The importance of partner fit and mission alignment is notable here, referring to the degree to which the organizations “can achieve congruence in their respective perceptions, interests, and strategic

directions” (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012, p.931). The more aligned a mission is to the interests, goals, and operational objectives of the organizations, “the higher the potential to institutionalize the co-creation process within the organization, which will lead to better value capture” by both intended and unintended beneficiaries of the CSP (Austin and Seitanidi, 2012, p.932). These types of CSP represent Austin and Seitanidi’s 2012 characterization of integrative and transformational partnerships, defined by the integration of core competencies resulting in synergistic transformational outcomes that shape systems, institutions, and policies. It also addresses the role of “organizational learning as an absorptive process” whereby partners engage in active learning, dialogue, and knowledge sharing throughout the partnership to the extent that they retain a “new way of thinking about their mission, activities, and sectoral identity” when the partnership ends (Selsky and Parker, 2005, p.854). This societal sector theory is notable for the purposes of examining CSP through an institutional lens by understanding how collaborations form from both extrinsic motivators in response to “changing conditions within institutional fields” (Gray and Purdy, 2018, quoted in Harsman, 2024, p.110) as well as intrinsic motivators, referred to as “a blend of self-interest and altruism” by Klitsie, Ansari, and Volberda (2018, p.4).

Institutional Logics

Institutional logics, based in institutional theory, is necessary for understanding the underlying values, beliefs, assumptions, and structural frameworks held by organizational actors within their distinct sectors. Thornton and Ocasio define institutional logics as “the socially constructed, historical patterns of cultural symbols and material practices, including assumptions, values, and beliefs, which individuals and organizations provide meaning to their daily activity, organize time and space, and reproduce their lives and experiences” (2008; 2015, p.2). These socially constructed qualities at the nexus of “individual agency, cognition and institutional practice and rule structures” allow individuals to “reproduce their material subsistence and provide meaning to their social reality” (Thornton and Ocasio, 1999, p.804), in the search for appropriateness and legitimacy (Vurro *et al.*, 2010, p.40). Applying an institutional lens through which CSP dynamics can be viewed therefore considers how CSP’s are embedded within a broader institutional environment that “shape their goals, structures, and outcomes, and drive isomorphism in the pursuit of resources and legitimacy” (Vogel *et al.*, 2021, p.402). Inherently constructed from norms and values, institutional logics influence behaviour by shaping how agents perceive and define their roles within an organization. At the same time, as individuals intentionally or unintentionally align their perspectives and goals within the broader institutional field, these logics operate on a meso-level extending beyond individual practice. Institutional logics are therefore “produced and reproduced by actors” (Berger and Luckmann, 1967 quoted in Harsman, 2024, p.11) in a mutually dependent manner.

Examples of institutional logics at work in CSP’s are seen in Yin and Jamali’s work understanding institutional multiplicity in China’s CSR field (2021) who identified market logics, state logics, and civil society logics in their chosen case studies. State logics refer to “the orientation of the government and its entities to maintain political and social order by

regulating and directing business and social organizations”, which can be broadly categorized as the motivations and practices engaged to enact governance within a defined context (Liu et al., 2016, sourced from Yin and Jamali, 2021, p.677). Market logics Yin and Jamali explored “how business – nonprofit social partnerships realize collaborative value potential in the institutionally complex context” by identifying several institutional constraints and tensions experienced, including types of institutional work undertaken by the collaborating partners. One way that partners aligned their goals, noted as a “key attribute in how the collaboration evolves”, Yin and Jamali found that the extent to which partners were able to align their “expectations, interaction and outcomes throughout the partnering governance and process” depended on whether they viewed their goals in cooperation versus in competition with each other (2021, p.685). Successful partnerships were also able to “weave state goals and preferences nicely into business and social goals” which allowed organizations to extend their core competencies into the different institutional fields (Yin and Jamali, 2021, p.686).

By engaging inductively with a longitudinal case study of government-sponsored CSP’s in Germany that aimed to “integrate skilled people with a migration background into the German labour market” (p.110), Harsman (2024) sought to understand how a dominant institutional logic was able to guide the behaviour of members within CSP’s. The study was guided by literature on institutional coherence, which is “the extent to which the dominant institutional logics are able to provide sufficient guidance to the behaviour of actors in the field” (Gray and Purdy, 2018, Rein and Stott, 2009, Vurro et al, 2010, sourced from Harsman, 2024, p.109). Harsman analysed the way the German government was able to facilitate multi-sector collaborations between domestic businesses, civil society, and government organizations while adhering to their goal of establishing and maintaining “a high level of coherence to ensure minimal conflict between different institutional logics by having actors align with prevailing (governmental) norms” (2024, p.110). In this case, Harsman illustrates the government’s role in establishing institutional coherence using “‘power over’ others, rather than the more general capacity of ‘power to’ achieve things” (Dewulf and Elbers, 2018, p.3).

Practices Used to Navigate Multiplicity Within Organizations

Though the area of how multiple institutional logics are navigated between organizations is largely under researched, existing literature offers insight into strategies that organizations can employ to navigate internal logic multiplicity; these strategies serve as a theoretical foundation towards this research’s focus on intra-organizational dynamics within a shared institutional field. This section will therefore look at relevant literature on how competing institutional logics are navigated within organizations to form a base of understanding of strategies that have been employed by field-level actors in response to the pressures and competing demands of logic multiplicity.

On a macro-scale, institutional change within organizational fields can occur when one logic dominates another through the exertion of power and influence to occupy advantageous positions (Brint and Karabel, 1991, Thornton, 2004). By studying changes in the

Alberta health field from 1994-2008, Reay and Hinings (2009) studied how actors (physicians, government, and Regional Health Authorities) navigated the introduction of a new “business-like health care” logic into a field previously dominated by the logic of “medical professionalism”, guided by the healthcare physicians. The authors found that the actors were able to “develop mechanisms of collaboration that supported the co-existence of competing logics”, resulting the development of field-level structures that supported the multiple logics.

Organizations can conform to the pressures of their institutional environment by either abandon current logics in favour of new ones or engage in selective coupling by which elements of logics are combined at the organizational level (Thornton *et al.*, 2012, Pache and Santos, 2013). Multiple logics can also be compartmentalized in situations where “policies prescribed by external actors conflict with organizations’ internal practices” in order to maintain organizational legitimacy and identity (Greenwood *et al.*, 2011, Oliver, 1991). Alexius and Grossi (2018) observe that the compartmentalization of multiple logics is often seen in CSP’s exposed to competing market and state logics, whereby organizations “decouple the symbolic endorsement of one logic from the operational practices of the other logic” through “market-based decoupling” (Mzenzi and Gaspar, 2020, p.510). Batillana and Dorado (2010) contribute by suggesting that a shared organizational identity can be constructed through by balancing competing logics by comparing the different hiring and socialization approaches that the commercial microfinance organizations Banco Solidario (BancoSol) and Caja de Ahorro y Prestamo Los Andes (Los Andes) adopted to navigate dual logics. While BancoSol prioritized hiring candidates solely based on their capabilities, such as their professional experience and skillset) over their ability to socialize within the organization, Los Andes’ end-focused socialization approach prioritized hiring educated individuals without field-specific work experience with the assumption that they would not be “steeped in either the banking or the development logic” the hybrid organizations possessed (Batillana and Dorado, 2010, p.1434). Thus, Los Andes was able to build a shared organizational identity that helped “reduce the influence of its institutional environment” in contrast to BancoSol’s integrational approach that achieved the goal of operational efficiency on a shorter time frame, yet its emphasis on capabilities exacerbated tensions “as carriers of the two logics polarized around what set them apart instead of what they shared” (Batillana and Dorado, 2010, p.1432). This process of logic reproduction is also referred to as “a compromise strategy” by Pache and Santos (2010).

Conditions Shaping Organizational Adaptability

As the previous section looks at strategies employed to navigate logic multiplicity, further understanding of conditions that either facilitate or inhibit the effectiveness of these strategies is needed.

By investigating the characteristics of bi-sector partnerships operating under the Kyoto Protocol’s Clean Development Mechanism (CDM) that contribute to their effectiveness in achieving objectives in GHG emission reduction and avoid overall dissolution,

Ashraf (2017) hypothesizes that the degree to which organizations can navigate divergent logics are influenced by the following factors.

Dependency on Resource Accumulation

Firstly, the study identified that the degree to which institutional logics are incompatible with each other will affect the chances of CSP survival or dissolution (2017, p.34). Ashraf points to the differences in logics that guide organizational behaviour, specifically emphasizing gaps in knowledge resulting in a potential “clash between public good and market logics” within CDM partnerships (ibid., p.10). The resulting lack of knowledge about the other sector’s “operations, culture, and values” lend to a divergence in expectations and anticipated resource or value exchange (ibid., p.10). Notably, Ashraf proposes that the negative effects of incompatible logics on the functionality of partnerships can in turn be “mitigated by the degree of resource dependence between organizations”. As organizations are internally motivated to engage in partnerships to fill perceived resources necessary for operations (referred to as mutual dependency), they are likely to follow “more rational patterns of decision making” which is fuelled by a mutual interest in maintaining relations and moderating occurrences of conflict stemming from incompatible logics (ibid., p.11). This scenario results in a “co-existence of logics” as partners engage in active efforts to adapt and reconcile differences (ibid., p.14). One of the ways in which partners can adapt is by devising new organizational practices that align with their existing logics to “actively reinterpret the situation to frame it in their legitimate terms” (Ashraf, 2017).

Ashraf notes the distinct capabilities of for-profit and non-profit organizations that the other seek to gain in partnerships; for-profits are notably emboldened with both market and human capital, offering their “deep financial pockets and commercial skills” that NGO’s can benefit from. With their contextual knowledge and extensive network into communities and local needs, NGO’s offer for-profits experience in public good distribution that can increase their “social reputation and legitimacy”, related to motivations in engaging with corporate-social responsibility practices (CSR) (ibid., p.11). These findings add upon existing CSP literature that highlights resource dependency as a powerful motivation to partner with different sectors, which Ashraf conceptualizes as the level of interdependency, or the “degree of partners’ need for each other’s resources to achieve their respective goals” (ibid., p.11). For example, Austin and Seitanidi’s focus on the extent to which value is created from partnerships suggests that resource complementary relates to the concept of “organizational compatibility”, or the degree of fit between organizations when their “missions, values, and strategies” find congruence through the development of “deep, meaningful, and enduring relationships (Bhattacharya, Sen, and Korschun, 2011, quoted on p.4).

Imbalances in Power and Resources

Given that organizations engage in a mutually beneficial relationship based on an exchange of resources and capital, Ashraf notes that this dependency relationship may not always be symmetrical between organizations (2017, p.12). If one partner’s resources or specialized

capacities are “desired but not crucial for the partnership’s success, or easily replaceable”, this results in a low degree of interdependence, defined here as an imbalance of power (ibid., p.12). Conversely, high interdependence is seen when the success of achieving project outcomes and expected impact is dependent on the capabilities and resources of both organizations (ibid., p.12). Ashraf’s findings that power imbalance can lead to the imposition of one institutional logic over the other suggest the potential for value capture, which relates to Dewulf’s conceptualization of the types of power dynamics that can occur within CSP’s - resource-based power, discursive legitimacy, referring to the ability of partners to advocate for themselves or a particular view, and authority, which refers to the social status of partners within the institutional field they are embedded in (2018, p.5). Dewulf notes that despite initial interdependencies between organizations at the start of a partnership, “dependencies are unlikely to be balanced in all directions”, noting how partnerships can therefore “run the risk of becoming arenas for conflict and power struggles” (2018, p.2). When one logic dominates, the potential for alignment of values and incentives between organizations become challenging; Ashraf points to the embeddedness of institutional logics within organizational culture, noting that organizations are more likely to dissolve collaborations and resist dominating logics rather than compromise, if organizations perceive the negative effects of the power imbalance as greater than potential value added from the resources gained from partnering (2017, p.13). Thus, Ashraf posits that “the higher the mutual dependence between cross-sector partners, the lower the impact will be of incompatible logics on the hazard of dissolution of a partnership” (ibid., p.15).

Implications of Logic Multiplicity Within Organizations

Contributing to Ashraf’s theoretical framework regarding resource dependency and inter-dependency, Besharov and Smith (2014) contribute to understanding logic multiplicity by creating a framework delineating the types of logic multiplicity occurring in organizations, as well as categorizing the types of organizations by how they respond to this heterogeneity (p.365). This provides relevance to the research focus as it offers a way of understanding how competing logics can affect the ways organizations respond and make decisions. These findings can be extrapolated towards the context of CSP’s for development by applying the concepts of centrality and compatibility *within* organizations towards how they may manifest *between* organizations working under one larger ‘umbrella’ consortium.

Variations in organizational responses to logic multiplicity can be categorized by two continuous dimensions of logic multiplicity – the degree of logic centrality, and logic compatibility. A high level of centrality within organizations exists when “multiple logics are each treated as equally valid and relevant to organizational functioning”. Low centrality results when a single logic dominates core practices and operations, with the other logics being secondary. Related to Ashraf’s findings, Besharov and Smith note how unequal dependency on one critical resource can result in low centrality (2014, p.14).

As logic complexity results in competing demands and attention, the authors define compatibility as “the extent to which the instantiations of logics imply consistent and rein-

forcing organizational actions” (ibid., p.9). The authors further note that relationships between organizations can affect compatibility, since members employ agency to “selectively draw on, interpret, and enact logics”, which is therefore influenced and shaped to a degree “by the nature of their intra- and extra-organizational relationships” (ibid., 11). Both proximity of organizations to each other as well as socialization practices can influence these relationships, holding implications for managerial practices to foster stronger ties between organizations. As seen in Figure 1, the relevance of these two dimensions can be seen in the degree to which tensions and conflict are present within organizations, based on their level of centrality and compatibility.

Frame Theory

As logics have been previously understood to be the foundational parameters by which organizations and their values are situated within, this section extends this general theoretical framework by engaging with elements of frame theory, to provide a lens through which institutional logics can be observed in specific contexts of cross-sector collaboration. The primary way this research draws upon literature to integrate institutional logics and frame theory is to posit that frames can thus be seen as the way institutional logics manifest as both inputs and outputs, where actors in their institutional fields use value-laden frames to sort through and understand the world around them, which consequently shapes the world upon which actors can act and engage with (Hope, 2010).

By employing the belief that the world is constructed and understood through continual interaction and learning, Goffman (1974) defines a frame as “the principles of organization which govern events – at least social ones – and our subjective involvement in them” (p.10-11). Hope (2018) further suggests that within organizational fields, concepts and ideas are discussed, shared, and both consciously and unconsciously communicated “within the boundaries of their own normative ideals” (emphasizing a normative view of an issue or situation), and the way these are ultimately framed will thus influence the prognostic choice of action to be taken. Frames are therefore seen in values, which act as “schemata of interpretation” through which institutional logics are manifested in practice by allowing organizations to “define which actors are engaged, what kinds of problems are discussed, how these problems are defined, and what kinds of solutions are considered appropriate” (Klitsie, Ansari, and Volberda, 2008, p.5). In the context of cross-sector partnerships, and specifically for policymaking, actors within institutional fields engage in what Van Hulst and Yanow define as “sense-making”, namely the active diagnostic process of framing where “policy-relevant actors intersubjectively construct the meanings of the policy-relevant situations with which they are involved, whether directly as onlookers and stakeholders” (2016, p.97).

As a way that organizations can manage multiple frames and prescriptive courses of action, Gray and Stites advocate for partners to adopt “multiplex” thinking, defined as “the parallel transmission of more than one message over a single line” (2013, p.41). This allows for organizations to retain their own organizational mission, identity, and goals for the partnership simultaneously with the larger overall mandate of the partnership. In practice, this

can be achieved by undertaking the process known as “frame fusion”, referring to the ability of partners to construct “a new prognostic frame that motivates and disciplines partners’ cross sector interactions while preserving their distinct contribution to value creation and retaining their separate identities” (Gray and Stites, 2013, p.41). The ability to merge existing frames speaks to practices that members in CSP’s actively engage with and experience to foster effective collaboration, such as learning, negotiation, reflection, and discussion.

In their 2018 case study analysis, authors Klitsie, Ansari, and Volberda constructed a model of frame plurality by identifying the processes by which members engage with frames that contributed to the successful continuation of the Dutch Nutrient Platform CSP. The study found that by creating “productive tension” (Murray, 2010, quoted on p.2) between competing frames, partners were able to maintain successful collaboration by engaging in a process of frame selection, retention, and deletion to achieve “optimal frame plurality” (ibid., p.1). Klitsie, Ansari, and Volberda (2018) identified a drive to achieve both internal alignment within the CSP by which actors selected frames that reinforced legitimacy with the project’s day to day activities, as well as external alignment (influenced by opportunities and goals of external stakeholders, and the presence of public opinion as an audience). Klitsie, Ansari, and Volberda’s model of frame plurality can therefore be used to understand how actors navigate difference in institutional logics (manifested through framing as heuristic devices) by demonstrating how multiple frames that diverge from each other can still be maintained in a successful collaboration when there is “agreement about the collaboration’s ultimate aim” (2018, p.18-19). This aligns with Ashraf’s suggestion that organizations are motivated to adapt their existing practices and engage in an active reinterpretation of frames to reconcile logic divergence when operating in partnerships they deem to be “strategically important” (2017, p14). Their findings additionally build off existing studies on frame fusion between cross-sector partnership dyads (Le Ber and Branzei, 2010) by explaining how frame fusion is achieved amongst multiple stakeholders from diverse sectors, emphasizing that “optimal frame plurality” suggests a medium in which the level of diverse frames and logics can co-exist and capitalize on the synergistic capacity of collaboration. (Klitsie, Ansari, and Volberda, 2018, p.20).

For frames to be able to merge, evolve, co-exist amongst competing frames, and even fuse together in a hybridity of logics, Le Ber and Branzei (2010) identify two crucial elements of organizational behaviour that are needed for frame fusion to be achieved – frame elasticity and frame plasticity (p. 36). Elasticity refers to the ability of actors to first identify whether the alternating frames and practices can result in complementarity, or incompatibility (ibid., p.36). Highlighting this process as both active and “uncomfortable”, Le Ber and Branzei identify instances in their partnership dyad studies where actors negotiated, experimented with, and tried on alternate frames, which necessitated an awareness of their sectorally embedded frames to begin with. However, the authors note that elasticity is a necessary yet not sufficient factor in achieving fusion; partners must then engage with this process throughout collaborating to allow “the newly acquired understandings to fall into place for each of the partners” (ibid., p.37). This mirrors Austin and Seitani’s findings that the more organizational partners “perceive their self-interests as linked to the value

they create for each other and for the larger social good” along with their ability to “mobilize distinctive competencies” (defined as “organization-specific resources such as knowledge, capabilities, infrastructure, and relationships”) the greater the potential for co-creation of value (2012, p.4). Le Ber and Branzei’s findings complement Klitsie, Ansari, and Volberda’s conceptualization of a successful collaboration as one that does not attempt to achieve frame alignment (defined by the authors as the convergence of multiple frames into a single shared project frame, suggesting that distinct organizational identities and frames cease to exist in relevancy), but one that consists of partners willing and able to “manage or tolerate multiple overlapping, conflicting, interstitial, or even unrelated meanings drawn from different sectors” (2018, p.2).

Chapter 6 Methodology

Research Design

Given the focus of this research is to assess and interpret the values and missions of sectors engaged in CSP's for climate change and understand overall how competing institutional logics are navigated, this exploratory case study analysis of the Dutch Fund for Climate and Development employs an abductive data analysis approach. The research is guided by prior theoretical frameworks on institutional and frame theory, as well as cross-sector partnerships and climate literature, yet allows for the exploration of practical observations of stakeholder dynamics to supplement current understanding.

Methodology Considerations and Limitations

A qualitative-based methodology is ideal for the extraction of “feelings, emotions, motivations, perceptions, consumer ‘language’, or self-described behaviour” (Cooper and Langer, 2014, p.144) and was therefore chosen as the method of research for this study, which sought to understand the feelings, thoughts, perceptions, and attitudes of CSP stakeholders in Dutch partnerships for climate change. At first, the Participatory Action Research (PAR) methodology was considered when deciding what approach would be appropriate as the research questions relate to processes that develop over a long period of time which would benefit from an evaluator perspective that PAR allows for (Koshy, Koshy, and Waterman, 2013). However, engaging in PAR was deemed not feasible given the time constraints of the data collection period. Therefore, further research could engage with a PAR approach in exploring this research problem to address the limitations and shortcomings of a narrower-focused short-term methodology, such as a single case study analysis.

The case study method of analysis allowed for theoretical knowledge of stakeholder dynamics and relationships to be placed within the real-life context of an ongoing collaborative relationship for the purposes of identifying links between the observed phenomena “and its contextual interrelationships” (Chopard and Przybylski, 2021, p.2). A limitation to using a case-study approach is its limitation for generalizations. Although this trade-off was known when considering the appropriate method of research, it was determined that due to the numerous quantity of existing CSP's within the geographical focus of the Netherlands, and their individual complexities and context-specific characteristics, using a singular case study of the DFCD would allow for the main purpose of providing insight, and not conclusions, into “the conditions under which specific outcomes occur”, namely the perceived successes or failings of an ongoing CSP (Yin, 2016)

Internal limitations of this research were also considered, given the potential for bias that exists in all studies involving data analysis. All findings were guided by the pre-formed research sub-questions formed from theoretical insights, yet there is a possibility that my personal values, thoughts, and theories shape these interpretations. My position as

a student of Development Studies also holds potential for any patterns or themes that develop emerge being influenced by my experience and knowledge, limiting the extent to which the research design and analysis can be free from all bias.

It is important to note that the methodology of Critical Discourse Analysis was also considered as an appropriate approach to interpret and understand underlying power dynamics that exist within CSP's operating under a dominant institutional logic (illustrated in the project's purpose for creation and Theory of Change). Thematic analysis was chosen in order to reduce the potential for breaching confidentiality and potential defamation of the research participants and the organizations they represent. The context of the chosen case study as an active and ongoing governmentally funded project, which contributed to the decision to employ thematic analysis as a method for investigating the ways in which organizations overcome differences in institutional logics.

Data Collection

Research Participants for Semi-Structured Interviews: Selection Method

The DFCD case study as a consortium of organizations presented a defined population from which to sample from; given that there are five participating organizations, the data sample was drawn from each organization using snowball sampling methods (Kirchherr and Charles, 2018). From each organization (SNV, WWF, FMO, CFM, and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs), participants were reached out to individually through email to first approach the subject of participating in semi-structured interviews for this research; these first round of contacts were also asked to recommend colleagues and alternative contacts within their organization who they believed would be available to participate. Employing the semi-structured format of interviewing allowed for pre-defined questions to be formulated, yet also created space for participants to develop their own narrative experiences and responses (Galletta, 2013). Responses from this first round of contacts either agreed to the proposed 10–15-minute online video introductory call, or if they were unable to participate, they then proposed alternate contacts. Thus, drawing upon networking and social connections, this method allowed access into the consortium community that I did not have access to prior, which is useful for identifying contacts that possessed the target characteristics needed to represent the consortium population (Naderifar, Goli, and Ghaljaie, 2021). When engaging with the second round of candidates, those who were recommended by the initial contacts, engaging with this convenience sampling method also enabled me to familiarize myself with and communicate further within the consortium network, as the recommended participants were already linked to the first contacted sample (Naderifar, Goli, and Ghaljaie, 2017).

Selection Method Considerations and Limitations

Prior to the interview, participants were provided with a brief overview of the research problem and were provided with example questions they may be asked during the interview. To reduce the chances of pre-formed answers, which could potentially reduce the

free-flowing nature of the semi-structured interview, example questions were only shared when requested to ensure the interviewee had full awareness of the nature of their participation

Given that the consortium composition is made up of five organizations, the challenges of having a limited sample of individual perceptions was mitigated to the best degree allowed by the time and resource constraints of the research, yet findings are therefore subjective. Including a diverse range of perspectives to capture qualitative characteristics such as values, attitudes, feelings, or perspectives, is important, therefore results can only be generalized to a degree appropriate to the represented sample. The snowball method also presented limitations regarding recruitment; though the target sample from each organization was between one and three interviewees, to ensure a diverse range of representation, the time between the initial email contact and confirmation of interview participation varied between one and three weeks. Therefore, a higher number of recruited participants from each organization was not able to be met due to time constraints and availability. Given that only one interviewee was able to participate from *NGO2*, for example, any data interpreted from the interview content could be specific to that individual, yet not be representative of the organization. The personal identities of the research participants outlined in Table 1 were anonymized for confidentiality purposes to ensure privacy and non-traceability of participants.

Primary Data Sources

<i>Interviewee ID</i>	<i>Organization</i>	<i>Interview Duration</i>	<i>Type</i>
1	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	31 minutes	Video call
2	World Wildlife Foundation Netherlands	42 minutes	Video call
3	SNV	52 minutes	In-person
4	SNV	52 minutes	In-person
5	FMO	46 minutes	Video call
6	FMO	52 minutes	Video call
7	CFM	1 hour, 5 minutes	Video call
8	CFM	35 minutes	Video call

Table 2 Primary Data Sources

Secondary Data Collection

Throughout the data collection process, publicly available secondary sources directly related to the DFCD partnership were consulted at various stages of the research process. Prior to conducting the interviews, this review of existing literature allowed me to create a base of knowledge and familiarize myself with the context of the case study. The documents outlined in Table 3 were returned to and consulted following the conclusion of the interviews, to “seek convergence and corroboration through the use of different data sources and methods”, which helped triangulate information that came up during the interviews, such as external events, documents mentioned, or facts and figures.

Type	Source
Organization website	SNV (no date) "Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (DFCD)"
Organization website	FMO (no date) "Dutch Government Fund: Dutch Fund for Climate and Development"
Organization website	World Wildlife Foundation Vietnam (no date) "DFCD - Green Economic Growth Solution"
Organization website	Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (no date) "Our Approach"
News article (sourced from DFCD website)	Climate Fund Managers (2019) "Consortium to Manage €160 Million Fund for Climate Resiliency in Developing Countries"
Evaluation Report	van Bork, G., Oomes, N., Coi, C.C., Keijser, D., Chaudhary, T., Berthiaume, N., van Dijkhors, H. (2024) "External evaluation of the Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (DFCD)" <i>SEO Amsterdam Economics</i> .
Evaluation Report	Michaelis, C., Stott, C., Hetherington, H., Reid, H. (2021) "Evaluation of the Dutch Fund for Climate and Development's project origination approach" <i>ITAD</i>
Brochure	Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (no date) "DFCD OF Factsheet"
Brochure	Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (no date) "The DFCD's landscape work"
Policy framework document	Buijs, R. M. (2018) "DFCD Grant Policy Framework Document" <i>Minister for Foreign Trade and Development Cooperation</i>

Table 3 Secondary Data Sources

Data Analysis

The primary data collected from the interviews was thematically coded and analysed, which resulted in the formation of several themes depicting organizational navigation of diverging institutional logics. The analysis is based on a grounded theory approach that employs the Gioia methodology of dual-layered coding of which allows for an “in depth understanding and explanation... of phenomena and their underlying processes” (Magnani and Gioia, 2023, p.1).

Coding and Thematic Analysis

An abductive approach to analysis was chosen for the purposes of applying known theory regarding institutional logics, framing, and cross-sector partnerships to the context of development and climate change. As this methodology “emphasizes the search for suitable theories to an empirical observation”, known as “theory matching”, by Dubois and Gadde (2002), this approach allows for the researcher to flexibly engage in a continual feedback look “between theory and empirical study” (Kovacs and Spens, 2005, p.138) which allowed for new theories and data to emerge from the primary findings.

Each interview was conducted on Microsoft Teams software which allowed for recording and transcription. Following Thompson’s (2022) eight-step process of thematic analysis, each transcript was read so that first impressions could be formed of potential patterns and themes across each conversation. The transcripts were then imported into ATLAS.ti to undergo several rounds of re-reading and coding for the purposes of summarizing the mass of qualitative information contained within the interviews, allowing for a primary cognitive interpretation of the raw data to occur (Thompson, 2022, p.1413).

The familiarity gained from the initial literature review and secondary document analysis provided me with concepts and patterns related specifically to themes related to cross-sector partnerships, climate action, and field-specific concepts such as climate adaptation, blended finance, or Official Development Assistance (ODA). Preliminary review of CSP literature also provided me with a general knowledge of existing theories in the larger institutional field of partnerships and value creation. For example, I was able to condense Gray and Stites’s findings regarding factors that enable partnership formation (2013) with

Austin and Seitanidi's identification of the four types of CSP value creation (2012) to recognize emerging narratives from the interviews regarding motivations to partner based on what forms of value were perceived to be gained. The first stage of coding therefore allowed the affirmation of existing concepts and interrelated words and phrases that best captured instances related to the research problem and sub questions (Magnani and Gioia, 2023).

The first round of coding resulted in short phrases summarized from the interviewee's responses that adhered as closely to the original intention as possible. For example, first order codes were identified such as "adaptation faces different financial challenges than mitigation", which was selected due to its relation to the institutional context of climate action and policy responses (See Appendix 3). Some codes were formed based on whether they contained notable key words and concepts identified inductively prior to the thematic analysis. For example, responses that referred to "value", or the generation and creation of value were identified, such one response resulting in the code "having knowledge on the ground brought value" or "local network of offices as good leverage". These codes were then grouped into "2nd-order (theory centred) themes" and consolidated into shared themes based on perceived relevance to the research questions, as well as how frequently they appeared. The development of second order themes involved looking at the shared themes that were identified between different codes "and sorting them based on their ability to collectively explain the story behind the data" (Aronson, 1995; Braun & Clarke, 2006) (Thompson, 2022, p.1414). Finally, the thematic analysis produced four main aggregate dimensions which embodied the second order themes which are further analysed in the Chapter 11.

Second Order Themes	Aggregate Dimensions
Differences in how to achieve targeted outcome goals	Divergences in organizational practices and incentives
Expectations and conceptions of success	
Core Organizational Competencies	Merging shared values and capabilities for higher intra-organizational
Alignment of values with project objectives	
Integration of new knowledge into existing practices	
Leveraging complementary resources	
Access to new networks results in associational value	External sociopolitical factors supporting partnership maintenance
Emerging areas of investment and interest by government	
Collaborative learning workshops and formalized training	Informal and formal practices to bridge knowledge gaps
Openness to sharing knowledge and compromise facilitates trust	

Table 4 Initial Findings From Coding (See Appendix 3)

Chapter 7 Findings

Aggregate Dimension 1: Divergences in organizational practices and incentives

One of the main themes that emerged from the data analysis highlighted a contrast between the organizational missions and practices between the two not-for profit organizations (NFP) and the for-profit (FP) developmental finance institutions, suggesting differences in how to achieve target outcome goals. While participants spoke about alignment regarding the missions of each organization, they noted a divergence in how to achieve what each organization individually perceived as desired impact, based on what their individual practices and ‘ways of doing business’ were.

“I think that our missions and our value are very much aligned, I think. Our expertise on how to get there is very, very different.” – Interviewee 5 (FP)

“So we're a bank, we make money from our interests. That's a very different way of looking at things.” – Interviewee 6 (FP)

Another key finding that emerged was a tension between social value-driven and financial viability-driven objectives, highlighting contrasting missions and practices.

“Even though protecting an area of nature is super valuable for nature and for the planet, it's not valuable necessarily from a revenue generating perspective, which it sucks, but that's what the private sector investors are there for as their purpose. So, aligning that purpose with the purpose of protecting the planet is really difficult.” – Interviewee 2 (NFP)

“So that's definitely where sometimes there's clashes, where we think, oh, this project is really great and has so much potential for all this great impact. And then the investment committee is like, “Yeah, that's really great. But on the financial side, we're actually not too keen because of this and this reason” [...] there's always this give and take when it comes to investing in these projects.” – Interviewee 2 (NFP)

The concept of impact was seen to be a recurring theme when interviewees were asked about differences in practices and values that existed within the DFCD, underscoring a need to align organizational priorities. Interviewees 3 and 6 spoke about difference in expectations of the number of projects that would reach investment stages, and how this differed between FP1's criteria for bankable investments. As they worked on the ground and therefore had more insight into the contextual environment that projects were situated within, they noted their desire to commit more time and resources into seeing whether they could help projects who failed to reach bankability, due to geopolitical conflicts or a harsher business environment, succeed.

“We really would like to be impactful [...] We really want to go the extra mile to see, can we do still something about it? And we also put our name at stake as well. If FP1 says 30% of all the cases that have been supported by the DFCD really makes it to investment, great, while we are saying we really

want to make sure that actually 70% will get investment. So that's also a different expectation. But that also means that most of the time we go the extra mile and that takes time and resources to ask, can we still help them?” – Interviewee 3 (NFP)

“If you can't make a profit then it's not going to happen. I think that's also still the mindset within FP1. You can find a project that, say in the adaptation side, you would see impact. But if you can't show that your business case is positive, we're not gonna finance it. And I think that's it in a nutshell, the main hurdle.” – Interviewee 6 (FP)

Though the differences between the social missions of the non-profit organizations and requirements for revenue generation from the for-profit organizations were present, interviewee 3 and 6 noted the struggles that existed both within their organizations. As they were developmental finance institutions which by nature involved the hybridity of achieving developmental impact through financial mechanisms, the interviewees highlighted the discrepancy between desired impact and what yielded viable profit in a less risky way for investors.

“There is a paradox where, putting everything aside, right, you're a Development Bank and you need to make a profit to keep existing. And what you actually want is maximum impact and then also to some extent maximise profit. But those two don't go together. So you always find yourself in a position where you need to balance between profits and impact.” – Interviewee 6 (FP)

As individual organizations with experience working in their respective areas, interviewees reported differences in how they viewed and utilized funding throughout the project lifecycle, which contributed in part to initial challenges in adjusting away from solely utilizing grant funding and towards alternate financial models.

“They were again not against scale, but they were used to looking for projects that had a defined scope, because they're used to just supporting them with grant funding, because the model of NGO2 and NGO1 is basically just to issue grant funding and to support businesses that maybe wouldn't be profitable or wouldn't be a bankable project without grant funding. Whereas our business model is to invest in a project that will actually produce a commercial return. It's just in a riskier market and that's where the model differs.” – Interviewee 7 (FP)

This resulted in an identified gap in understanding around expectations and needs related to what constituted a ‘bankable’ project. The concept of bankability was originally an expectation held by the for-profit organizations as the project was led by a developmental finance institution to lead the project’s application of blended finance towards their shared impact goal.

“At the beginning [...] we had to sort of converge in our understanding of what it actually meant, a bankable project and when they were originating a project, understanding if something had the potential actually to progress from being not bankable to ever bankable.” – Interviewee 7 (FP)

Aggregate Dimension 2: Merging shared values and capabilities for higher intra-organizational alignment

When interviewees spoke about the role that their organization played within the larger DFCD partnership, a consistent theme emerged that highlighted each organization's core competencies and unique capabilities that they were either known for by reputation or related to their specialized work in development.

"But I think our core expertise lies more in the field of social impact." – Interviewee 4 (NFP)

Interviewee 3 spoke about their organizational mission in attracting private sector funding for investments, where it was key to ensure that the areas they were investing in could not be funded by available public funds. The capacity on the ground through local offices was seen as advantageous and strengthening the position of Interviewee 2's organizational role.

"Our main mandate is to go into investments where others don't dare to go [...] if the commercial worlds is willing to invest, we shouldn't be there. That's how we see ourselves." – Interviewee 3 (FP)

"Because we have these offices on the ground, it also means that we have a lot of capacity on the ground. A lot of people who know the local context of the countries that we're working have specific thematic expertise with regards to those countries. So we have a lot of capacity and that also really strengthens our position at DFCD, because we have that knowledge." – Interviewee 2 (NFP)

Interviewee 2 and 7 spoke about how their core organizational focus areas as their specialties aligned with and complemented the larger DFCD project priorities. The knowledge and expertise each organization brought therefore resulted in a balanced distribution of capacity within the DFCD.

"So, gender equality, social inclusion, food, nutrition, and biodiversity. Those are some of our new impact themes, which were of course things we were already paying attention to in the past, especially biodiversity. But now they're actually focus themes for (DFCD) as well." – Interviewee 2 (NFP)

"The expertise in our consortiums is nicely distributed and we both have historical knowledge on certain subjects. But we're also developing capacity on both. But that way, at least the parties that have a lot of capacity already on these teams are developing these frameworks and ensuring that the consortium basically knows what it's doing with regards to these impact needs." – Interviewee 2 (NFP)

"So we're experts at financial structuring and fundraising and investing. But the sector itself was not an area of extreme expertise for us prior to this and that's why we bought in water sector experts, but I think also NGO1's expertise and probably their network was useful at the beginning in getting access to people, which then in turn informed our investment strategy and how we built the case that these projects were kind of investable and bankable to commercial investors, and showing that there is a precedent for this sort of thing. So it's not necessarily as binary as so they helped us with this and

we help them with that. I think it's just been useful from the onset to have such a broad array of expertise within the consortium.” – Interviewee 7 (FP)

A notable development from working within the partnership was the integration of new knowledge and insights into the non-profit’s organizational practices. As interviewees from each organization noted that though achieving mutual understanding and alignment on ways of working was a shared process, interviewees from the non-profit organizations reported that they experienced interesting developments to their practices that they found to be an additionality.

“I think one of the key insights our side is that you have to bring investors on board early. We've had projects where it came kind of as a dessert, where you try to do investment matchmaking at the end but then you know the investor has not been engaged through the process of letting the business grow [...] so to go through that whole process faster you need to engage with the investors very early [...] it really helps to have that shared understanding and shared language.” – Interviewee 3 (NFP)

Additionally, Interviewee 3 noted how their experience partnering with DFI’s led to a continuation of this practice outside of the bounds of DFCD. They reported being approached by partners that they had not had previous collaborations with, as part of a new developing increase in attention and network expansion.

“The work of partnering with FMO or other development finance institutes and providing origination support to make investments happen, I think that's something that now has trickled down in the entire company [...] even our CEO is now going to New York as well to attract attention. It's really busy on the World Economic Forum as well [...] this is one of the pillars that we want to develop further, and also other investors are coming to us as well to say, ‘Hey can we partner with you?’.” – Interviewee 3 (NFP)

“We're now working with companies we would not even normally would have looked at [...] we're working with another segment of the private sector that's already proven that they are a company but now we really want to scale their businesses, and I think this is something that we have seen as very interesting [...] it's a different stage, instead of paving the way for people to come and invest, you're working with them themselves and you get to see more of how the financial aspects work and bankability, so it's definitely a growing area.” – Interviewee 3 (NFP)

Interviewees from each organization spoke to the synergistic benefits of collaborating with the organizations outside their sector, which led to the sharing of critical resources and advantages from associating with their network. A main advantage identified by the for-profit organizations were the local offices and on-the ground networks that the non-profit organizations had, which they viewed as themselves lacking in.

“NGO2 basically designed the landscape approach [...] They are the expert on it, so when we need to understand it and how our projects fit into that, instead of having to pay a consultant to tell us, we can

literally just go and talk to the partner within the consortium and like it's almost like we have a consultant on the project, on the go.” – Interviewee 7 (FP)

“The massive issue for DFI is that we don't really have boots on the ground. We don't have that local presence.” - Interviewee 6 (FP)

Interviewee 1 noted that each organization needed the other to fill gaps in their line of work in development, thereby contributing to their capacity in a crucial way. The knowledge shared by the for-profit organizations validated and enhanced the non-profit's projects as viable investment opportunities for investors who otherwise may not have accessed these initiatives.

“If NGO1 and NGO2 would work without FP1 and FP2, there would be a huge risk that many of the projects that they work so hard on would just be waiting there for a financial investor without any luck. Because they are not organised in such a way that a financial investor would know for sure that it's a viable project [...] and from the other side, FP1 is really looking for impactful projects [...] they only have a few offices worldwide, so they don't have the local network themselves that NGO1 and NGO2 have.” – Interviewee 1 (Ministry)

Regarding value that was perceived within the organization, interviewees also highlighted the synergy that was created by the integration and complementarity of each organization's strengths. This resulted in a collaborative form of value created that extended beyond what each organization would have been capable of, embodied by Interviewee 1's description of partnership value.

“Partnerships are where you create added values together. You learn from each other; you share different perspectives. And I think with the DFCD you could in the beginning really see that it's also complex because you speak a different language [...] But you need them both. So, I think the main benefit from a partnership is 1 + 1 is 3.” – Interviewee 1 (Ministry)

“That was the idea of what DFCD would be, additionally these two parts strengthening each other with their respective knowledge.” – Interviewee 1 (Ministry)

Aggregate Dimension 3: Informal and formal practices to bridge knowledge gaps

When asked about how communication was facilitated within the partnership, participants mentioned that the formalized structure of how the DFCD was organized was useful, as representatives from each organization were present in the 'DFCD Advisory Board', who were able to facilitate and moderate activities between the organizations. These were supplemented by Investment Committees (ICs) in each facility, with members of all four organizations present in the Origination Facility IC. This was said to be an advantage for the for-profit organizations as they had foresight into the projects originated by the non-profits. Participants also mentioned high-level meetings held in the vertical structure of the

DFCD involving the European commission, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and subsequent boards, which allowed for constant communication and for issues to be raised and discussed when needed.

“What we've been doing for the past few years is learn a lot from each other by organising workshops on how does everyone invest, how do we look at the projects?” – Interviewee 5 (FP)

“We have organised quite a lot of workshops and things, so like we'd all go to FP1 with representatives from each organization, and then we'd all learn. For example, we'd all write together the landscape approach around the knowledge and expertise of NGO1 as to what that would mean in the water sector. And then us and FP1, we did sessions on how we look at an investment project or why certain countries are priorities for us and how we think about our investment strategy from a strategic perspective.” – Interviewee 7 (FP)

Beyond the arranged learning sessions and knowledge sharing activities facilitated by the organizations, interviewees noted informal methods of communication that helped to facilitate social interaction and bonding between organizations.

“I would say it's a very low-key communication on the one hand, but also we have very structured, more serious communications, if you look at our meetings. But now we e-mail each other a lot, we have Whats.App groups things like that.” – Interviewee 5 (FP)

“So there's actually like a team that I would say functions outside of these organisations that considers themselves a DFCD team in a way, which leads to these ‘butting of head’ situations not really coming up often.” – Interviewee 7 (FP)

Interviewees also noted that during the learning sessions and workshops, the opportunity to adopt others' perspectives and consider their motivations and positionalities in their approach to a shared problem was not only helpful but encouraged as a practice. Interviewee 5 highlights their intrinsic motivation to overcome these differences and engage in beneficial conversations, which speaks to the internal motivations and open-mindedness of the participants necessary to engage with and recognize differing viewpoints.

“Within the DFCD we really like to overcome different mindsets. We also feel like it's a good challenge for us to step into each other's shoes every now and then to see how an NGO or an investment officer would look at the projects. So yeah, it's it brings good conversations.” – Interviewee 5 (FP)

Resulting from these conversations and knowledge building practices was the cultivation of trust amongst the participants, with the partners actively seeking ways to combine their unique strengths to reach their shared goal.

“With alignment also comes trust, and I think the core of the partnership is the trust in the ability of each other. Like how can we harness the strengths of each other's and how do we complement each other to do things that that can ultimately help us reach our shared goal?” – Interviewee 8 (FP)

Aggregate Dimension 4: External sociopolitical factors supporting partnership maintenance

While the data analysis was conducted to analyse themes that emerged from the participant's experiences working within the partnership, a larger context emerged regarding the political motivations for forming the DFCD partnership. The partnership was formed in response to the government's bid to manage the climate and development tender, yet each organization's purpose was to work in the field of development, therefore participants were aware of the growing focus and attention on climate adaptation as an existing priority.

Interviewee 3 spoke about the increasing movement towards private sector mobilization for climate change, the Paris Agreement marked a point of significant focus on the inefficiency of public funding to meet climate mitigation and adaptation needs.

"In 2018 actually when this came up within the Ministry, you had the Paris Agreement. And in the Paris Agreement everything was there to say okay, let's leverage action from the private sector. Because only with the public money we get 20% covered, and 80% of the needs for mitigation and adaptation has to come from other sources. So in 2018, climate change, both mitigation and adaptation was at the front of the government's mind as well..." – Interviewee 3 (NFP)

"Adaptation is now especially in developing countries becoming more and more urgent." – Interviewee 3 (NFP)

In addition, Interviewee 1 provided insight into the motivations behind creating the tender. For example, they noted the influence of where the international focus on thematic areas such as climate adaptation or biodiversity lay, accelerated by the subject of international multi-lateral dialogues such as COP. Thus, recognizing the opportunity to align national priorities for economic development and international climate commitments, the partnership acted as a multi-pronged strategy to ensure the Netherlands maintained their active role as a global player.

"Over the years, climate has become more and more priority. And with that we had the feeling we're missing a Dutch instrument, and an innovative instrument. So from the beginning, private mobilisation for climate finance has been one of the priorities [...] So that's the main reason that we decided to see what type of innovative solutions would come from the market by opening a tender and starting a bid procedure?" – Interviewee 1 (Ministry)

"With the top up of the origination facility, we strengthened the requirement on adaptation to ensure more of a focus than we did before [...] By having more adaptation projects in the origination facility, you would also naturally get more adaptation projects in the water and land facilities." – Interviewee 1 (Ministry)

"After COP 15 in Montreal, we now not only have a finance goal for climate but also for biodiversity, and private sector mobilisation here is really important and even more complex [...] So, we added a

requirement on biodiversity projects with the same idea that in the end more biodiversity projects would also be financed by FMO or climate fund managers.” – Interviewee 1 (Ministry)

In addition to the political influences underlying the partnership’s formation, Interviewee 6 noted how the European Commission (ECs) interest in the partnership not only provided avenues of potential financial backing, but the attraction of increased exposure and attention from the public.

“But I think what’s helping most especially for us, more than the fact that DFI’s are getting much more exposure these days than 8-10 years back, is that organisations like European Commission Green Climate Fund all of a sudden have decided that they want to work with us. And so we’re able to attract much more funding from the public side, which means more exposure and media looking at you.” – Interviewee 6 (FP)

A notable finding relevant to the context of climate change that emerged was the way that climate adaptation as a problem was referred to as a contextual challenge requiring local solutions, therefore reinforcing the importance of the local network that the non-profit organizations possessed and were able to contribute. A second related theme emerged from interviewees from the for-profit organizations that spoke about the financial needs and shortcomings in adaptation. They identified the financial challenges of adaptation benefits being considered public goods, the nature of development contexts being inconducive to attracting private investments without intervention, and the need to ensure financing for climate infrastructure as directly related to adaptation.

“Historically, I think adaptation has been looked at as like a public investment and all the benefits that come out of adaptation have been looked at as public goods. So it has been very hard to monetize or quantify what the financial benefits of adaptation investments can be. And for that reason, for a long time, we saw in the climate space that mitigation was picking up much faster than adaptation investments. Lately, though, that is changing, and there have been studies done to show how a dollar of adaptation can have at least \$4.00 of financial returns as well.” – Interviewee 8 (FP)

Identification of Dominant Institutional Logics

The first round of coding yielded a consolidation of first-order codes that resulted in the identification of value groups. As seen in Figure 2, specific key words and ideas emerged that were then sorted into three categories – social development, developmental finance, and government values. Each logic was comprised of several frames related to values, beliefs, and language that represented how the individuals viewed and approached the macro shared issue of climate change and development. Instances of overlap were observed between organizations, resulting in shared intra-organizational values between all three sectors. The identified overlapping values were extrapolated from instances where second-order themes were repeated, alluded to, or suggestive of the shared themes by interviewees from separate organizational sectors. Given the limited sample size of interviewees, these values may be shared by other sectors, yet working with the available data, primarily the

values that were seen to be dominant and recurring throughout the conversations were included in the sector-specific arenas.

Resulting from this round of analysis, hybrid logics were identified; these were logics that were shared by all three sectors – the state, for-profit, and non-profit organizations. The logics identified reflected the language found in the DFCD’s original tender bid to manage the development fund.

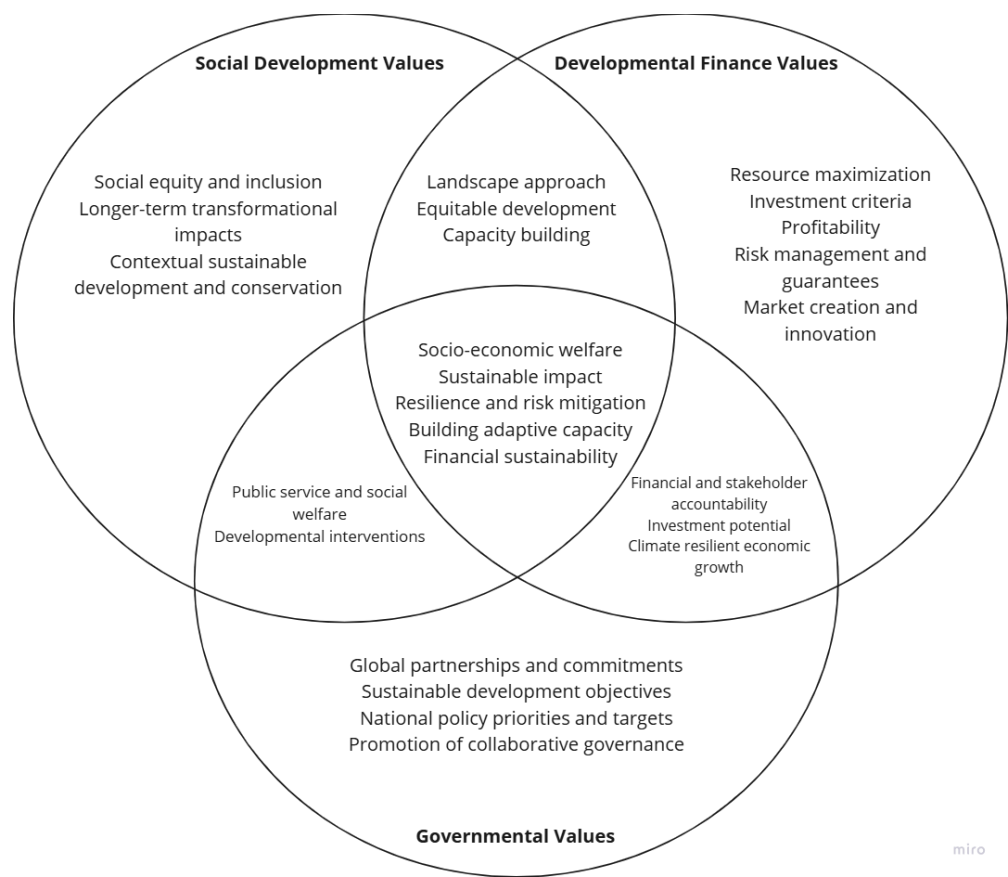


Figure 2 Intersecting Values Held by DFCD Sectors

Chapter 8 Discussion

This chapter will incorporate findings from theoretical literature along with the primary findings from the case study analysis to construct a comprehensive understanding of the way organizations can manage diverging institutional logics to successfully achieve collaborative goals.

Primarily, this analysis will integrate the formal and informal practices used by the DFCD in tandem with the observed influences arising from the external sociopolitical field to construct an understanding of how CSPs overcome challenges posed by logic multiplicity. In doing so, the analysis will draw upon the theoretical concepts of logic compatibility and mutual dependency from Ashraf's framework (2017), as well as Besharov and Smith's framework of centrality and compatibility (2014) as a lens. These findings are examined from a micro level, (individual behaviour), meso level (organizational characteristics and practices), and macro level of analysis (the larger socio-political influences and dual way in which hybrid logics are both supported by and influence the broader field of development policy).

Conclusively, this chapter will contribute to CSP knowledge by suggesting that the responses and practices used by organizations to mitigate conflict or tensions stemming from institutional complexity are influenced by the following factors: the degree to which each organization is able to provide value necessary for the functioning of the partnership (the ability to 'do what they do best' and avoid imbalances of power over the other), the extent to which their sector-specific logics are compatible with each other, which can result in the formation of hybrid logics and values, and the macro external influences in the larger institutional field which support their development. These conclusive findings are mapped onto a visual that illustrates the primary stakeholders within the DFCD and their dominant values and logics, as well as the interplay of practices identified, the resulting forms of value created, and the influential factors shaping organizational capacity in navigating logic multiplicity, set within the larger identified institutional field of development and climate governance along with relevant external actors (see Figure 3).

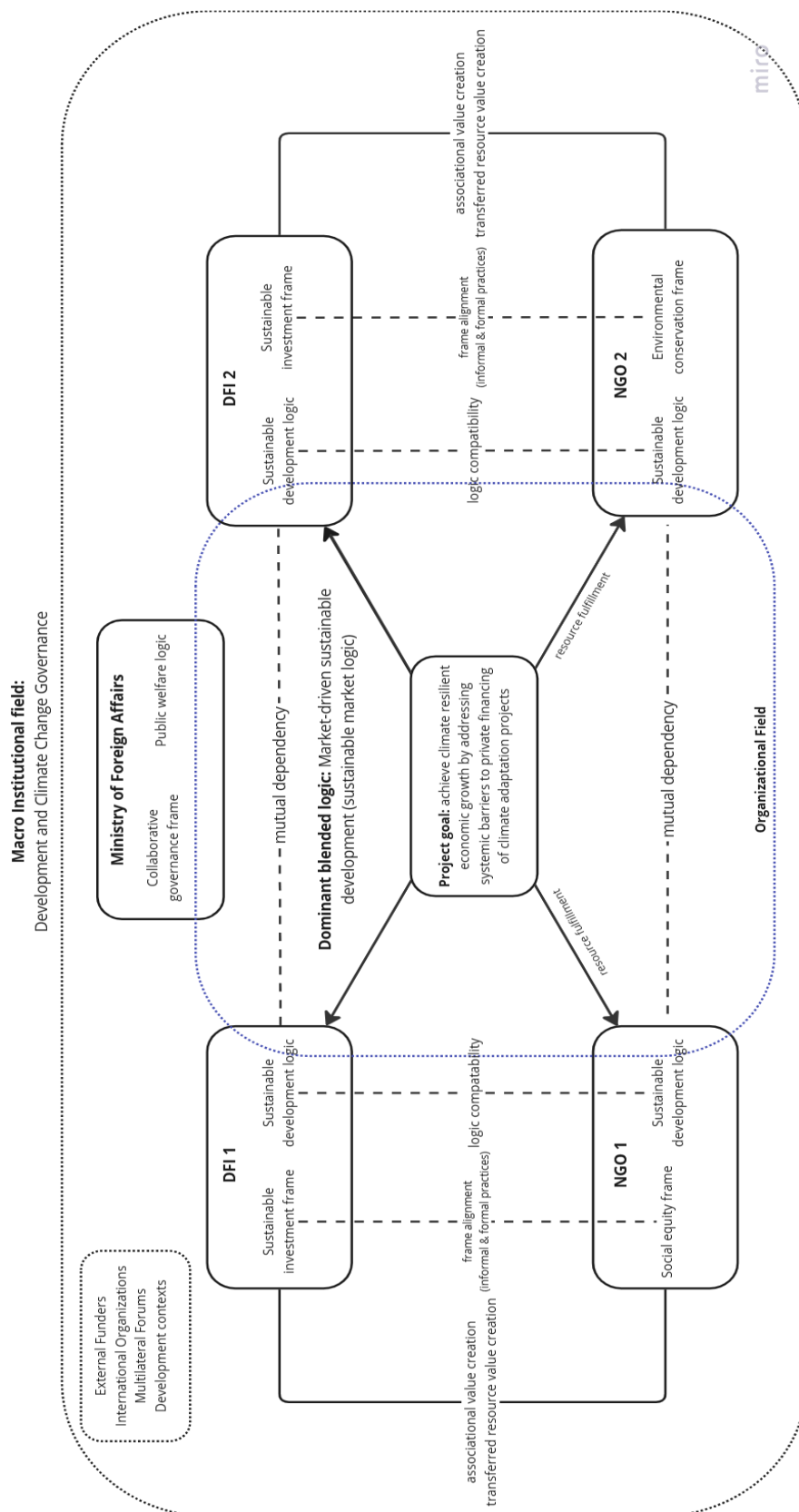


Figure 3 Stakeholder Dynamics of the DFCD Within an Institutional Field

Finding Alignment

According to Ashraf (2017), organizations with their sector-specific knowledge and understandings need to engage in continual learning and collective sensemaking, as they “usually have little knowledge about each other’s operations, culture, and values and have different expectations from engaging in a partnership”. As seen in the case of the DFCD, each organization was embedded within distinct but complementary angles. The two for-profit institutions operated within the field of climate finance, rooted in a developmental finance logic that operates on frameworks of risk, capital, and targeting perceived gaps where investments are felt to be needed most. Whereas the non-profit organizations approached their developmental aims primarily through the logics of social equity and conservation, drawing from a systems approach that considers the interconnected relationships underlying the challenges they addressed. However, what the findings suggest is that the extent to which the organizations were compatible with each other based on their embeddedness within the same institutional field played a key role in fostering cohesion and collaboration within the partnership, related to the shared values each held by being part of a larger umbrella of sustainable development-oriented organizations. Initiated by FMO, each organization elected to form a partnership as a consortium to respond to the government’s public tender, showing an internal motivation towards accessing resources they viewed as necessary and advantageous to their operations, yet were also mission-driven by an altruistic motivation to create impactful change on the areas of climate adaptation and development they perceived to be the most crucial in addressing, depending on their sector-specific approach to development. This relates to Gray and Stites’ (2013) findings that organizations are motivated to form partnerships to integrate additional knowledge and resources (both financial and social), yet also engages with Selsky and Parker’s (2010) findings that organizational stakeholders can be viewed as stakeholders of external social issues, where resources, materials, and ideas are transmuted to achieve a shared common end.

Most notably, however, is the suggestion that the success of the collaboration was heavily influenced by the ability of each organization to find alignment on their existing frames, seen in thematic areas where values and goals converged. As visualized in the diagram of organizational values, the DFCD’s landscape approach was part of the original bid’s framework in relation to their intended Theory of Change, yet it was an approach shared by both the for-profits and non-profit’s frame that sustainable impact could only be made by understanding the specific environment and needs of the countries and contexts they sought to work in. Additionally, although bridging efforts were needed to align the organizations towards the areas they were not as familiar with prior, the existence of shared values by all three actors – the NGO’s, developmental finance institutions, and the Ministry, created a shared issue field that each could work within using their distinct core competencies in alignment with each other. For example, the non-profit organizations noted a degree of separation between the way they historically viewed impact and how to get there in comparison with the for-profit organizations incentivized by the logics of investment. This reflects Van Hulst and Yanow’s process of framing prognosis and diagnosis, whereby the actors understood development and climate as a certain kind of problem (for example,

viewed from the lens of environmental degradation or inequality rooted in an institutional perspective), which allowed for a diagnosis of that problem that “contain(ed) prescriptions for action” based on the tools their sector-specific logics provided (2016, p.98). Through the formalized learning sessions and workshops facilitated by members of the DFCD, actors were able to engage in a process of re-framing; the emphasis here lies on this work as an active and ongoing process through a mix of continual regular sessions aimed at maintaining alignment and open communication, alongside need-based sessions to address perceived or potential divergences that could inhibit organizational functionality.

This draws attention to Van Hulst and Yanow’s call to view framing as a dynamic progression instead of a fixed occurrence by creating an environment where actors are encouraged and able to engage in the “constant sense-making work” needed to navigate the increasingly crowded and diverse “playing field” of networked governance partnerships (2016, p.104). The findings further contribute to the author’s point by noting how participating in these sessions and knowledge sharing activities are necessary but not sufficient; an element of frame elasticity was present in the active work being done inside and outside of the sessions, the latter observed in the participant’s experiences engaging in constant informal and “lowkey” communication related to their day-to-day work. This allowed the partners to “experiment with different prognostic frame interpretations of possible solutions” to “see whether or how their own interpretations of value creation may include, or at least tolerate, partners’ different goals or approaches” (Le Ber and Branzei, 2010, p.36). Organizational actors then needed to experience Le Ber and Branzei’s concept of frame plasticity involving the “effortful cycling back-and-forth between sector-specific, partnership-specific and organization-specific frames that allow(ed) the newly acquired understanding to fall into place for each of the partners” (2010, p.181). As seen in the instances where interviewees attributed feelings of increased trust and understanding resulting from their efforts to take on each other’s perspectives and remaining receptive to new ideas, they were thus more likely to achieve frame alignment by “coming to appreciate their (complementary) differences rather than espousing and/or enacting a similar frame” (Le Ber and Branzei, 2010, p.29).

Combining What We Know With What We Need

As noted in the introduction, this research suggests that while it is vital for organizations to facilitate learning sessions and engage in active knowledge building to cycle through a process of framing, the DFCD held characteristics that allow it to maintain cohesion and effective progress toward their goals. Specifically, the DFCD consortium showed a degree of high compatibility and centrality, which mitigated the adverse effects of existing tensions from diverging logics, preventing any conflict from becoming disruptive or detrimental to their activities and functionality.

Organizational Centrality

Rooted in CSP theory, a significant part of the value generated by partnerships is derived from the unique capabilities, competencies, and strengths that each organization brings. This is present in the frequency of calls for partnerships present in international discourse surrounding development and climate change, which recognizes both the critical assets each sector can bring and the degree of interconnectedness present in society that were previously bordered. As the findings show, the DFCD consortium was intentionally structured in a way that capitalized off each organization's existing assets and specializations – within the Origination Facility, the two non-profit developmental organizations engaged with their local offices and contextual knowledge of the project landscapes, using their strengths of social connection and bottom-up approaches to understand areas of risk and resilience needs. In both the Land and Water facilities, the for-profit development financial institutions capitalized on their knowledge of financial mechanisms and blended-finance experience to support projects through the project pipeline. Therefore, we can see that the advantages of organizations are not only necessary for the exchange of resources and knowledge between organizations to fulfil independent needs, but that creating an environment that allows each organization to maintain its independent identity and capitalize on their sectoral proficiencies.

This reflects Besharov and Smith's concept of centrality, mentioned previously in Chapter 8, by asserting that the multiple logics held by each organization is core to the DFCD's organizational functioning. Interesting to note, the purpose of the partnership as a blended finance mechanism for the purposes of leveraging funds for private capital in development contexts would assume that the market logic of financial sustainability would dominate over the organizational day to day processes. As seen in the findings of the case study analysis, it was most often members from the non-profit organizations who engaged in a process of aligning their understanding with the new definitions and expectations of impact, bankability, and other success metrics, suggesting the potential for greater friction between the two competing frames. Illustrated in the organizational structure and the findings suggest that the hybrid nature of DFI's who are required to balance the co-existence of dual frames (development rooted in market logics) contributed to a greater level of cohesion within the DFCD partnership. For example, if these dual logics were not present and instead the actors were for-profit private companies operating outside the development field, their motivations to collaborate for resource-oriented and CSR-oriented purposes may result in a higher source of authoritative power (defined by Dewulf as "the socially acknowledged right to take action or make decisions based on position within hierarchical settings", (2018, p.5)). Though the participants highlighted that the investment criteria for their originated projects meant that they were not always able to see their projects develop as intended, the presence of committee representatives at each stage of the organization helped distribute unequal power dynamics that this would have posed. Given these findings, we can see that though the partnership operated within a developmental finance logic, the other logics were still core to organizational functioning and not situated on the periphery, therefore representing a high degree of centrality. This dual hybrid nature of the DFI's also helped to lessen the degree of incompatibility between a market logic and

social impact logic, as the partnership was not subjected to widely different institutional demands. This speaks to Ashraf's observation that "the distinction between sectors is becoming more blurred" (2017, p.10), observed in mechanisms of collaborative governance, suggesting the greater potential for hybrid logics to emerge from these forms of partnerships.

Compatibility of Logics

The second feature of the DFCD conducive to effective collaboration is seen in the degree of compatibility between logics (Besharov and Smith, 2014, Ashraf, 2017), as seen in the Chapter 8. Besharov and Smith measure compatibility based on the degree of consistency regarding what actions to take within organizations, and a highlighted source of tension were the different practices and ways of reaching the shared goal within the DFCD. However, while participants noted the challenges stemming from divergences in practices and strategies to achieve their objectives, the shared common goal that each organization strived towards as part of the consortium helped mitigate levels of conflict that might have otherwise arisen. This aligns with the implication that "consistency regarding the goals of organizational action is more important for compatibility than consistency regarding the means by which goals are to be achieved" (Besharov and Smith, 2014, p.9).

External Influences From the Institutional Field

Lastly, the analysis conducted would not be complete without considering the larger influences of the institutional field of developmental and climate policy that the DFCD and its actors are situated within. As seen in the findings, the context that gave rise to the formation of the partnership was spearheaded by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as part of the Dutch government, as a way to not only contribute to developmental objectives and climate change commitments beyond Dutch borders, but as a response to the growing prioritization of multi-sector collaborations and private sector mobilization for development, such as the SDG 2030 target.

As the Figure 3 shows, the DFCD operates within a larger field of development policy which includes relevant stakeholders such as the EC, international governing bodies, external funders, and other actors that contribute towards shifting global narratives and discourse within the field. In relation to Selsky and Parker's societal sector theory covered in Chapter 5, partnerships can be driven by both intrinsic and extrinsic forces as a tool for collaborative governance policies (2005). As mentioned by the interviewees, outcomes of high-level meetings and agreements such as COP or the 2015 Paris Agreement have influence regarding where attention is drawn towards, thereby selectively framing developmental challenges in a way that directs attention and resources towards prescriptive courses of action. Institutional fields are "shaped by evolving and often contested institutional orders with shared or conflicting interpretations of purposes and goals", representing arenas of "endless change" according to Harsman (2024, p.110). This is further seen in the use of funding top-ups as financial support that not only allows the partnership to continue operations on a broader extent, but often includes areas of desired focus, such as biodiversity,

adaptation, or the increased focus on vulnerable communities and groups. In this way, the DFCD as a partnership is incentivized and supported by the developmental landscape, formed “in response to changing conditions” within the institutional field (ibid., p.110).

As the findings show how the DFCD partnership was formed from a larger socio-political environment that capitalized on the opportunity to engage in a purposeful vehicle for developmental objectives, the organizations also engaged in frame retention and logic hybridity by capitalizing on new practices, experiences, and knowledge gained from collaborating with the other sectors. As a result, the non-profit organizations were able to draw on the practices, approaches, and experiences developed during the DFCD in order to scale up and adapt them to other contexts beyond the partnership borders. Most notable examples were the new partnerships formed between *NGO 1* and private actors, a practice the organization continued to implement and evolve as they subsequently attracted attention from the increased network.

Chapter 9 Future Research Avenues

Future studies can analyse these conceptual findings within a wider social debate of agency versus structure to examine the role of social structures and its ability to constrain, shape, and guide the behaviour. This lens could provide a way to potentially view the emergence of neoliberal ideologies and its implication for developmental policy and climate action strategies. The emphasis on financial mechanisms such as fund leveraging, privatisation, green financing, and other market-based approaches may prioritize risk reduction for private investors, which can overshadow socio-environmental needs and priorities. There is a growing awareness of the challenges of financing adaptation and mitigation, due to a higher level of risk and uncertainty surrounding climate change and given that the benefits from adaptation are generally seen as public goods and are harder to quantify. However, there is a gap in understanding of how competing stakeholder priorities and profit-driven opportunism potentially exacerbates power inequalities, such as asymmetries in resource access. The research could thus employ Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) to examine the role of power in how trade-offs occur between developmental initiatives that are both appealing and opportunistic enough to attract private investment, yet still deliver equitable impact in local contexts where it is needed most. The critical question is therefore how adaptation initiatives beholden to funder priorities and expectations can manage competing demands, with a particular focus on how this impacts the expectation of participation seen in bottom-up approaches, such as community-based adaptation (CBA) initiatives.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

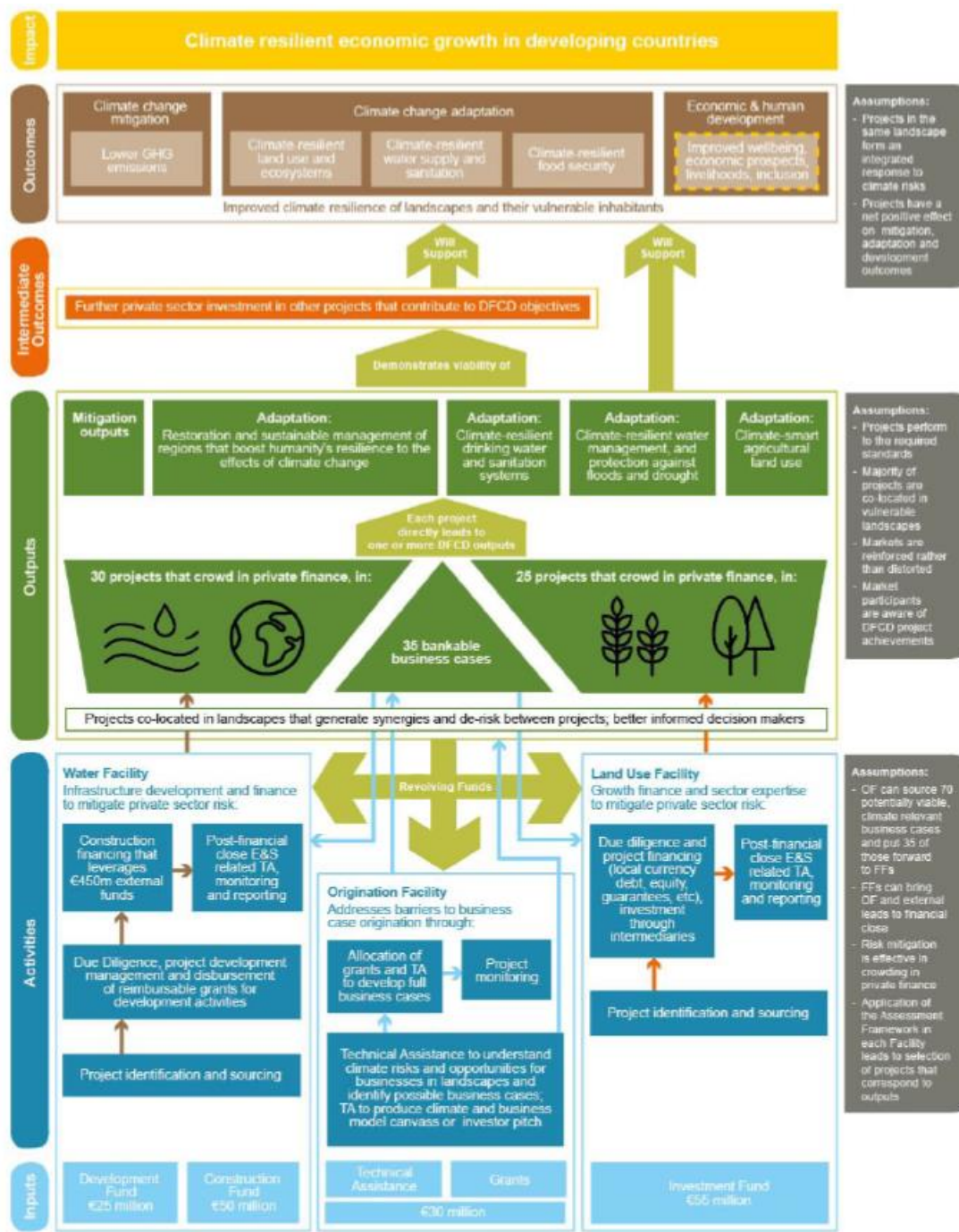
This research was developed in response to a growing call for CSP's to engage in developmental initiatives, specifically within the context of climate change. An initial literature review found existing research on cross-sector partnerships that integrated institutional theory, yet there was a gap in knowledge of how both institutional logics and cross-sector partnerships engage with the concepts of frame theory within the context grand challenges. Therefore, this research engaged in a case study analysis of the DFCD to integrate findings from stakeholders actively working in a cross sector developmental partnership for climate change along with existing theoretical knowledge.

Conclusively, the analysis found that formal bridging efforts facilitated by the DFCD to bridge knowledge gaps, as well as the intrinsic motivations of actors to integrate alternative views and practices, helped bridge sectoral gaps in knowledge. Actors engaged in an active process of framing to achieve a level of alignment that mitigated tensions arising from logic divergence, thus avoiding conflict at a level that would impede the ability to function as an organization. Notably, this research uncovered elements outside of organizational practices that influenced the DFCD's ability to navigate logic multiplicity. Such elements included the degree to which each organization's core competencies and logics were necessary for the partnership's intended purpose of achieving climate-resilient economic growth. The degree to which the organizations demonstrated logic compatibility and mutual dependency also influenced their ability to navigate competing logics. The findings were mapped in a visual that illustrated these findings, showing how the multiple factors and logics interacted with each other to produce value creation. The practical relevance of these findings can be used to inform decision-making by organizations or actors seeking to engage in cross-sector partnerships for social or developmental challenges. By presenting an understanding of how institutional logics can potentially lead to tensions and conflict, these findings can also lend an insight into how competing demands and incentives stemming from logic multiplicity can be navigated through organizational strategies.

It is difficult to understand where to begin addressing grand challenges, given the interconnectedness and complexity that emerges when unpacking the systemic factors at play. The urgency of meeting climate commitments while building resilience to climate-related disasters demands active cooperation and attention across sectors, adding to the multitude of priorities, prescriptions, and perspectives. Yet, this research suggests that effective collaboration is not only possible in the presence of multiple logics but is necessary for the purposes of filling gaps where essential resources and knowledge are needed, as well as holding potential for synergistic innovation. If future partnerships are formed with an active consideration of how values, logics, and goals can be aligned alongside a shared understanding of the impact they aim to achieve, the differences present in organizations can potentially become the key for achieving collaborative success.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Theory of Change for the Dutch Fund for Climate and Development (sourced from the DFCD Bid Application, 2019)



Appendix 2 Interview Guide and Questionnaire

Sub Research Objectives (SRO)

- Map sectoral perspectives by examining the collective values, beliefs, priorities, and perceptions of government, private sector, and NGO's regarding climate risk management (adaptation and mitigation)
- Identify differences in framing by focusing on discourse, narratives, and problem definitions to shed light on perceived roles and responsibilities of each sector
- Understand practices and strategies used by sectors to achieve value alignment and the extent to which this contributes to perceived effectiveness of cross-sector collaborations

Sub Research Questions (SRQ)

1. How do diverging institutional logics affect CSP's for development?
2. What organizational practices enable CSP's for development to manage competing institutional logics?

SRQ Motivation: Institutional logics

(SRQ 1) How do diverging institutional logics affect CSP's for development?

Potential Interview Questions (IQ)

- In your opinion, what are the most pressing challenges related to climate change that your organization aims to address? (How does your organization view climate change?)
 1. What are some strategies and goals to tackle this problem?
 2. In your view, how do the social, economic, and environmental aspects of climate change intersect in the work your organization does?

Secondary question: What do you think is the biggest barrier towards solving climate change, or at least increasing our ability to adapt and mitigate it?

IQs for the Lead organization

- How did you select the non-profit/business partners?
 1. How did you evaluate the 'fit' with the partners?
- What did that process of recruitment look like?
- What were the influencing factors that helped make those initial decisions

(SRQ 2) What practices or strategies are used by organizations to navigate these divergences, or are there differences in perceived risks on the partnership's effectiveness by each sector?

Potential Interview Questions (IQ)

[ONLY FOR NON-FMO INTERVIEWEES]

Based on your own experience and memory, how did your organization come to be a part of this partnership?

- eg. Was there a formal recruitment process? What led the organization to be a part of it?
- What was the organization's motivation for entering the CSSP?
- To what extent do you and your partners align on project priorities?
 - [If differences are indicated by participant] How has your organization navigated differences in perspectives or priorities amongst the partnership?

SRQ Motivation: Frame alignment / divergence

- a. How do these values diverge from each other, and where are identifiable areas of overlap?
- b. Did the partnership have an influence on how they viewed each other / the project issue?

Potential Interview Questions (IQ)

- Can you explain in your words what the value of partnering is, or why an organization might want to work within a partnership on a social project?
 - Where do you think the main value for your organization lies with this partnership?
- What were your initial expectations from the partnership, working alongside the other organizations?
 - Were these met or did they change?
- How do you communicate or share information with your partners, in particular the ones working in the other facility?
 - Have you encountered any challenges?
 - (If YES) How do you overcome these?
 - Is your daily work mostly conducted with partners in your sector (SNV+WWF, FMO+CFM)?
- Can you discuss any challenges or successes in overcoming differences in organizational culture / goals / priorities between you and other organizations, especially those not in the same sector as you?

Would you mind recommending your colleagues, your nonprofit partners and the other stakeholders of your company who might be interested and willing to participant in our interview? Thank you!

Appendix 3 Results from Thematic Analysis Coding

First Order Codes	Second Order Themes	Aggregate Dimensions
<p>Adjusting ways of working to best evaluate ex ante impact after support is given</p> <p>Alignment in mission and values but differ on how to get there</p> <p>They have their own rules and ways of working</p> <p>Ongoing work to balance necessary profits and impact</p> <p>Difficulty in aligning internal purposes in protecting the planet and private investments</p> <p>Difficult to monetize adaptation projects because benefits are considered public goods</p> <p>Difficult to monetize benefits of adaptation projects and who should be the end buyer if there is one</p> <p>Challenging to align impact expectations and understandings from different backgrounds</p> <p>Difficulty in aligning purposes in protecting the planet and private investments</p> <p>Aware of putting your name and fame at stake to the projects you propose and develop</p> <p>How to respect minimum individual needs while providing sufficient information for overall fund</p> <p>Quick scalability is possible with private investing but external conditions make it risky</p>	<p>Differences in how to achieve targeted outcome goals</p> <p><i>These statements highlight contrasting missions and organizational practices, highlighting tension between social value-driven and financial viability-driven objectives</i></p>	Divergences in organizational practices and incentives
<p>Needed to explain expectations and needs around scale and definition of bankability</p> <p>Find proposals that not only fits FP1 expectations of de-risking but that NGO1 believes is a good case for</p> <p>If you can't make a profit then investment isn't possible</p> <p>Historically using grant funding for bankability versus investments for bankability to produce commercial returns</p> <p>Needed to converge in understanding of bankability</p> <p>Needed to explain expectations and needs around scale and definition of bankability</p> <p>Commitment to supporting viability of cases reaching implementation despite challenging conditions</p> <p>Ongoing work to balance necessary profits and impact</p>	<p>Expectations and conceptions of success</p> <p><i>These statements indicate differences in expectations and criteria measuring impact, underscoring the need to align on organizational priorities</i></p>	
<p>Our core expertise is in the field of social impact</p> <p>We already knew what they can do and what we can do</p> <p>We go into investments where others can't or won't</p> <p>There's a lot of knowledge and respect about our specialized work in conservation</p>	<p>Core Organizational Competencies</p> <p><i>These statements reflect the capabilities and reputation of individual organizations within the respective fields of expertise</i></p>	Merging shared values and capabilities for higher intra-organizational alignment
<p>The two consortium focus areas were existing priorities for us as well</p> <p>DFCD thematic areas were themes we were already focused on historically</p> <p>Expertise is distributed evenly because of our existing knowledge in our areas</p>	<p>Alignment of values with project objectives</p> <p><i>These statements highlight existing practices and knowledge that complemented larger project priorities</i></p>	
<p>The shared experience and language helps with process of engaging investors early as opposed to at the end of projects historically</p> <p>Preparing the field for companies to grow attracted new companies to work with who need investments</p> <p>These new partnerships with companies are something to be looked at and developed further beyond the partnership</p> <p>The work with dfi's and investments has trickled down in the organization</p> <p>Now working in a different stage with companies themselves instead of paving the way for them to come in</p>	<p>Integration of new knowledge into existing practices</p> <p><i>These statements focus on new outcomes and ways of working, specifically the integration of knowledge into practices and operating procedures</i></p>	
<p>Outcome of new work with private sector companies looking to scale</p> <p>The organizations would not have benefitted from the added value that the other organization brought if we can learn how DFI's might view financials to ascertain bankability and investment potential in coming years they did not work together</p>	<p>Leveraging complementary resources</p> <p><i>These statements speak to the benefits of collaboration that result in resource sharing and network association</i></p>	
<p>We strongly believe the private sector is necessary to develop the Global South and the knowledge and support of the NGO's are necessary</p> <p>Always on the lookout for donors that can fund projects so a strategic partnership with financial institutions would expand the reach</p> <p>It's like having an in house consultant on areas of knowledge needed</p> <p>The idea was that the partners would strengthen each other with their respective knowledge</p> <p>1+1 = 3</p> <p>We can't achieve as much alone</p>	<p>Access to new networks results in associational value</p> <p><i>These statements describe the benefits from new relationships and connections developed</i></p>	
<p>Embedded networks in local countries plus financial expertise has been key in making the collaboration click</p> <p>Additional value from the nonprofits local networks helps us adjust our existing business practices to become more impactful and profitable</p> <p>Need added capacity to prepare projects that can be supported by investments</p> <p>Having a big name partner in the private sector means being in the room where things happen and contributing to discussions in a valid way</p>		

<p>Having knowledge on the ground brought value</p> <p>Climate adaptation is a contextual problem so local knowledge is needed to identify and address business challenges on the ground</p> <p>Having local context allows for specific information and suggestions to make projects more climate resilient</p> <p>To invest you need to know what you're investing in because you want to get your money back in the end</p> <p>Importance of ensuring indigenous communities and vulnerable groups are not excluded or negatively affected by focusing on inclusion into activities</p> <p>Development requires being present on the ground in local contexts to understand specific challenges and</p>	<p>Adaptation is a contextual problem requiring local solutions</p> <p><i>These statements underscore the importance of understanding local contexts for climate adaptation and development efforts</i></p>	Multi-dimensional challenges require coordinated efforts on
<p>Difficult to monetize and quantify adaptation projects because benefits are considered public goods</p> <p>Adaptation faces different financial challenges than mitigation</p> <p>Issues of climate change and infrastructure are integrated</p> <p>New studies coming out on the financial returns of adaptation</p> <p>Blended finance helped play a role in mainstreaming renewables financing</p> <p>We wanted to have impactful projects in developing countries but saw a lack of bankable investments</p> <p>At some point grant funding shouldn't be needed to support projects</p> <p>We act on what's happening by investing where the money needs to be</p>	<p>Market strategies needed to finance climate adaptation efforts</p> <p><i>These statements highlight the financial needs of climate adaptation and development initiatives</i></p>	
<p>Focusing on adaptation is something niche that emphasizes their purposeful additionality</p> <p>The need for a fund that addressed both mitigation and adaptation grew with the Paris Agreement and there was an urgency to support adaptation initiatives</p> <p>Government's international commitments on biodiversity conservation influenced the project's focus</p> <p>COP helped adaptation as a theme gain attraction and familiarity for investors</p> <p>Things are changing and now there is more of a need for adaptation with more players coming into this space</p> <p>Adaptation is where the government is paying attention to now and how the DFCD can be used on a political platform</p> <p>It's like racing down a new road of climate adaptation</p>	<p>Emerging areas of investment and interest by government</p> <p><i>These statements reflect shifting attentions to climate adaptation as a strategic priority area</i></p>	External sociopolitical factors supporting partnership
<p>Hiring people with a financial background to teach about risk helped</p> <p>Having organized workshops helped keep criteria and targets in mind</p> <p>Having working groups to exchange knowledge and guide each other helps with learning</p> <p>Approving the project is collaborative so nothing is a surprise</p>	<p>Collaborative learning workshops and formalized training</p> <p><i>These statements describe formal practices intended to develop skills and build knowledge</i></p>	Informal and formal practices to bridge knowledge gaps
<p>Organizations led workshops to look at strategies from different perspectives and resolve issues</p> <p>You create added values in partnerships by learning from each other and sharing perspectives</p> <p>Sharing information is necessary to understand others better and move towards each other without blocking your position</p> <p>Work done to speak the language and create a road map for the shared goal they're all chasing</p> <p>Low key methods of communication</p> <p>Take the other person's perspective to see how they would view a project</p> <p>Trust in each other's abilities and how to harness individual strengths in a complementary way is needed to help reach the goal and scale it up</p> <p>Working in adaptation means being optimistic and opportunistic</p> <p>Sharing information is necessary to understand others better and move towards each other without blocking your position</p> <p>There's a give and take when it comes to projects being approved for investment</p> <p>Adjusting ways of working to best evaluate ex ante impact after support is given</p> <p>Coordination and preventing conflict is the person's main role and interest</p> <p>Investing time in understanding each other and aligning systems already in place</p> <p>Finetuning existing methods in measuring impact to capture ex ante estimations in line with consortium expectations</p> <p>Adopting a way to sync M&E systems helps avoid problems down the line in aligning impact measurement and indicators</p>	<p>Openness to sharing knowledge and compromise facilitates trust</p> <p><i>This cluster represents the language used by participants in describing their relational views and beliefs about collaboration</i></p>	

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