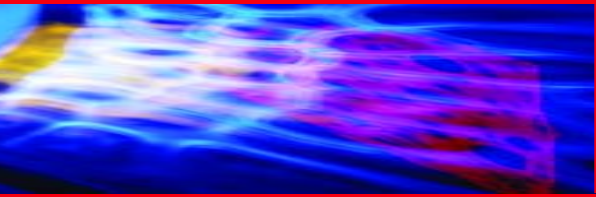


Organisational Models for “joining up” planning and delivery across the Public Sector

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Contents

1. Introduction: What do we mean by joining up?	4
2. Why do organisations join up?	5
3. Models for Joining up	5
4. Issues for joining up	16



Executive Summary

This paper explores organisational models and approaches to joining up. It explores a range of approaches which could be used in the public sector to join up. It takes a broad view of “joining up”, exploring examples from a range of countries and drawing on case studies from the public and private sector. It highlights which models work well in which circumstances and identifies potential problems with different models.

KEY FINDINGS

1. **Motivations for joining up** - these can be similar in the public and private sectors e.g. sharing expertise, gaining access to finances, and improving the customer experience. The public sector could learn from the situation in the private sector where joining up is a vehicle for achieving a specific objective and not an end in itself.
2. **The Range of approaches** - There are many different models for joining up but the majority of approaches are designed to join up service delivery or policy-making.
3. **Choosing the right approach** - Certain approaches are most appropriate for achieving certain objectives. For instance, one-stop shops can be a useful way of joining up service delivery whilst networks can be appropriate for joining up policy-making.
4. **Enhancing Accountability** - If establishing accountability is important, as often is the case in the public sector, a partnership model is recommended. There are many different types of partnership arrangements including joint ventures and strategic alliances.
5. **Making a success of joining up** - There are 9 factors which have been identified as contributing to the success or failure of joining-up. These represent important areas to be considered before joining up and to be aware of as the joint approach develops:
 - Common objectives and compatible cultures
 - Clarity and accountability
 - Organisational cooperation and communication
 - Equality
 - Leadership
 - Technological issues
 - Reviewing the approach
 - Sufficient and appropriate resources
 - Political support

1. Introduction: What do we mean by joining up?

This paper explores a range of organisational models and approaches which could be used in the public sector to join up. It takes a broad view of “joining up”, exploring examples from a range of countries and drawing on cases from the public and private sector. It highlights which approaches work well in which circumstances and identifies potential problems with different models.

It is hoped that this paper will be used to inform approaches to joining up. It is primarily designed for those who have joined up and those thinking of doing so. We hope it will encourage people to explore whether their current or proposed approach to joining up will deliver the best outcomes for the Scottish public or whether another model would be more appropriate.

The paper is structured around 4 key issues:

1. What is meant by joining up?
2. Why do organisations join up?
3. Models for joining up
4. Issues for joining up

A wide range of concepts can describe working across organisational boundaries. The term ‘joined up working’ is useful shorthand for all approaches which involve,

collaborative working across organisational boundaries to tackle shared issues & achieve shared objectives.

Joined up working involves partnership with others, whether from the public, private or voluntary sectors. The term has tended to be employed in the public, rather than the private, sector. Joined up working approaches tend to focus on one, or several, of the activities listed below:

- Policy making
- Strategy and planning
- Commissioning and procurement
- Scrutiny
- Frontline delivery (refuse collection, care services etc)
- Front-office (contact centres, joint service centres)
- Back-office (transactional processing)
- Back-office (support services)

However, joined up working can refer to a broad range of activities such as:

Information Sharing	Joint databases	Integrated service delivery	Tendering with partnering criteria
Summits	Partnerships	Cooperation	
Forums	Pooled budgets	Policy frameworks	Visioning
Sharing venture capital	Exchanging leads	Compacts	
Trading services	Co-producing articles/press releases	Joint intake and referral mechanisms	Collaboration
Co-hosting seminars	Strategic Alliances	Community based cabinets	
Product bundling	Joint Ventures	Sharing office space	Integrated planning
Roundtables	Networks	Shared Services	One stop shops

2. Why do organisations join up?

When public sector organisations join up they tend to be motivated by the following:

1. Eliminating contradictions and tensions between different policies, thereby increasing the effectiveness of policies
2. Making better use of resources
3. Improving the flow of good ideas and cooperation between different stakeholders in a particular policy sector
4. Producing a more integrated or ‘seamless’ set of services from the point of view of the citizens who use them
5. Finding additional investment for projects

Motivations for private sector organisations are similar, but private companies are most likely to engage in joined up working for specific reasons at specific times, for instance, at times of business expansion, as new products are developed and when businesses seek to move into new markets, particularly overseas. The key motivations for private organisations to join up are to:

1. Access knowledge and expertise outside the company
2. Access new markets and distribution networks
3. Enhance company credibility by forming an alliance with a larger known branded company
4. Create new profit channels, for instance, partnering to expand its sales force or distribution channel for low cost.
5. Build competitor barriers, keeping out competitors and maintaining high profit margins.
6. Increase capacity
7. Increase available capital
8. Share risk
9. Decrease product lead times and life cycles
10. Provide added value to customers

Many of the motivations for joining up identified in the private sector can equally apply to the public sector. It may be helpful for public sector organisations to consider motivations in the private sector, as this can help public sector organisations explore the range of outcomes that can be achieved by joining up. However, it is worth emphasising that joining up is not an end in itself, there are many situations where joining up will not add value and should be avoided. This is a key lesson from the private sector where joining up is always a means to an end rather than an end in itself. Private sector organisations that join up always have specific reasons for doing so, and importantly, if this objective is achieved or no longer prioritised then the organisations involved will usually disband.

3. Models for Joining up

There are a variety of models organisations can adopt as a way to join up with others. Organisations need to carefully consider which model, or models, would best meet their objectives and would fit with their organisational structure. This section examines a range of models that can be used for joining up. Each model is described and its uses and limitations highlighted. Case studies illustrate some of the key models discussed.

Part A of this section explores models according to their objectives, highlighting for which purposes various models have tended to be employed. **Part B** examines approaches according to the degree of structural integration involved in joining up in this way.

PART A: Models by Objectives

Here the models to joined up working are examined according to the objectives they are designed to achieve. The two main objectives discussed in this section are:

- i. Service Delivery
- ii. Joined up policy

i. Service Delivery

Integrated service delivery approaches bring together the delivery of government services, or information about them, in an attempt to reduce the time/effort citizens expend to find and receive the services they require and to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of these services. Integrated service delivery approaches often involve partnership, collaboration, co-ordination, cooperation and integration, discussed in Part B of this section.¹

Bent et al. identified three different purposes that integrated service delivery initiatives are intended to serve; gateways, one-stop-shops and seamless service initiatives. These are ideal types as often categorizing real examples is more complex, for instance, most seamless service initiatives and one-stop-shops will also serve as gateways.²

1. **Single window gateways** provide access to governmental information and referral services but do not deliver any government services directly. They aim to make government more accessible by connecting citizens with government services regardless of how the service delivery structures within a government are defined. Improving accessibility through gateways to Bent et al. means facilitating access to government information about available services and/or referring them to the appropriate service. Gateways often take the form of call centres, internet sites or general information offices. Examples from Canada include Enquiry BC and the Manitoba Citizens’ Inquiry Service.

Kubicek and Hagen developed the Bent et al. framework in their work on one-stop-shops in Europe.³ They refer to single window gateways as a ‘First-stop’ - typically an information counter (either physical or electronic) which guides the citizen to the relevant services based on their needs. This highlights that it is the first point of access for a citizen but that it might not actually provide all the information and services but rather direct people to the correct place.

2. **One-stop shop:** Whilst gateways only provide access to information, one-stop-shops provide services as well as information. The aim of one-stop-shops is to provide a wide range of related and/or unrelated governmental services in one convenient location (physical or electronic). Examples of one-stop shops in Canada are Service New Brunswick (physical), ServiceOntario kiosks and Atlantic Canada On-line (electronic).

CASE STUDY 1

One Stop Shops in Europe

Kubicek and Hagen (2000) in their comparative study of one-stop-government in Europe identified that three countries (Netherlands, Finland and Italy) had explicit national policy commitments for integrated service provision centres, either in the form of buildings, call centres, web sites, enhanced mobile devices or over digital television.

In the Netherlands, the federal government started to fund four pilot integrated service counters in 1992, and in 1996 launched the “Overheidsloket 2000” (Public Counter 2000) to structure the delivery of public

¹ Bent, S., Kernaghan, K. and Marson, B. (1999) Innovations and Good Practices in Single-Window Service (Canadian Centre for Management Development) accessed at http://www.myschool-monecole.gc.ca/Research/publications/pdfs/single_w.pdf

² *ibid.*, p.4

³ Kubicek, H. and Hagen, M. (2000) One-Stop-Shop Government in Europe: An Overview (University of Bremen) accessed at <http://www.egov.vic.gov.au/pdfs/OneStop.pdf>

services according to “demand patterns”. In Finland, local government service bureaus have been an integral part of public administration reform since 1993, with the intention that these service bureaus will become fully integrated points of service delivery for most public services in Finland. Whilst Kubicek and Hagen identify that Netherlands and Finland have developed the most advanced approaches to integrated service delivery, in Italy, local governments have a statutory duty to introduce a one-stop-government scheme in relation to business licensing. In contrast, in Austria, Denmark, Ireland and the UK whilst ‘implicit’ strategies exist and integrated service delivery is a stated goal there is little concerted effort to introduce it on a wider scale compared to those with an explicit strategy. Finally, Kubicek and Hagen note that Belgium, Germany, France and Spain pursue no strategy regarding one-stop-government. In these countries whilst the idea of one-stop-government does surface in policy papers the idea is not a concrete policy goal for the near future. However, as Kubicek and Hagen note, the lack of a national strategy does not tell us anything about developments on a local level, and for instance some countries with no national strategy, such as Germany and Spain, are as active in relation to one-stop government as those with national strategies.

3. Seamless service initiatives are similar to one-stop-shops as they provide a range of information, referral and services but the main aim of such initiatives is to rationalise service delivery rather than improving accessibility and convenience (though of course they may do so). Seamless service initiatives integrate related governmental services and are geared to specific client groups. Typically, seamless service initiatives overcome jurisdictional divisions (governmental or departmental) to improve service. Seamless service can be delivered for a particular programme area, for example, in Canada business services from three levels of government are delivered at the Edmonton Business Link Business Service Centre. Seamless service initiatives also often involve the integration of services for specific groups, for example, for urban Aboriginal people through the Aboriginal Single Window Initiative in Winnipeg. Seamless service can also be delivered across departmental boundaries within a single government, such as bringing city departments together around common issues through the Vancouver Neighbourhood Integrated Service Teams (NISTs).⁴

Kubicek and Hagen recognise this as a useful category but refer to them as ‘true one-stop shops’ rather than ‘seamless service initiatives’. This provides a helpful distinction between their concept of the ‘first-stop’ and ‘true one-stop’ shops. Often people refer generically to one-stop shops whereas they often actually deliver quite different levels of service and information and in different ways. A ‘true one-stop’ shop will provide all the information and services that are necessary to satisfy concerns of specific client groups or in specific events, such as family, job or location changes.

Bent et al. developed a matrix categorising these approaches, depicted on the next page. Bent et al. combine the objectives of these approaches with their structures. The definitions of the structures adopted by Bent et al. are highlighted in the box below.

1. Owner-Delivered: Direct delivery of services by a department or government
2. Owner-Delivered in a Co-located Environment: Services are delivered by governments (or departments) in a co-located environment (e.g., sharing space within the same building) with other governments or departments
3. Shared Delivery through Integration: Delivered by multiple governments or departments in partnership through integration
4. Delegated Delivery through a Corporate Service Utility: Delivery of services from one government through a service utility (an organisation which delivers services on behalf of other government organisations but delivers no, or very few, of its own)
5. Delegated Delivery through an Inter-governmental Service Utility: Delivery of services from more than one level of government through an integrated service utility
6. Delegated Delivery through Another Service Provider (Multiplexing): Services delivered for governments or departments by another service provider through an existing or partnered delivery channel

⁴ Bent, S., Kernaghan, K. and Marson, B., op.cit

Fig 1: Framework for single-window approaches

SINGLE-WINDOW SERVICE DELIVERY MATRIX

SINGLE-WINDOW SERVICE DELIVERY MATRIX	OWNER-DELIVERED	OWNER-DELIVERED IN A CO-LOCATED ENVIRONMENT	SHARED DELIVERY THROUGH INTEGRATION	DELEGATED DELIVERY THROUGH A CORPORATE SERVICE UTILITY	DELEGATED DELIVERY THROUGH AN INTERGOVERNMENTAL SERVICE UTILITY	DELEGATED DELIVERY THROUGH A CORPORATE SERVICE UTILITY
<p>This matrix illustrates the various types of single-window service delivery initiatives in Canada. The vertical axis illustrates the different purposes that single-window initiatives can serve. The horizontal axis illustrates the various structures used to achieve single-window service delivery</p> <p>GATEWAYS Improving accessibility through single-window information and referral</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Owner-delivered single-window services delivered directly by a department or government • Enquiry BC* • Reference Canada • The Canada Site • New Brunswick Inquiries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single-window services that are owner-delivered in a co-located environment • The Intergov Site* • The Canadian Business Map (Strategis) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single-window services delivered by multiple governments or departments in partnership through service integration • Manitoba Citizens' Inquiry Service* • Communication Quebec • Landowner Resource Centre (Ottawa-Carleton) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single-window delivery of a range of services from one government through a service utility. (Defin. - A service utility is defined as an organisation that delivers services on behalf of other government organisations but delivers no services (or very few) of its own) • Most call centres are inherently utilities in that they do not have ownership of the services for which they are providing information or referral. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single-window delivery of services from more than one level of government through an intergovernmental service utility. (Defin. - A service utility is defined as an organisation that delivers services on behalf of other government organisations but delivers no services (or very few) of its own) • An intergovernmental service utility to provide integrated call centre information and referral services? • An intergovernmental service utility to provide integrated internet-based information services? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Single-window delivered for governments or departments by another service provider. (Defin. - *Multi-plexing* connotes the delivery of multiple services through an existing or partnered delivery channel)
<p>ONE-STOP-SHOPS Improving convenience and accessibility to a wide range of related and/or unrelated services and information</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access Nova Scotia* • CentreLink** 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • BC Access Centres* • HRDC InfoCentre Kiosks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • BC Government Agents* • Service New Brunswick* • Acces Montreal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An intergovernmental service utility to provide one-stop shopping for services, information and referral on behalf of all levels of government? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An intergovernmental service utility to provide one-stop shopping for services, information and referral on behalf of all levels of government? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Atlantic Canada On-line* • Canada Post/HRDC Kiosk partnerships* • ServiceOntario • Canada Post/Passport Office
<p>SEAMLESS SERVICES Single-window access to related information, referral and services across jurisdictional lines (either within or between governments)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revenue Canada Business Number* • Vancouver Neighbourhood Integrated Service Teams* • Ontario Business Connects Workstation* • Community Care Access Centres* • Canadian Food Inspection Agency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aboriginal Single Window Initiative* • National Energy Board - Sable Island Joint Review* 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Edmonton Business Link Business Service Centre (one of 12 CBCs)* • Burlington Resource Centre* (one of many HRDC co-locations/integrations). • National Energy Board - Common Reserves Database* • Canadian Geospatial Data Infrastructure* • Tawatinaw Regional Innovation Centre • Calgary Corporate Planning Applications Group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intergovernmental service utilities in strategic areas? • Health • Business Development • Employment • Social Services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ontario Business Connects Service Delivery Strategy* • Atlantic Canada On-line (intergovernmental services)* 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ontario Business • Connects Service Delivery Strategy* • Atlantic Canada On-line (intergovernmental services)*

*Cases covered
**Australian example
© Canadian Centre for Management Development

In the public sector, service delivery can be categorised in relation to the degree of organisational integration involved. The State Services Commission in New Zealand developed an integration spectrum based on the production of outputs and channels of delivery where examples can be placed on a scale ranging from high integration to high specialisation. The diagram below depicts this spectrum and provides examples of the various types of integration. ⁶

Fig 2: Integration Spectrum

Level of integration	Description and examples
Very high integration	One organisation produces all the relevant services and has one (primary) channel of delivery. e.g. WINZ
High integration	One organisation produces most of the services and has one (primary) channel of delivery. e.g. integrated health services
Moderate integration	One organisation produces most of the services but has multiple channels of delivery. e.g. telephone banking
Partial integration	Several service providers with a common (primary) channel of delivery. e.g. use of client brokers
Mixed systems	Several organisations produce the relevant services with multiple, shared channels of delivery. e.g. Crime Prevention strategy
High specialisation	Several service providers with multiple, independent channels of delivery. e.g. specialist medical services

The spectrum does not represent a hierarchy, so none of the levels are more desirable than any other. Instead it can be used as a starting point to discuss the different approaches that could be adopted for service delivery in partnerships between local authorities and the public, private or voluntary sectors.

CASE STUDY 2: HIGH INTEGRATION

Department of Work and Income New Zealand (WINZ)

In 1998 the Department of Work and Income (WINZ) was established, merging the New Zealand Employment Service (NZES), the Community Employment Group (CEG) and the Local Coordination Unit of the Department of Labour, and the Income Support service of the Department of Social Welfare. WINZ both administers a range of working age and retirement benefits (including the community wage - a transfer for all people out of work and claiming benefit) and assists with job searches.⁷ The services provided through WINZ include case management, job advice and brokerage, access to training and work experience. WINZ is responsible for paying benefits, pensions and financial assistance exceeding \$11 billion to more than 820,000 New Zealanders. The primary driver for integrating services and creating WINZ was a ‘desire for greater regional focus and a desire for improved customer service’. In addition there was a desire for greater streamlining of employment and income maintenance policies, and ‘a perceived duplication in the services provided to some groups of job seekers was seen as causing two problems, namely higher transaction costs for the job seeker and inefficiency’.⁸

⁶ New Zealand State Services Commission (1999) Integrated Service Delivery Occasional Paper No.12 accessed at www.ssc.govt.nz/upload/downloadable_files/Occ_Paper_12.pdf, p.10

⁷ Clasen, J., Duncan, J. Eardley, T. Evans, M., Ughetto, P., Oorschot, W. and Wright, S. (2001)

‘Towards ‘single gateways’?: A cross-national review of the changing roles of employment offices in seven countries’ published in Zeitschrift für ausländisches und internationales Sozialrecht, (Vol.15, No. 1, pp. 43-63), p.6

⁸ New Zealand State Services Commission (1999) Integrated Service Delivery Occasional Paper No.12 accessed at www.ssc.govt.nz/upload/downloadable_files/Occ_Paper_12.pdf

CASE STUDY 3: PARTIAL INTEGRATION

Centrelink Australia

Centrelink combines benefit administration (formerly the responsibility of a government ministry) and the employment service functions (registration, assessment, referral), which used to be in the hands of the now defunct CES (Commonwealth Employment Service). Therefore, as well as delivering government services ‘Centrelink is responsible for assessing the level of assistance job seekers are entitled to providing basic self-help job search facilities and making referrals to employment service providers’.⁹ In addition Centrelink administers the activity test for unemployed clients and makes decisions about enforcing penalties for breaches of the regulations. Apart from Centrelink, no other public agency is involved in benefit delivery. However, some State governments run their own employment programmes, particularly for disadvantaged groups, such as Aboriginals, older workers, youth, disabled people and migrants.

There are 401 Centrelink offices located throughout Australia, a central call centre (which takes around 19 million calls per year), a web site (receives 1.6 million enquiries a year), a range of mobile and remote-link services based in rural areas and the regions. A large feature of Centrelink is the use of ICT, particularly mobile ICT to extend governmental services to remote rural areas. For instance, its Rural Outreach program consists of Centrelink agents, mobile visiting services, access points, partnership arrangements with state/territory governments and dedicated rural call centres. As a result, Centrelink involves the centralisation of administrative functions on the one-hand, and further distributed services on the other. Despite its successes, however, Centrelink has suffered from a poor public image, due to perceptions of security problems and threats to civil liberties from the centralisation of personal data. Initially customer satisfaction levels were low, at 65% in November 1998 and May 1999. However, more recently customer satisfaction levels have improved, for instance, in 2004-05 customer satisfaction was at 85%, meaning 85% of people surveyed rated the overall quality of the service they received as ‘good’ or ‘very good’ at their last visit to a Centrelink centre or phone call.¹⁰ Yet, there is still evidence to suggest that staff have a number of concerns associated with moving from a partnership with government model to a competitive framework.

Centrelink is an autonomous statutory authority within the Family and Community Services portfolio. Therefore, the Minister for Family and Community Services is accountable for Centrelink to Parliament and the public. Centrelink operates under the Commonwealth Services Delivery Agency Act 1997, which gives Centrelink responsibility for the provision of Commonwealth services in accordance with service agreements.¹¹ Many of the services provided by the Centrelink agency are provided on the basis of partnership agreements. For instance, ‘The CEO of the Department of Family and Community Services has a partnership agreement with Centrelink for the delivery of welfare services’.¹² Centrelink's revenue is provided through business partnership agreements or similar arrangements with client agencies. Funds are appropriated to the policy agencies and paid to Centrelink in return for specified services.¹³

ii) Joined up policy

In 1999 the UK Labour Government issued a white paper Modernising Government which introduced ‘joined up government’ to the UK. The concept was not unique to the UK, with the same agenda appearing across other OECD countries since the end of the 1990s.

According to Pollitt joined up government has four underlying goals:

1. Eliminate contradictions and tensions between different policies
2. Make better use of resources

⁹ Eardley, T., D. Abello and H. MacDonald (2000) ‘Is the Job Network Benefiting Disadvantaged Jobseekers?’ SPRC Discussion Paper, no.111 (Social Policy Research Centre, Sydney), p.8

¹⁰ UK CEED - Sustain IT Case Studies Centrelink Australia accessed at <http://www.sustainit.org/case-studies/docs/58-centrelink.pdf>

¹¹ Centrelink Annual Report 2002-2003 accessed at www.centrelink.gov.au/internet/internet.nsf/aro203/2_1.htm

¹² Barrett, A.M (2001) ‘The role of watchdogs in this new era of partnerships’ presented at Beyond Traditional Boundaries - IPAA National Conference 2001(28 - 30 November, Sydney Convention Centre) accessed at http://www.nsw.ipaa.org.au/oo_pdfs/Paper6.pdf, p.47

¹³ Centrelink Annual Report 2002-2003, op.cit.

¹⁴ Pollitt, C. (2003) Joined-up Government: a Survey Political Studies Review: 2003 Vol. 1, p.35. Accessed at: <http://www.inlogov.bham.ac.uk/pdfs/readinglists/Pollitt%20on%20joined%20up%20government%20review%20of%20lit.pdf#search=%22joined%20up%20government%20a%20survey%22>

3. Improve the flow of good ideas and co-operation between different stakeholders in a particular policy sector
4. Produce a more integrated or ‘seamless’ set of services¹⁴

These goals refer to joined up government, which includes both joined up policymaking and joined up implementation. Pollitt comments on the differences between these two aspects but acknowledges that it is impossible to precisely separate them out as they constantly interact with one another.

CASE STUDY 4: JOINED UP POLICY

Rural Impact Assessment

Policies may have different impacts on rural and urban areas; the rural dimension is considered an important factor to take into account when developing policy across different areas. The Scottish Executive wanted to facilitate joined up policy making which took into account rural issues. In order to achieve this in 1999 a Ministerial Cabinet Committee, made up of 11 ministers, existed to ensure that all policies being developed took into consideration any rural dimensions. During the lifespan of the committee they took policy advice from the Scottish National Rural Partnership, which represented both NGOs and Executive bodies.

The committee was also supported by a group of Scottish Executive officials, originally the Rural Agenda Steering Group, now the Rural Core Network, who represent the rural development policy areas within the Executive, including economic development, transport, services and social justice. This three-way approach meant that there was consultation between politicians, different government departments and the voluntary sector in developing policies which would impact on rural areas.

One example of this joint working was the coordination of the different departments who were involved in dealing with the Foot and Mouth Disease outbreak in 2001.¹⁵ Scotland was praised for dealing with the outbreak more effectively than in England in the ‘Lessons to be Learned Enquiry’ report. The report highlighted the existence of planning procedures, as well as good communication systems and IT support.¹⁶

Since the 1980s there has been a growing interest in how networks of individuals and organisations come together to influence the policy agenda in the UK. Rhodes and Marsh developed different models of interaction in the policy making sphere. Rhodes developed a policy network continuum which contained the following 5 types of network:

i. Policy Communities

Characterised by dealing with a specific policy remit, restricted membership, interdependence, shared service delivery responsibilities

ii. Professional Networks

Bodies set up to represent the views of professionals within a particular area e.g. health

iii. Intergovernmental Networks

These are based around the representative organisations of local government from a specific geographical area but do not have service delivery responsibilities

iv. Producer Networks

Characterised by loose associations and focused on the economic interests in policy making

v. Issue Networks

Set up around a specific issue, they involve a large number of members which changes constantly e.g. disability rights, anti-fox hunting¹⁷

There is evidence that these different types of policy networks have existed in the UK for 60 years, e.g. the policy community set up around agriculture dominated by the pressure group the National Farmers Union. However, since New Labour was elected in 1997 there has been a shift to encouraging the formalisation of policy networks in government.

¹⁵ Bullock, H., Mountford, J. & Stanley, R. (2001) Better Policy-Making Centre for Management and Policy Studies. London: Cabinet Office p.14. Accessed at: <http://www.policyhub.gov.uk/docs/betterpolicymaking.pdf#search=%22better%20policy%20making%22>

¹⁶ BBC News Scotland (2002) Disease handling praise for Scotland. Accessed at: <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/scotland/2144902.stm>

¹⁷ Kavanagh, D., Richards, D., Geddes, A. & Smith, M. (2006) British Politics: 5th Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Accessed at: http://www.oup.com/uk/orc/bin/9780199269792/kavanagh_chap21.pdf

The Centre for Management and Policy Studies report on ‘Better Policy Making’ develops 9 features of modern policy-making, one of which is joined up policy making and note that joined up policy making is encouraged to replace processes of sequential policy making which took place within, rather than between, government departments. The report on ‘Better Policy Making’ identifies the following 4 areas as key features of a successful joined up policy approach:

1. Cross cutting objectives clearly defined at the outset
2. Joint working arrangements with other departments clearly defined and well understood
3. Barriers to effective joined up clearly identified with a strategy to overcome them
4. Implementation considered part of the policy making process ¹⁸

In order to achieve these objectives the UK government introduced a series of interconnected reforms and initiatives to facilitate joined up policy making between government departments. These included:

- a range of policy making units which cut across departmental remits e.g. Social Exclusion Unit
- creation of joined up budgets
- creation of ministers with cross-cutting portfolios
- joining up different public services e.g. changing role of job centres ¹⁹
- the use of contracts e.g. public service agreements
- developing partnerships
- better use of information sharing and access to information ²⁰

PART B: Models according to organisational structure

The models for joining up discussed in this section are listed by the degree of structural integration involved in each approach. These models can be adopted with the intention of achieving a range of objectives, though some are better at achieving particular objectives.

1. Networks

Networks tend to be informal arrangements, where participants come together for shared benefit. Networks have a loose structure and little authority. Participation in a network tends to involve little commitment of resources, other than time, and low levels of risk and accountability. Networks are useful for joining up policy but are not appropriate for service delivery, where accountability and coordination are required.

2. Collaboration

Whilst terms such as ‘collaboration’ and ‘partnership’ have tended to be used interchangeably Gray makes a clear distinction between the terms.²¹ To Gray, collaboration is always voluntary, and rarely involves a contractual arrangement. Collaboration is defined more broadly than partnership, as agencies could for instance, collaborate for planning, policy development or to deliver services. For instance, Bardach defines collaboration as,

Any joint activity by two or more agencies that is intended to increase public value by their working together rather than separately.²²

Collaboration, depending on its particular form, can be a suitable vehicle for joining up policy and integrating service delivery. However, where service delivery is complex or involves a range of organisations, it may be more appropriate to consider a more formalised vehicle for joining up.

¹⁸ Bullock, H., Mountford, J. & Stanley, R. (2001) Better Policy-Making Centre for Management and Policy Studies. London: Cabinet Office p.14. Accessed at: <http://www.policyhub.gov.uk/docs/betterpolicymaking.pdf#search=%22better%20policy%20making%22>

¹⁹ Mulgan, G. Joined Up Government: Past, Present and Future The Young Foundation. Accessed at: <http://www.youngfoundation.org.uk/index.php?p=37>

²⁰ Stoker, G. (2003) Joined Up Public Services: A Briefing Note for IPEG’s Public Service Cluster. Accessed at: <http://www.ipeg.org.uk/clusters/GS%20PSC%20paper.pdf#search=%22joined%20up%20public%20services%22>

²¹ Gray, A. (2002) Integrated Service Delivery and Regional Co-ordination: A Literature Review (State Services Commission - New Zealand) <http://www.msd.govt.nz/documents/publications/strategic-social-policy/integrated-service-delivery-regional-coordination-literature-review.pdf>, p.7

²² Bardach, E. (1998) Getting Agencies to Work Together: The Practice and Theory of Managerial Craftsmanship (Brookings Institution Press, Washington D.C), P8

3. Co-operation

Co-operation is characterised by informal relationships, which exist without any commonly defined mission, structure or planning effort. Information is shared as needed, and authority is retained by each organisation so there is virtually no risk. Resources are separate, as are rewards.²³ Co-operation is most appropriate for joined up policy and is not often appropriate for complex service delivery, where shared vision, structures and planning are usually necessary.

4. Co-ordination

Co-ordination involves some planning and division of roles. Authority rests with the individual organisations but there is some increased risk to all participants. Here resources are available to participants and rewards are mutually acknowledged.²⁴ Co-ordination can be a suitable vehicle for joining up policy-making and can be appropriate for service delivery, though where it is important to establish accountability a more formalised delivery vehicle may be appropriate.

5. Partnership

Partnerships are more formal arrangements than the other forms of multi-organisational working identified above. Gray explains that partnerships can refer to a formal arrangement between two or more groups to carry out a particular task, or to a legal contract between two parties, usually to deliver a specific service.²⁵ Some authors define partnerships more narrowly than this,

Partnership is where a contractual arrangement of some kind exists, with shared commitment to achieving agreed objectives, focused effort in a particular locality, and shared responsibility and active participation by partner agencies.²⁶

The report on Partnership Working by Rocket Science, commissioned by the Improvement Service, defined types of partnership working as existing on a spectrum, and identified four types of partnerships; a strategic alliance, joint venture, networking forum and an advisory group.²⁷ Rocket Science never intended these types to represent an exclusive list, and as they note a partnership may alter type over time. Here two different types of partnership are discussed in greater depth, strategic alliances and joint ventures.

a. Joint Venture

A basic definition of a joint venture is a long-term commitment of funds, facilities and services by two or more legally separate interests, to a combined enterprise for their mutual benefits.

Joint ventures have become more popular in the public sector and the evidence suggests that this model has been used primarily to deliver on specific, single projects and has involved a partnership between the private sector and the public sector. Joint venture companies can either be set up to provide services or to raise investment.

Joint ventures in the private sector can be set-up in different ways and fall into two main categories:

1. Equity Joint Ventures - partners contribute resources to create a new company
2. Contractual alliances - collaboration between partners without creating a new company

In both instances joint ventures involve formal written agreements and joint ventures are most appropriate for service delivery.

²³ *ibid.*

²⁴ Department for Education and Employment (1998) Working in partnership: lessons from the literature Research Report RR63 (DFEE Publications, Sudbury), p.14

²⁵ Gray, A. (2002) *op.cit.*, p.9

²⁶ Erhardt, P. (2000) Models of Community-Government Partnerships and their Effectiveness in Achieving Welfare Goals: A Review of the Literature (Ministry of Social Policy, Wellington) accessed at <http://www.msd.govt.nz/documents/publications/sector-policy/reportgovtpartnerships.pdf>, p.5

²⁷ Rocket Science (2006) Partnership Working (The Improvement Service) accessed at http://www.improvementservice.org.uk/index.php?option=com_docman&task=cat_view&gid=127&Itemid=43, p.23

CASE STUDY 5: JOINT VENTURE Stagecoach and Scottish Citylink

In September 2005 Stagecoach and Scottish Citylink announced a joint venture to operate coach services under the two brands of megabus.com (a Stagecoach brand) and Scottish Citylink. Stagecoach acquired 35% of Scottish Citylink Limited share capital and transferred its rights to the motorvator and megabus operations in Scotland to Scottish Citylink. This joint venture, therefore, aimed to build on the successful brands of the two companies, improve efficiency and produce a predicted annual revenue of £18 million.²⁸ It fulfils 3 of the benefits of entering into a joint working arrangement (see p5):

- Access to new markets and routes
- Increased capacity
- Sharing of risk

b. Strategic Alliances

In contrast to joint ventures, a strategic alliance is a less formal method of collaboration, which may be entered into for one-off activity. They are likely to be in place for less time than a joint venture and are very seldom a first step to a more formalised contractual arrangement. Therefore, strategic alliances are only appropriate for short-term joint projects or programmes.

Strategic alliances are different to joint ventures in that there is no share of equity between the business partners nor is a new company created. For example, in 1992 Motorola and Unisys formed an alliance to work together in designing semiconductors and developing new processes. The alliance was based on working together to develop new technologies rather than simply sharing existing knowledge.²⁹

The advantages of a strategic alliance are due to their ability to:

- **Align knowledge with decision-making authority**
Each partner in the alliance has control over one area of the business and is responsible for decisions in this area. They are therefore responsible for any successes or failures in this area and reap any rewards accordingly.
- **Add value through organisational flexibility**
As a strategic alliance is not based on a binding contractual arrangement nor does it integrate the different partners, it is quicker to set up and to disband and can therefore respond quickly to the market.

CASE STUDY 6: STRATEGIC ALLIANCES High tech industries

In high tech industries it has been recognised that, due to the speed and cost of development, success can only be achieved through developing strategic alliances.³⁰ According to a survey in Electronics Business, 80% of electronics companies are involved in at least one strategic alliance.³¹

Alliances in high tech industries tend to fail if they are between two partners who are relatively weak and are joining forces to increase their market strength or where one company provides the capital and the other the expertise and production.

The commitment to forming alliances needs to be accompanied by strong management if they are to succeed. Hewlett-Packard is cited as being particularly strong at managing strategic alliances as it has developed a formal and well structured approach. It has produced a 400-page folder on policies, procedures and case studies and runs two-day training courses to assist managers involved in strategic alliances.³² Successful alliances are often between companies that can offer areas of different strengths

²⁸ Stagecoach Group (2005) Megabus.com Scotland / Motorvator / Scottish Citylink joint venture. Accessed at <http://www.stagecoachgroup.com/scg/media/press/pr2005/2005-09-13/>

²⁹ Han Chan, S., Kensinger, J.W., Keown, A.J., Martin, J.D. (1997) Do strategic alliances create value? *Journal of Financial Economics* 46, p.119-221.

³⁰ Jacobini, S. & McCreary, K. (1994) Strategic alliances in high technology *The Red Herring*, Vol. 6 No. 2, p.12

³¹ Elmuti, D. & Kathawala, Y. (2001) An overview of strategic alliances *Management Decision*, Vol. 39, No. 3, p.205-217

and are in related industries. For example, AT&T Microelectronics, Matsushita Electric Co., and Marubeni Corporation formed an alliance to develop a personal communicator where one partner provided the technological knowledge, one manufactured the device and the third distributed the product.³³

Legal Frameworks for Partnership Working

The following is a list of the different legal frameworks which can be utilised to formalise partnership working. Many of these are used specifically in joint ventures or for service delivery objectives.

LEGAL FRAMEWORKS

1. **Company limited by shares** - private companies owned by their shareholders but shareholders are not liable for the company's debts.
2. **Company limited by guarantee** - these are private companies where those who set up the company guarantee a certain sum if the company is wound up. Often used by social enterprises as they limit the personal liability of directors and trustees.
3. **Common Interest Company** - established under the Companies Act 2004 these are not a new type of company but a classification which can be given to an existing company limited by guarantee or shares. They are specifically set up for use by social enterprises as they protect the assets so that they can only be used for a specific community purpose.
4. **Limited Liability Partnerships** - this is similar to a partnership but differs in that it is not the individuals who make up the partnership who are liable for any debts but the partnership itself. They are designed for profit-making businesses and are more complex than a normal partnership to set up as they meet many of the requirements of a limited company.
5. **Trust** - these are unincorporated companies which is an informal arrangement not regulated by Companies House. They do not distribute any profits and are run by trustees who act on behalf of the community the trust is set up to benefit. A trust can apply for charitable status.
6. **Industrial and provident society** - these are organisations that operate as a co-operative or for the benefit of the community and are registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act 1965. Co-operatives are run for the mutual benefit of their members with any surplus funds used to improve the services they provide. Societies run for the benefit of the community provide services for people who are not members of the society.
7. **Contractual Arrangement** - these are between two or more local authorities and take the form of a Partnership board. The board is made up of representatives from the local authorities but there is no formal delegation of decision making given to the board.
8. **Joint Committee** - established in England and Wales under Section 101 of the Local Government Act 1972. Policy is decided by councillors but the committee is managed by council officers.
9. **Development agreements (regeneration)** - these are commonly used for delivering regeneration projects and are often between landowners, developers and funders. All interested parties sign a legal agreement which sets out the objectives and defines the individual rights and obligations. No separate company is established.

There are no clear guidelines on when one particular legal framework should be used as opposed to another. In England the Department of Communities and Local Government (DCLG) suggest that whereas all options should be explored for public/public partnerships when a private or voluntary partner is joining with the public sector then more formal legal arrangements are required e.g. forming a separate company. The DCLG also suggests that where profit making is intended and there are complex financial arrangements between the partners then a company limited by shares is most appropriate. Where profit distribution is not a primary aim legal arrangements such as companies limited by guarantee, industrial and provident societies and community interest companies are more appropriate. For specific information on the different legal models available in Scotland for Community Planning Partnerships see ‘Community Planning - Legal Issues And Frameworks’ by Stephen Phillips.³⁴

³² *ibid.*

³³ Jacobini, S. & McCreary, K. (1994) *op.cit.*

4. Issues for joining up

There are considerable lessons to be learned from the private sector in relation to the reasons for success and failure in joined up working. Researchers identified 4 key challenges and keys to success to the success of joint ventures and strategic alliances in the private sector: strategy; governance; economics and organisation. These challenges are highlighted in the following table and apply equally in the public sector:³⁵

Clearing the Hurdles

	Strategy	Governance	Economics	Organization
JV Challenges	Parent companies may hold different strategic interests, which may affect the nature and degree of integration. Parents share control of the JV, which complicates decision making	Parents share control of the JV, which complicates decision making Parents have separate reporting systems, processes and metrics	Parents provide ongoing services, staffing and resources to the JV, which affects venture economics. Transfer pricing may become an issue The JVs performance is less transparent compared with that of the parents’ wholly owned businesses	Parents must manage cultural differences, as well as conflicting incentives and career paths
Keys to a Successful Launch	Align the parent’s interests around the JVs objectives up front Specify first year goals for the JV	Apply loose-tight governance Create clear protocols for decision making	Specify the services parents will provide, and establish fair transfer-pricing schemes Establish good risk and performance management systems for the JV	Secure commitments from key staff - especially from parent company employees Create a compelling value proposition for JV employees

The literature review revealed that few cases of working across organisational boundaries have been evaluated. In addition where preliminary evaluations have been conducted these have tended to be based upon organisational aspects, rather than on outcomes for users. However, despite these limitations several sources have suggested that some lessons can be learnt from the experience of partnerships to date. The following contributory factors, to the success or failure of joining up, have been identified.

1. Common objectives and compatible cultures

Angus suggests that emphasising common objectives are important to hold joined up approaches together: ***‘In Strengthening Families the phrase ‘better outcomes for children’ has become a sort of mantra for those involved, infiltrating policy, purchase and service provision levels. It provides a common purpose for the disparate groups involved in this strategy, even crossing such traditionally great divides as that between health and welfare services, or between schools and the statutory social services sector’***³⁶

³⁴ Phillips, S. (2006) Community Planning – Legal Issues And Frameworks. Accessed at: <http://www.improvementservice.org.uk/community-planning/news/community-planning-report-on-legal-issues-and-frameworks>

³⁵ Bamford, J., Ernst, D. & Fubini, D.G. (2004) Launching a World-Class Joint Venture. Harvard Business Review. Vol 82, No. 2, p. 91-100.

The importance of developing common objectives is also highlighted in the private sector in setting up joint ventures and partnerships³⁷ and by the Scottish Executive in terms of the importance of fostering shared objectives in joined up working.³⁸

In a similar vein, the importance of compatible cultures is identified. For instance, in relation to single window approaches, success is deemed to be more likely when partners share a citizen-centred culture.³⁹ Failures in joint ventures are often due to the lack of ‘fit’ between the partner organisations, where the barriers are often cultural rather than technological. Huxham argues that this lack of compatibility leads to a loss of control and difficulties in the shared decision-making process.⁴⁰

2. Clarity and accountability

Lack of clear agreement, particularly about the detail of joining-up arrangements, causes considerable practical difficulties. The Auditor General of Canada also notes that establishing clear areas of responsibility is important for ensuring accountability, crucial where public money is involved. The Auditor General identifies 5 principles of effective accountability: ‘clear roles and responsibilities; clear performance expectations; a balance of expectations with capacities; credible reporting; and reasonable review of performance, with adjustment’.⁴¹ There can be a tension when the multiple goals that two different organisations have conflict but also when being accountable to the parent organisation limits the autonomy of a separate partnership, such as a joint venture. The issue of reviewing performance can be made more problematic if the performance management systems remain aligned to specific sectors and do not cut across the new joint working arrangements. In relation to joined up policy Pollitt identified unclear lines of accountability and difficulty in measuring effectiveness as two of five operational difficulties.⁴²

3. Organisational cooperation and communication

Protection of departmental jurisdiction has been identified as an impediment to growth and development of a number of single window initiatives in particular, such as Service New Brunswick (discussed in the previous section)⁴³ and also in relation to joined up working across departments in the Scottish Executive.⁴⁴ More broadly, it has been noted that ‘if organisations do not establish good working relationships, based on mutual support and trust, acknowledging their differences and sharing information openly, then joint working will fail and improvements in public services will not be achieved’.⁴⁵ In a joint venture case study on ICT services, undertaken by Proctor and Trafford, communication and openness were identified as key areas for a successful partnership.⁴⁶ They particularly highlight the need for mutual understanding and trust, the need for interpersonal connections and issues arising from a misunderstanding of motives. It has also been suggested that there may be less loyalty when having to deal with multiple organisations rather than working solely for one organisation, or government department.⁴⁷

4. Equality

It is suggested that joining-up when the organisations involved have roughly an equal say in the direction of the initiative.

‘Perhaps the major lesson on this point drawn from the cases is that all partners must have a roughly equal say in the direction of the initiative ... otherwise the partnership will fail’⁴⁸

³⁶ Angus, J. (1999) ‘Getting the best outcomes for interdepartmental partnerships: Reflections on experience’, paper presented at a Conference on Stakeholder Management, Partnership and Consultation within the Public Sector, p.8

³⁷ Business Link Joint Ventures and Partnering. Accessed at: <http://www.businesslink.gov.uk/bdotg/action/layer?rl3=1073864682&r.l2=1074446322&r.t=RESOURCES&r.i=1075411631&r.l1=1074404796&r.s=sc&topicId=1073864682>

³⁸ Scottish Executive (2005) Joined Up Working in the Scottish Executive. Accessed at: <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/76169/0019375.pdf>

³⁹ Bent, S., Kernaghan, K. and Marson, B. (1999) op.cit.

⁴⁰ Proctor, T. & Trafford, S. (2006) Successful joint venture partnerships: public-private partnerships. International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol 19, No. 2, p.117-129

⁴¹ Auditor General of Canada Annual Report 2002 (Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services) accessed at <http://www.oag-bvg.gc.ca/domino/reports.nsf/html/20021209ce.html>, Section 9.3

⁴² Pollitt, C. (2003) Joined-up Government: a Survey Political Studies Review: 2003 Vol. 1, p.35. Accessed at: <http://www.inlogov.bham.ac.uk/pdfs/readinglists/Pollitt%20on%20joined%20up%20government%20review%20of%20lit.pdf#search=%22joined%20up%20government%20a%20survey%22>

In developing partnerships between two private sector organisations, an imbalance in levels of expertise, investment or assets is identified as a key factor in issues developing in the partnership.⁴⁹

5. Leadership

As working across organisational boundaries means a range of actors from a range of organisations are involved, good leadership is important to hold the partnership together, and to keep it focused on achieving its objectives. The importance of having a clear direction is highlighted by Proctor and Trafford and achieved through good leadership and effective accountability structures.⁵⁰

6. Technological issues

Technology can be a major problem for integrated service delivery initiatives, where the existence of a range of technological systems may not be easily compatible. For example, Ontario Business Connects needed to overcome technological variations across a number of departments.⁵¹

7. Reviewing the approach

There is a need to measure the progress of the approach to joining-up, evaluate its success, consider alternative models and review its existence on a regular basis.

8. Sufficient and appropriate resources

Without sufficient resources joint working initiatives may not be able to achieve their objectives and will not be sustainable in the longer term.⁵² According to Pollitt, two of the five operational issues, which can be encountered in joining up policy, relate to this issue of resources. These relate to the costs of changing organisational structures so that they can support joined up working and the time and cost involved in managing and staffing adequately to support the joint working agenda. Another financial issue, identified by Downe and Martin⁵⁴ as limiting the success of joined up government, is that funding is still allocated by sector.

9. Political support

The importance of political support appears to be particularly linked to integrated service delivery initiatives and expanding shared services. Bent et al. suggest that in relation to single window approaches, the success of a number of these initiatives, such as Service New Brunswick, has been significantly influenced by the support of political “champions”.⁵⁵ However, they also note that unduly overt political championing can inhibit joining-up.⁵⁶

⁴⁹ Bent, S., Kernaghan, K. and Marson, B. (1999) op.cit.

⁴⁴ Scottish Executive (2005) *Joined Up Working in the Scottish Executive*. Accessed at: <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/76169/0019375.pdf>

⁴⁵ National Audit Office (2001) *Joining up to improve public services* accessed at http://www.nao.org.uk/publications/nao_reports/01-02/0102383.pdf

⁴⁶ Proctor, T. & Trafford, S. (2006) *Successful joint venture partnerships: public-private partnerships*. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol 19, No. 2, p.117-129

⁴⁷ Pollitt, C. (2003) *Joined-up Government: a Survey* *Political Studies Review*: 2003 Vol. 1, p.35. Accessed at: <http://www.inlogov.bham.ac.uk/pdfs/readinglists/Pollitt%20on%20joined%20up%20government%20review%20of%20lit.pdf#search=%22joined%20up%20government%20a%20survey%22>

⁴⁸ Bent, S., Kernaghan, K. and Marson, B. (1999) op.cit.

⁴⁹ *Business Link Joint Ventures and Partnering*. Accessed at: <http://www.businesslink.gov.uk/bdotg/action/layer?r.l3=1073864682&r.l2=1074446322&r.t=RESOURCES&r.i=1075411631&r.l1=1074404796&r.s=sc&t.opicId=1073864682>

⁵⁰ Proctor, T. & Trafford, S. (2006) *Successful joint venture partnerships: public-private partnerships*. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol 19, No. 2, p.117-129

⁵¹ Bent, S., Kernaghan, K. and Marson, B. (1999) op.cit.

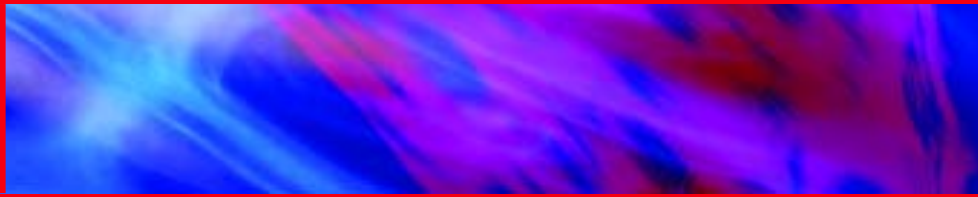
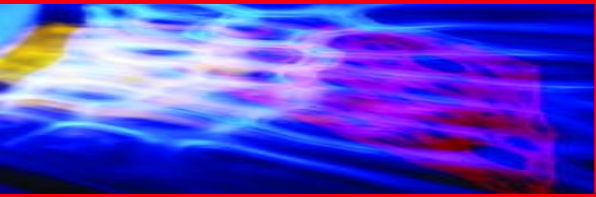
⁵² National Audit Office (2001) op.cit

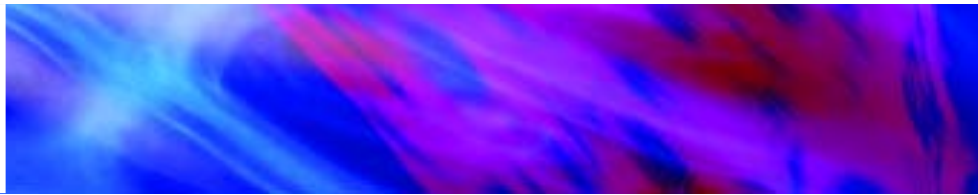
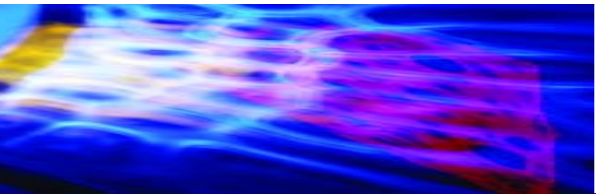
⁵³ Pollitt, C. (2003) *Joined-up Government: a Survey* *Political Studies Review*: 2003 Vol. 1, p.35. Accessed at: <http://www.inlogov.bham.ac.uk/pdfs/readinglists/Pollitt%20on%20joined%20up%20government%20review%20of%20lit.pdf#search=%22joined%20up%20government%20a%20survey%22>

⁵⁴ Downe, J. & Martin, S. (2006) *Joined Up Policy in Practice? The Coherence and Impacts of the Local Government Modernisation Agenda* *IN Local Government Studies*, Vol 32, No. 4, p. 465-488

⁵⁵ Bent, S., Kernaghan, K. and Marson, B. (1999) op.cit.

⁵⁶ *ibid.*





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