
Collaborative Value Creation: A Review of Partnering Between Nonprofits and Businesses: Part I. Value Creation Spectrum and Collaboration Stages

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Abstract

This focused review of the nonprofitbusiness collaboration and related corporate social responsibility literature identifies problematic aspects of the treatment of value creation and, therefore, develops a conceptual and analytical framework to address them and the following research question: How can collaboration between nonprofits and businesses most effectively cocreate significant economic, social, and environmental value for society, organizations, and individuals? The first two components of the Collaborative Value Creation framework are presented in this first of two articles The Value Creation Spectrum provides new reference terms for defining and analyzing value creation, and Collaboration Stages reveals how value creation varies across different types of collaborative relationships. The framework's next two components, which are elaborated in the sequential article, are Partnering Processes, which reveals the value creation dynamics in the formation and implementation stages, and Collaboration Outcomes, which examines impact at the micro, meso, and macro levels.

Keywords

collaboration, value creation, nonprofits & businesses

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Purpose and Content

This focused review of the nonprofit–business collaboration literature develops a conceptual and analytical framework that addresses the following research question:

Research Question 1: How can collaboration between nonprofits and businesses most effectively cocreate significant economic, social, and environmental value for society, organizations, and individuals?

More specifically, in this first of two sequential articles we will

- elaborate the Collaborative Value Creation (CVC) framework for analyzing social partnerships between businesses and nonprofits, with particular emphasis on the framework’s value creation spectrum;
- describe how businesses and nonprofits have evolved toward CVC;
- analyze how CVC occurs across different stages and types of collaborative relationships;

In the subsequent article (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012) we will

- examine the nature of value creation processes in collaboration formation and implementation and the resultant outcomes for the societal (macro), organizational (meso), and individual (micro) levels.

In both review articles we will identify knowledge gaps and research needs.

There is a significant literature on economic value creation and capture for businesses dealing with other businesses or even cocreating value with their consumers (Bowman & Ambrosini, 2000; Brouthers, Brouthers, & Wilkerson, 1995; Forsström, 2005; Huxham, 1993, 1996; Lepak, Smith, & Taylor, 2007; O’Cass & Ngo, 2010), nonprofits collaborating with other nonprofits (Cairns, Harris, & Hutchinson, 2010; McLaughlin, 1998), and cross-sector collaborations by business and/or nonprofits with government (Bryson, Crosby, & Middleton Stone, 2006; Cooper, Bryer, & Meek, 2006; Warner & Sullivan, 2004). Although there are commonalities and differences in value creation processes across all types of intra- and inter-sector collaborations that are worthy of analysis (Milne, Iyer, & Gooding-Williams, 1996; Selsky & Parker, 2005), the scope of our inquiry is limited to business–nonprofit dyads; however, there is considerable spillover applicability to other collaboration configurations.

Importance of the Collaboration Phenomenon

The growing magnitude and complexity of socioeconomic problems facing societies throughout the world transcend the capacities of individual organizations and sectors to deal with them adequately. As Visser (2011, p. 5) stated, “Being responsible also

does not mean doing it all ourselves. Responsibility is a form of sharing, a way of recognizing that we're all in this together. 'Sole responsibility' is an oxymoron." Cross-sector partnering, and in particular collaboration between NPOs and businesses, has increased significantly and is viewed by academics and practitioners as an inescapable and powerful vehicle for implementing corporate social responsibility (CSR) and for achieving social and economic missions (Åhlström & Sjöström, 2005; Austin, 2000b; Austin, Reficco et al., 2004; Berger, Cunningham, & Drumwright, 2004; Biermann, Chan, Mert, & Pattberg, 2007; Biermann, Mol, & Glasbergen, 2007; Galaskiewicz & Sinclair Colman, 2006; Googins, Mirvis, & Rochlin, 2007; Kourula & Laasonen, 2010; London & Hart, 2011; Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Porter & Kramer, 2011; Seitanidi, 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005). A global survey of 766 CEOs in 100 countries revealed that "seventy-eight percent believe that companies should engage in industry collaborations and multi-stakeholder partnerships to address development goals" (Lacy, Cooper, Hayward, & Neuberger, 2010, p. 11). The C&E survey (2010) revealed that 87% of NGOs and 96% of businesses consider partnerships with each other important. Most are engaged in 11 to 50 or more partnerships. Collaboration creation will continue to accelerate and likely become the organizational modality of choice in this century.

Our starting premise is that *creating value* is the central justification for cross-sector partnering (Austin, 2010). Closer scrutiny and greater knowledge of the processes for and extent of value creation in general and cocreation more specifically are required for needed theoretical advancement and practitioner guidance.

Analytical Framework: CVC

Although there have been significant advances in our knowledge of cross-sector partnering over the past two decades, our review of the literature identified various overarching problematic aspects of the treatment of value creation. There is a lack of a common language and definitional precision about what value is and about the dynamics of how different underlying collaboration processes contribute differentially to value creation. Different levels, types, and location of value are often under-specified, vague, and unevenly assessed. Key success factors are abundantly offered but often without substantiating specification of the causal linkages for value creation. Furthermore, there is confusion or limited recognition of differences in value creation potential across different types of collaborative relationships. These impede shared understanding and the ability to cocreate value. To address these limitations and to enable the analytics of the cocreation of value to be more specific, systematic, and robust, we offer the CVC framework.

We define collaborative value 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. The CVC framework's first two components, which are treated in this article, are (1) the value creation spectrum, which provides new reference terms for defining and analyzing value creation, and (2) collaboration

stages, which reveal how value creation varies across different types of collaborative relationships. The framework's next two components, which are elaborated in the sequential article, are (3) partnering processes, which reveal the value creation dynamics in the formation and implementation stages, and (4) collaboration outcomes, which examine impact at the micro, meso, and macro levels. These components are interrelated, but each of them provides a different window through which to view the cocreation process.

We will first elaborate the value creation spectrum, which is the conceptual cornerstone of the framework and so is also applied and illustrated in the other three components of the framework. The following section analyzes the converging search for collaborative value by the businesses and nonprofits. Then we present CVC component 2: collaboration stages. We conclude by pointing to research opportunities.

CVC Component 1: Value Creation Spectrum

Within the construct of collaboration, value can be created by the independent actions of one of the partners, which we label as "sole creation," or it can be created by the conjoined actions of the collaborators, which we label as "cocreation." Although there is always some level of interaction within a collaborative arrangement, the degree, form, and consequent value creation can vary greatly across this spectrum. The collaboration literature predominantly and usefully categorizes value as economic, social, and environmental, but their aggregative nature cloaks the multifaceted nature of value. To provide a richer analysis of these multiple dimensions, the value creation spectrum posits four potential *sources of value* and identifies *four types of collaborative value* that reflect different ways in which benefits arise. Our overall hypothesis is that greater value is created at the meso, micro, and macro levels as collaboration moves across the value creation spectrum from sole creation toward cocreation.

We propose that the four *sources of value* in NPO–BUS collaborations are

Resource complementarity: The resource dependency literature stresses that a fundamental basis for collaboration is obtaining access to needed resources different than those one possesses. However, the realization of the potential value of resource complementarity is dependent on achieving *organizational fit*. The multitude of sector differences between businesses and nonprofits are simultaneously impediments to collaboration and sources of value creation. Organizational compatibility helps overcome barriers and capitalize on the differences. Andrioff and Waddock (2002, p. 42) emphasize mutual dependency, and Finn (1996) stresses collaborative advantage. Thus, we hypothesize

Hypothesis 1: The greater the resource complementarity and organizational compatibility between the partners, the greater the potential for cocreation of value.

Resource nature: The partners can contribute to the collaboration either *generic resources*, that is, those that any company has, for example, money, or any nonprofit,

for example, a positive reputation, or, they can mobilize and leverage more valuable *organization-specific resources*, such as, knowledge, capabilities, infrastructure, and relationships key to the organization's success. Thus, we hypothesize

Hypothesis 2: The more partners mobilize distinctive competencies, the greater the potential for value creation.

Resource directionality and use: Beyond the nature of resources brought to the partnership is how they are deployed. The resource flow can be largely *unilateral* coming primarily from one of the partners or a *bilateral* and *reciprocal* exchange. Parallel but separate inputs or exchanges can each create value, but conjoined intermingling of complementary and distinctive resources that produce new services or activities that neither organization could have created alone or in parallel cocreates new value. Thus, we hypothesize

Hypothesis 3: The more both partners integrate their resources conjointly, the greater the potential for value creation.

Linked interests: Although collaboration motivations are often a mixture of altruism and utilitarianism, self-interest—organizational or individual—is a powerful shaper of behavior. Unlike single-sector partnerships, collaborators in cross-sector alliances may have distinct objective functions and no common currency to assess value. Therefore, it is essential, first, to understand clearly how partners view value; second, to reconcile any divergent value creation frames; and, third, to perceive the value exchange as fair. Thus, we hypothesize

Hypothesis 4: The more collaborators perceive their self-interests as linked to the value they create for each other and for the larger social good, and the greater the perceived fairness in the sharing of that value, the greater the potential for cocreating value.

The combinations of the above value sources produce the following four different *types of value* in varying degrees:

"Associational value" is a derived benefit accruing to another partner simply from having a collaborative relationship with the other organization. Projected credibility is generated. For example, one global survey of public attitudes revealed that more than two thirds of the respondents agreed with the statement, "My respect for a company would go up if it partnered with an NGO to help solve social problems" (GlobeScan, 2003). However, a positive perception is dependent on the type and goodness of organizational fit (Kim, Sung, & Lee, 2011). Bhattacharya et al. (Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2011, p. 49) contend, "The real value of CR (corporate responsibility) transcends any single transaction. Instead CR value stems from the deep, meaningful and enduring relationships."

“Transferred resource value” is the benefit derived by a partner from the receipt of a resource from the other partner. The significance of the value will depend on the nature of the assets transferred and how they are used. Some assets are depreciable, for example, a cash or product donation gets used up, and other assets are durable, for example, a new skill learned from a partner becomes an ongoing improvement in capability. In either case, once the asset is transferred, to remain an attractive ongoing value proposition the partnership needs to repeat the transfer of more or different assets that are perceived as valuable by the receiving partner. In effect, value renewal is essential to collaborative longevity.

“Interaction value” is the intangibles that derive from the processes of partners working together. Cocreating value both requires and produces these intangibles, for example, reputation, trust, relational capital, learning, knowledge, joint problem solving, communication, coordination, transparency, accountability, and conflict resolution.

“Synergistic value” arises from the underlying premise of all collaborations that combining partners’ resources enables them to accomplish more together than they could have separately. Our specific focus is that the collaborative creation of social or environmental value can generate economic value and vice versa, sequentially or simultaneously, thereby creating a virtuous value circle. Innovation is a driver of the synergistic value creation that produces completely new forms of change due to the combination of the collaborators’ distinctive assets, thereby holding the potential for significant organizational and systemic transformation and advancement at the micro, meso, and macro levels.

The value creation spectrum provides us with a more refined set of reference terms and concepts with which to examine how nonprofits and businesses come together to cocreate value, as illuminated below in our examination of the literature that traces how both sectors increasingly moved toward collaborative value.

The Converging Search for Collaborative Value

The search by nonprofits and businesses for greater value creation is fundamentally what has given rise to the proliferation of ever more robust cross-sector partnerships. This convergence, which is an increasing movement toward capitalizing on the growing opportunity of collaboration and a coming together of perceptions of value, reflects the distinct evolution of each sector’s approaches to value creation. Each sector understanding the other’s unfolding conceptions and approaches to value creation and collaboration is essential to cocreating value in the future. Consequently, in this section we examine businesses’ and then nonprofits’ value creation paths and how they have come together.

Businesses’ Evolving Search

The evolution in practice and research of CSR (with additional emerging labels such as *corporate social performance (CSP)*, *corporate citizenship*, *triple bottom line*, and *sustainability*; Bowen, 1953; Carroll, 1999, 2006; De Bakker, Groenewegen, &

Den Hond, 2005; Egri & Ralston, 2008; Elkington, 1997, 2004; Lockett, Moon, & Visser, 2006) had to confront Friedman's (1962, 1970) primacy of profits argument. Friedman saw social actions and their moral justifications by managers as contrary to the primary function of legally generating profits and returns to shareholders. In effect, his premise was that there were no *linked interests*. The intellectual current flowing against this argument of incompatibility of social and business value came from the broadening conceptualization of relevant stakeholders beyond investors to include consumers, employees, communities, governments, and environment, among others (Freeman, 1984; Green & Peloza, 2011; Jensen, 2002; Neville & Menguc, 2006). This approach recognized the existence of *linked interests* and opened the relational door for nonprofits as a type of stakeholder and source of value from communities or civil society and argued that *producing benefits to other stakeholders, produced business value*, such as, better risk management; enhanced reputation, legitimacy, and license to operate; improved employee recruitment, motivation, retention, skill development, and productivity; consumer preference and loyalty; product innovation and market development; and preferential regulatory treatment (Burke & Logsdon, 1996; Googins et al., 2007; Makower, 1994). This is what we have labeled in the CVC's value creation spectrum as *synergistic value* emerging out of *resource complementarity*.

The emergence of the asserted "Business Case" for CSR led to a stream of research aimed at empirically testing whether corporate social performance (CSP) contributed positively or negatively to corporate financial performance (CFP), that is, the link between social/environmental value and economic value (Emerson, 2003; Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Walsh, Weber, & Margolis, 2003). Although this literature over the decades yielded ambiguous and conflicting conclusions, the most recent comprehensive meta-analysis of 52 studies with a sample size of 33,878 observations by Orlitzky et al. (Orlitzky, Schmidt, & Rynes, 2003) found a positive association. Peloza and Papania (2008) usefully explain that the ambiguity in the econometric analyses may be due to companies' differing abilities to engage stakeholders with the most power and legitimacy. Additional explanatory insights could be that the four sources of value, that is, *resource complementarity*, *nature*, and *directionality*, as well as *linked interests*, were undertapped or mismanaged. Regardless of the ongoing empirical debate, recent surveys (Googins et al., 2007, p. 22; KMPG, 2006) revealed that managers and directors perceive value in CSR and are increasingly implementing it. Their motivations are not entirely instrumental but rather mix altruism and utilitarianism (Austin, Reficco et al., 2004; Donaldson & Preston, 1996; Freeman, 1999; Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & de Colle, 2010; Galaskiewicz, 1997; Goodpaster & Matthews, 1982; Martin, 2002). Societies' growing expectations (GlobeScan, 2005) and pressures (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007; Campbell, 2007; Marquis, Glynn, & Davis, 2007) that business should assume a more significant responsibility for solving social problems have created what Paine (2003, p. ix) sees as a "new standard of corporate performance—one that encompasses both moral and financial dimensions." The argument in the above is that values—personal and corporate—not only have intrinsic and social worth but are also a source of economic value for the company (Peloza, 2009; Peloza & Shang, 2010).

In this movement toward a merged social and economic value construct Porter and Kramer (2011) give emphasis to making this central to corporate purpose, strategy, and operations. They assert, “Not all profit is equal. Profits involving social purpose represent a higher form of capitalism, one that creates a positive cycle of company and community prosperity” (p. 15) by stimulating business and social innovation and restoring credibility in business, in effect, reversing the Friedman dictate of *Thou shalt not!* to *Thou must!* Although this has given rise to concepts such as Porter and Kramer’s “shared value,” there have been relatively few efforts in business practice and research to deepen the analysis in terms of the *location* and *types* of value created. Looking at the macro level of value creation, Barnett (2007, p. 805) stated, “Does CSR improve social welfare?” Oddly enough, this question is seldom asked or answered.” Googins et al. (2007) conceptualized a five-stage model of evolving stakeholder relationships, asserting that “the next big challenge is to co-create value for business and society” (p. 8). Creating *synergistic value* indicates and requires a higher degree of CSR institutionalization.

As it becomes obvious from the above the most recent articulation of business search for value has extended to the production of benefits with and for all stakeholders, in effect accepting the link between the interests of business and society.

Nonprofits’ Evolving Search

The accelerated proliferation of nonprofit organizations in the past two decades increased the competition for resources and the concomitant need to develop new value propositions. Corporate partnering loomed larger in the opportunity set, especially given the business sector’s increasing receptivity toward value creation via collaboration. Nonprofits’ growing engagement with businesses has also been stimulated in part by the emergence of new value creation modalities such as social entrepreneurship as distinct from commercial entrepreneurship (Austin, Stevenson, & Wei-Skillern, 2006) or as hybrid structural forms that mix for- and non-profit activities (Austin, Leonard, Reficco, & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Boschee & McClurg, 2003; Bromberger, 2011; Dees, 1998a, 1998b; Reis, 1999; Thompson, 2008; Waygood & Wehrmeyer, 2003), as well as earlier efforts in social marketing (Kotler & Lee, 2009; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). Although the “blurring of boundaries” (Crane, 2010; Dees & Anderson, 2003; Glasbergen, Biermann, & Mol, 2007) and “convergence” between the sectors (Austin, Gutiérrez, Ogliastrì, & Reficco, 2007; Seitanidi, 2010; Social Enterprise Knowledge Network [SEKN], 2006) foster collaboration, this is not a comfortable move for all nonprofits. Many advocacy nonprofits view themselves as opposing corporations, fighting against practices deemed detrimental to society (Grolin, 1998; Hendry, 2006; Rehbein, Waddock, & Graves, 2004; Waygood & Wehrmeyer, 2003). While this can serve as a healthy social mechanism of checks and balances, many nonprofits traditionally antagonistic toward corporations have increasingly discovered common ground (*linked interests*) and joint benefits through alliances that tap into companies’ *complementary resources* and *distinctive assets*

(Åhlström & Sjöström, 2005; Stafford, Polonsky, & Hartman, 2000; Yaziji & Doh, 2009). Heugens (2003, p. 300) found that even from adversarial relationships with NGOs a company could develop “integrative and communication skills.”

In short, nonprofits have embraced collaboration with business as an important mode for the generation of value required for successfully meeting their missions.

Collaborative Convergence

Businesses and nonprofit organizations can and do create economic and social value on their own; however, cross-sector collaboration is the organizational vehicle of choice for both businesses and nonprofits to create more value together than they could have done separately (Austin, 2000a, 2000b, 2010; Galaskiewicz & Sinclair Colman, 2006; Googins et al., 2007; Googins & Rochlin, 2000; Jackson & Nelson, 2004; Kanter, 1999; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Sagawa & Segal, 2000; Seitanidi, 2010; Selsky & Parker, 2005; Wood & Gray, 1991). Freeman (2010, p.7) asserted, “The idea that one particular group always gets priority is deeply flawed. The very nature of capitalism itself is putting together a deal, or a contract, or a set of relationships among stakeholders so that all can win continuously over a long period of time.” Porter and Kramer (2011) see as critical the “ability to collaborate across profit/nonprofit boundaries” (p. 4). Unilever’s CEO Roger Polman (2010) called for a shift to “collaborative capitalism,” and Halal (2001) urged “viewing stakeholders as partners who create economic and social value through collaborative problem-solving,” thereby moving beyond traditional philanthropy (Zadek, 2001, 2004). “Long term capitalism” (Barton, 2011) enables enduring collaboration.

There are, of course, many barriers to collaboration (Austin, 2000b; Berger et al., 2004). Porter and Kramer (2006, p. 7) contend, “Leaders in both business and civil society have focused too much on the friction between them and not enough on the points of intersection. . . . A temporary gain to one will undermine the long-term prosperity of both.” John Mackey, founder and CEO of Whole Foods Market, pointed to what we have labeled *linked interests*, stating, “I perceived them as our enemies. Now the best way to argue with your opponents is to completely understand their point of view,” adding, “To extend our love and care beyond our narrow self-interest is anti-theoretical to neither our human nature nor our financial success. Rather, it leads to the further fulfilment of both” (Koehn & Miller, 2007). Timberland’s CEO Jeff Swartz (2010, p. 43) emphasized *interaction value*: “You may not agree with their (NPOs) tactics, but they may be asking legitimate questions you should have been asking yourself. And if you can find at least one common goal . . . you’ve also found at least one reason for working *with* each other, not against.” Eccles, Newquist, and Schatz’s (2007) and Argenti’s (2004) advice on managing reputational risk echoed Swartz’s position, in effect, stressing the importance of *associational value*.

The opportunities for cocreation of value due to *resource complementarity* abound. Yaziji (2004) and Drucker (1989) document the valuable *nature of resources* that nonprofits can bring: legitimacy, awareness of social forces, distinct networks, and

specialized technical expertise that can head off trouble for the business, accelerate innovation, spot future demand shifts, shape legislation, and set industry standards. Arya and Salk (2006) point out how nonprofits have not only compelled the adoption of corporate codes of conduct but also help corporations by providing proprietary knowledge (i.e., *specialized intangible assets*) that enables compliance. Conroy (2007) titled this the “Certification Revolution” wherein nonprofits and companies have established standards and external verification systems across a wide array of socially desirable business practices and sectors, resulting in improved economic and social benefits to producers and workers while also giving companies a vehicle for differentiating and enriching their brands due to the social and environmental value they are cocreating. Baur and Schmitz (2012), however, flag the risk of processes that compromise the independence of the nonprofits, which is essential to their credibility as certifiers. Scholars and practitioners in the emerging Base of the Pyramid field have increasingly recognized the critical role that nonprofits’ *specialized capabilities* play in creating new value chains that produce shared value (Hammond, Kramer, Katz, Tran, & Walker, 2007; London & Hart, 2011; Márquez, Reficco, & Berger, 2010; Portocarrero & Delgado, 2010; Prahalad, 2005; Prahalad & Hammond, 2002; Prahalad & Hart, 2002; Rangan, Quelch, Herrero, & Barton, 2007).

For nonprofits, alliances with businesses increase their ability to pursue more effectively their missions by tapping into the four sources of value. NPOs are a “massive economic force” (Salamon, 2007) with expertise (Muthuri, Matten, & Moon, 2009; Stafford & Hartman, 2001) embedded across local communities (Kolk, Van Tulder, & Westdijk, 2006) and global networks on social issues (Crane & Matten, 2007; Heath, 1997; Pearce & Doh, 2005; Salamon & Anheier, 1997) that can cocreate value by providing solutions to social problems (Van Tulder & Kolk, 2007) via social innovations (Austin & Reavis, 2002). A recent survey (Burtch, 2012) in California found that 74% of the nonprofits had corporate partnerships and 88% of the companies partnered with nonprofits; more than half of both had more than five partnerships, indicating the necessity for partnership portfolio management (Austin, 2003; Hoffman, 2005) of the many possible configurations of sources and types of value.

From the foregoing we can see how nonprofits and companies increasingly tapped into the four sources of collaborative value to cocreate different types of value. However, one can glean an additional level of understanding by probing value creation through the lens of the different relationship stages in a partnership, so we now turn to the next component in the CVC framework.

CVC Component 2: Collaboration Stages

Value creation is a dynamic process that changes as the relationship between partners evolves. To describe and analyze the changing nature of the collaborative relationship across the value spectrum, we will use Austin’s (2000a, 2000b) conceptualization of a *collaboration continuum* (CC), given that this work seems to be amply referenced by cross-sector scholars in significant reviews and publications (e.g., Berger et al., 2004; Bowen, Newenham-Kahindi, & Herremans, 2010; Brickson, 2007; Galaskiewicz

& Sinclair Colman, 2006; Glasbergen et al., 2007; Googins et al., 2007; Jamali & Keshishian, 2009; Kourula & Laasonen, 2010; LeBer & Branzei, 2010b, 2010c; Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Rondinelli & London, 2003; Seitanidi, 2010; Seitanidi & Crane, 2009; Seitanidi & Lindgreen, 2010; Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007; Selsky & Parker, 2005, 2010; Wymer & Samu, 2003). We will present this conceptualization, relate it to other scholars' approaches to relationship stages, and then examine the nature of value creation in each stage.

The CC, as originally conceived, has three relationship stages: philanthropic (charitable corporate donor and NPO recipient, largely a *unilateral transfer of resources*), transactional (the partners have *reciprocal exchange* of more valuable resources through specific activities, sponsorships, cause-related marketing (CRM), personnel engagements), and integrative (where missions, strategies, values, personnel, and activities experience organizational integration and cocreation of value). We offer a possible extension of Austin's *collaboration continuum* with the addition of a fourth stage: transformational collaborations. Although there are emerging indications in practice of this stage, it is more a theoretical than an empirically based conceptualization. It builds on but moves beyond the integrative stage as a higher level of convergence. The primary focus in this stage is to cocreate transformative change at the societal level. Figure 1 suggests how the nature of the relationship changes across the four stages in terms of intensity and form of interaction.

	<u>Stage I</u>	<u>Stage II</u>	<u>Stage III</u>	<u>Stage IV</u>
NATURE OF RELATIONSHIP	<i>Philanthropic>Transactional>Integrative>Transformational</i>			
• Level of Engagement	<i>Low←-----→High</i>			
• Importance to Mission	<i>Peripheral ←-----→Central</i>			
• Magnitude of Resources	<i>Small←-----→Big</i>			
• Type of resources	<i>Money←-----→Core Competencies</i>			
• Scope of Activities	<i>Narrow←-----→Broad</i>			
• Interaction Level	<i>Infrequent←-----→Intensive</i>			
• Trust	<i>Modest←-----→Deep</i>			
• Internal change	<i>Minimal←-----→Great</i>			
• Managerial Complexity	<i>Simple←-----→Complex</i>			
• Strategic Value	<i>Minor←-----→Major</i>			
• Co-creation of value	<i>Sole-----→Conjoined</i>			
• Synergistic value	<i>Occasional←-----→Predominant</i>			
• Innovation	<i>Seldom←-----→Frequent</i>			
• External system change	<i>Rare←-----→Common</i>			

Figure 1. The collaboration continuum

Source: Derived from Austin, J. E. (2000b). *The Collaboration Challenge: How Nonprofits and Businesses Succeed Through Strategic Alliances*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass; Austin, J. E. (2000a). Strategic Alliances Between Nonprofits and Businesses. *Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 29(1), 69-97.

The use of a continuum is important conceptually because it recognizes that collaborations are dynamic and that stages are not discrete points; conceptually and in practice a collaborative relationship is multifaceted, and some characteristics may be closer to one reference stage while other traits are closer to another. Nor does a relationship automatically pass from one stage to another; movement, in either direction, is a function of decisions, actions, and inactions of the collaborators. Furthermore, one need not pass through each stage but rather could begin at a different stage, for example, creating a transactional relationship without having had a prior philanthropic relationship. A continuum captures more usefully the dynamic nature and heterogeneity of evolving relationships and the corresponding value creation process.

Several researchers have also found useful the concept of a continuum, although they have depicted the content somewhat differently than used in the CC. Because the literature has no comparative analysis of these various continuum conceptualizations, it is important to provide the following distinctions in order to contribute to definitional and conceptual clarity. Bryson et al. (2006) use a *collaboration continuum* construct, with one end for organizations that only barely relate to each other regarding a social problem (as in the CC's philanthropic stage), and the other end for "organizations that have merged into a new entity to handle problems through merged authority and capabilities," (p. 44) as in the CC's integrative stage. Rondinelli and London's (2003) relationship continuum moves from low-intensity "arm's-length" (similar to the CC's philanthropic stage), to moderate-intensity "interactive collaborations" (similar to the transactional stage), to high-intensity "management alliances" (similar to the integrative stage).

Bowen et al.'s (2010) review of 200 academic and practitioner sources on cross-sector collaboration uses a "continuum of community engagement" with three strategies: transactional, transitional, and transformational. Their "transactional" strategy of "giving back" is close to the CC's the philanthropic stage. Their "transitional" strategy points to increasing collaborative behavior but lacks definitional power as it is seen as a phase of moving from philanthropic activities to a "transformational" phase, which has some of the characteristics of the CCs integrative and transformational stages of joint problem solving, decision making, management, learning, and creating conjoined benefits. They point to difficulties in "distinguishing between 'collaboration and partnership' and truly transformational engagement" (p. 307). Googins et al. (2007) characterize company relationships with stakeholders as moving from unilateral, which corresponds to Austin's philanthropic stage; to mutual influence, which is close to the transactional stage; to partnerships and alliances with integrative characteristics; and then to multiorganization, which is "transforming" and seems to depict a more aspirational stage that achieves significant social change and reinforces our addition of the fourth stage in the CC.

Galaskiewicz and Sinclair Colman's (2006) major review of business–NPO collaboration does not explicitly use a continuum, but the underlying differentiator in its typology is motivation and destination of the benefits generated. Their primary focus

and exhaustive treatment is on the philanthropic relationship. In addition, but with much less elaboration, they pointed to “strategic collaborations” involving event sponsorships and in-kind donations and “commercial collaborations” involving CRM, licensing, and scientific cooperation, both of which correspond to the CC’s transactional stage. They also refer to “political collaboration” that aims at influencing other entities, social or governmental; depending on the precise nature of the relationship in carrying out this purpose, this type could be placed in any of the three stages of the CC but would seem closest to a transactional relationship.

We will now examine value creation in each of the four stages of the CC: philanthropic, transactional, integrative, and transformational.

Philanthropic collaborations. In philanthropic collaborations, the *directionality of the resource flow* is primarily *unilateral*, flowing from the company to the nonprofit. In the United States corporations donated US\$14.1 billion in cash and goods in 2009 (Giving USA Foundation, 2010), with about 31% coming via 2,745 company foundations (Lawrence & Mukai, 2010; Levy, 1999). One survey (Deloitte, 2004) indicated that 92% of Americans think that it is important for companies to make charitable contributions or donate products and/or services to nonprofit organizations in the community. This *transferred resource value* enables the nonprofit to pursue its mission, the completion of which creates social value. Margolis and Walsh (2003, p. 289) depict these donations as the “buy” option for implementing CSR. The nonprofit has the organizational capabilities lacking in the company to address a particular social need and the company has the funds that the nonprofit lacks. The business is the funder and the nonprofit is the doer. This is basic *resource complementarity*, but the *resource nature* is *generic*—cash. It enables the nonprofit to do more of what it already does, but it does not add any more value than what would come from any other cash donor. However, there is *associational value* accruing to both partners.

It has been calculated that 14% of U.S. companies’ reputations is attributable to citizenship efforts (Reputation Institute, 2011). Similarly, nonprofits can gain credibility and enhance their reputations by having been selected as funding recipients by important companies (Galaskiewicz & Wasserman, 1989). Managing reputational risk is important for companies and nonprofits as both risk being tainted by partner’s negative actions and the corresponding bad publicity (Galaskiewicz & Sinclair Colman, 2006). Researchers have documented that companies’ philanthropic activities provide an “insurance policy” mitigating negative events (Godfrey, Merrill, & Hansen, 2009).

Another stakeholder of particular relevance in philanthropic collaborations is employees, with the perceived benefits of attracting, retaining, and motivating them (Boston College Center for Corporate Citizenship & Points of Light Foundation, 2005). Survey and experimental work has revealed that almost three fourths of those surveyed would choose to work for a company with a good philanthropic record, all other things being equal (Deloitte, 2004; Greening & Turban, 2000). CEOs have also pointed to attracting talent as a significant motivation for their corporate philanthropy (Bhattacharya, Sen, & Korschun, 2008; Bishop & Green, 2008). Almost all major

companies have employee volunteerism (Lim, 2010), which if relatively informal can be considered philanthropic collaboration, but in its more developed state migrates from the philanthropic stage toward the transactional stage. Reputational enhancement and increased affinity of employees and other stakeholders are manifestations of *associational value*.

Traditional philanthropic collaboration largely involves sole creation rather than cocreation of value. Each partner provides inputs—the corporation gives funds, and the nonprofit delivers a social service. The degree of interaction is generally quite limited and the functions rather independent. There are benefits at the meso, micro, and macro levels, but they are relatively less robust than at the subsequent stages in the CC. The search for greater value gave rise to a move toward “strategic philanthropy” as part of the CSR evolution. Porter and Kramer (2002) emphasized strengthening social, economic, and political operating environments that greatly determine a company’s ability to compete, in effect, seeking what our CVC framework labels *linked interests* between companies and communities. This is tied to the creation of *synergistic value*, as they contend that “social and economic goals are not inherently conflicting but integrally connected.” Two further value elements in their concept concern the *nature of resources* deployed and *how they are used*. They stress the importance of giving not only money but also leveraging organizations’ *special capabilities* to strengthen each other and their joint efforts, asserting, “Philanthropy can often be the most cost-effective way to improve its competitive context, enabling companies to leverage the efforts and infrastructure of nonprofits and other institutions” (p. 61). These shifts move collaborations further along the value creation spectrum and toward higher stages of engagement on the CC.

Transactional collaborations. The types of collaborations that characterize the transactional stage include highly developed employee volunteer programs, CRM, event and other sponsorships, name and logo licensing agreements, various certification arrangements, and other specific projects with clear objectives, assigned responsibilities, programmed activities, and predetermined timetables. In transactional relationships the *directionality of the resource flow* shifts from unilateral to bilateral. There is an explicit exchange of resources and reciprocal value creation (Googins & Rochlin, 2000). There is higher *resource complementarity*, and the *nature of transferred resources* the partners’ are deploying is often more *specialized assets* with their greater value generating potential (Waddell, 2000). The partners have *linked interests* in that creating value for oneself is dependent on creating it for the other. *Associational value* is more salient, and *organizational compatibility* is more essential to value creation. The value creation tends to be more quantifiable and the benefits to the organizations more direct; however, there is less certainty regarding the realization of improved societal welfare.

Corporate volunteering often evolves into highly structured collaborative projects with nonprofits, with specific objectives, time frames, and expected exchanges of assets, and paid release time (Austin, 2000a; Austin & Elias, 2001; Austin, Leonard,

& Quinn, 2004), even as board members of nonprofits (Austin, 1998; Epstein & McFarlan, 2011; Korngold, 2005). For the company these programs garner *associational value* in the form of community goodwill (Deloitte, 2004), increased employee identification with the company and enhanced job performance (Bartel, 2001; Jones, 2006), and new skill development, that is, *interaction value* (Peterson, 2004; Sagawa & Segal, 2000). A survey of 20 multinational companies cited skill development and corporate affinity as the biggest benefits from their international employee volunteer programs (Development Solutions, 2011). Designing the volunteer experience to enhance meaningfulness increases motivation and satisfaction (Pajo & Lee, 2011). If the volunteers bring specialized skills rather than just their time and manual labor, then the potential *transferred value* added to the nonprofit is greater (Kanter, 1999; Vian, Feeley, Macleod, Richards, & McCoy, 2007). This nonmonetary transaction produces a deeper relationship between the partners, thereby creating greater donor stickiness than would have occurred just from a money donation, and hence, higher *interaction value*. Both sides get access to the other's resources, and incorporating those with their nonshared resources enhances competitive advantage (Liu & Ko, 2011). At the micro and macro levels value is generated in the form of social capital (Haski-leventhal, Meijjs, & Hustinx, 2010).

Selsky and Parker (2010) consider these transactional collaborations as arising from a "Resource Dependency Platform," primarily for self-interest and secondarily for social good. Varadarajan and Menon's (1988) saw revenue enhancement as the "main objective" of CRM. IEG, the leading advisory agency on event sponsorships, estimated that sponsorships in 2010 were US\$17.2 billion in North America and US\$46.3 billion globally, with Europe and Asia Pacific being the other primary areas. Although sponsorship of sporting events is the largest category, social cause sponsorships grew the fastest at 6.7% and arts at 2.7% (IEG, 2011).

Cone's (2004) longitudinal consumer survey revealed that 91% indicated they would have a more positive attitude toward a product or a company when it supports a social cause, and 84% would be likely to switch brands. Social commitment was also relevant to which companies to work for, have in their communities, recommend to others, and invest in. Hoeffler and Keller (2002) assert that CRM campaigns can increase brand awareness, image, credibility, feelings, community, and engagement. Heal's (2008) as well as Marin, Ruiz, and Rubio's (2009) research revealed identification with the company, emotional connection, and buyer brand loyalty increased when associated with a social cause.

Clearly, *associational value* is the central benefit accruing to the company, and the various forms of CRM, sponsorships, and certifications aim to make more salient that association and stimulate sales. However, intermediating variables can affect the realization of the potential *associational value*, such as product type; perceived motivation of campaign; company's CSR record, credibility, and reputation; and size of contribution (Alcañiz, Cáceres, & Pérez, 2010; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Eisingerich, Rubera, Seifert, & Bhardwaj, 2011; Hustvedt & Bernard, 2010; Smith & Langford, 2009;

Strahilevitz, 1999, 2003; Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998). Castaldo, Perrini, Misani, and Tencati (2009) confirmed the importance of trust to consumers' decision making in the purchase of Fair-Trade-labeled products. Certified products can even elicit a willingness to pay a premium price from environmentally conscious consumers (Thompson, Anderson, Hansen, & Kahle, 2010). Although buyer intentions are often not realized, some survey evidence revealed that U.K. consumers actually did switch brands, try a new product, or increase purchases of a product due to its association with a charity's cause (Farquason, 2000). Hiscox and Smyth's (2008) research showed that "Sales rose by 12-26% in a New York department store for items labelled as being made under good labor standards," with demand even rising when prices were increased. American Express and Coca Cola also experienced significant sales increases in CRM programs with nonprofits (Gray & Hall, 1998), but effectiveness depends on the specific implementation methods, for example, frequency of repetition of the CRM claims (Singh, Kristensen, & Villaseñor, 2009).

Because the associational relationship is closer and more visible in these transactional relationships, the risks to the partners' respective brands, that is, the creation of negative value, is also greater (Andreasen, 1996; Haddad & Nanda, 2001; Wymer & Samu, 2003), especially with inappropriate *organizational fit* between the partners (Basil & Herr, 2003; Kim et al., 2011). Berger et al. (2004) stress the importance of aligning missions, resources, management, work force, target market, product, culture, business cycle, evaluation, and cause (Brammer & Pavelin, 2006). Gourville and Rangan's (2004) model shows how appropriate fit allows the partners to generate value beyond the "first-order" direct benefits of enhanced revenues for the company and fees for the nonprofit, to produce "second-order" *associational* benefits, including strengthening relationships with employees, investors, and the larger community, and for the nonprofit greater name recognition and a widening of its donor base. Good fit enables the generation of *synergistic value*, and the better the fit, the greater the value creation.

Beyond these benefits to the partnering organizations, there remains the issue of to what extent these transactional collaborations generate societal benefits. At the macro level, the heightened publicity for the cause may create larger awareness of a problem and steps for remediation (Avon Foundation for Women, 2011). However, some have asserted that these are largely commercial undertakings rather than social purpose alliances (Galskiewicz & Sinclair Colman, 2006; Porter & Kramer, 2006). Seitanidi and Ryan (2007) distinguish between "commercial sponsorship" and "socio-sponsorship" based on predominant purpose. Many CRM undertakings are funded from corporate marketing budgets rather than their philanthropic funds, and their effects on consumer intentions and actions are measured. This recognizes the business case for supporting nonprofits in this manner, and it also creates access for nonprofits to a much larger pool of corporate resources for social causes than just the philanthropy budget. However, there is little parallel effort documented in the literature to measure the presumed resultant societal benefit, although environmental collaborations seem to assess

impact outcomes more often (Rondinelli & London, 2003). As in the philanthropic stage, there exists the assumption that by channeling resources to the nonprofit social value creation will be enabled. To the extent that more resources are generated for the nonprofit via the transactional arrangements than would have occurred from a traditional donation, then the potential for greater value creation exists.

Integrative collaborations. A collaboration that evolves into the integrative stage changes the relationship in many fundamental ways, including the value creation process. *Organizational fit* becomes more synchronous: Partners' missions, values, and strategies find much greater congruency as a result of working together successfully and developing deeper relationships and greater trust (*interaction value*). The discovery of *linked interests* and *synergistic value creation* provides an incentive for collaborating ever more closely to cocreate even more value. The collaboration is seen as integral to strategic success of each organization, but beyond this, greater priority is placed on producing societal betterment. Good collaboration produces better collaboration, creating a virtuous cycle. But arriving at this state requires much effort and careful relational processes on many fronts, including reconciling their different value creation logics (Le Ber & Branzei, 2010a). Achieving this value frame fit can occur progressively as a relationship evolves through the stages or over time within the integrative stage on the CC.

The value creation equation changes in terms of the *nature of resources* and *how they are used*. The partners increasingly use more of their key assets and core competencies, but rather than just using them in an isolated fashion to perform an activity that produces value for the collaboration (as often occurs in transactional collaborations), they combine these key resources. The *directionality of the resource flow* is conjoined. Jeff Swartz, CEO of Timberland and also formerly Chair of the Board of its NPO partner City Year, described their integrative relationship: "Our organization and their organization, while not completely commingled, are much more linked. . . . While we remain separate organizations, when we come together to do things we become one organization" (Austin, 2000b, p. 27). The importance of this intermingling is that it creates an entirely new constellation of productive resources, which in turn holds potential for cocreating greater value for the partners and for society through *synergistic innovative solutions*.

Kanter (1999) cited examples of each partner combining their complementary competencies to create innovative solutions, for example, in Marriott's welfare-to-work programs and IBM's Reinventing Education collaboration with schools. Whereas transactional collaborations tend to be clearly defined and for a specified time period, in the integrative stage continuous innovative cocreation has a different dynamic, requiring "sustained commitment" to deal with the "inherent uncertainty of innovation" (Kanter, 1999, p. 130). Porter and Kramer's (2002) example of The Cisco Networking Academy reveals how the company's collaboration with schools leveraged its expertise to continually broaden and deepen the relationship with new innovations and value renewal.

Rondinelli and London (2003) provide several examples of “highly intensive” collaborations between environmental NPOs and companies in which the partners integrated their respective expertise to cocreate innovative environmental improvements in products and processes and industry-wide practices. There were clearly *linked interests* giving rise to *synergistic value*. Holmes and Moir (2007) suggest that when the collaboration has a narrow scope, then the innovation is likely to be incremental, whereas a more open-ended search would potentially produce more radical and even unexpected results.

In the integrative stage, though benefits to the partners remain a priority, generating societal value takes on greater importance. This emerges from the company’s values when generating social value has become an integral part of its core strategy. A company cannot undertake an integrative collaboration until its CSR has reached an integrative state. For example, as Googins et al. (2007) report, one of IBM’s values is “innovation that matters for the world” with its corollary “collaboration that matters.” The company holds that in its “socio-commercial efforts, the community comes first. Only when the company proves its efforts in society . . . does it . . . leverage marketing or build commercial extensions.” IBM’s CEO Sam Palmisano explained, “It’s who we are; it’s how we do business; it’s part of our values; it’s in the DNA of our culture” (p. 123). The more CSR is institutionalized the more cocreation becomes part of the value creation process; that is, it moves from sole creation to cocreation.

It is in the integrative stage that *interaction value* emerges as a more significant benefit derived from the closer and richer interrelations between partners. Bowen et al. (2010) assert that “value is more likely to be created through engagement which is relational rather than transactional” (p. 311). The *intangible assets* that are produced, for example, trust, learning, knowledge, communication, transparency, conflict management, social capital, social issues sensitivity, have intrinsic value to partnering organizations, individuals, and the larger society but, in addition, are enablers of integrative collaboration and seen by many as essential to cocreation of value.

Integrative collaborations are much more complex and organic than transactional arrangements. They require deployment of more valuable resources and demand more managerial and leadership effort and, therefore, entail a much deeper commitment. The compensation for these greater investments in cocreation is thus greater value for the partners and society.

Transformational collaborations. In this most advanced collaborative stage there is shared learning about social needs and partners’ roles in meeting those needs, which Selsky and Parker (2010) refer to as a “Social Issues Platform” for the collaboration. Partners not only agree on the social issue relevant to both (Le Ber & Branzei, 2010c; Waddock, 1989) but also on their intention to deliver transformation through social innovation bettering the lives of those afflicted. The end beneficiaries take a more active role in the transformation process (Le Ber & Branzei, 2010b). The aim is to create “disruptive social innovations” (Christensen, Baumann, Ruggles, & Sadtler, 2006;

Kanter, 1983). This stage represents collaborative social entrepreneurship that “aims for value in the form of large-scale, transformational benefit that accrues either to a significant segment of society or to society at large” (Martin & Osberg, 2007; also see Nelson & Jenkins, 2006).

Interdependence and collective action is the operational modality, such as the joint creation of an entirely new hybrid organization. For example, Pfizer and Edna McConnell Clark Foundation joined together to create the International Trachoma Institute as a way to most effectively achieve their goal of eliminating trachoma (Barrett, Austin, & McCarthy, 2000). Increasingly, collaborative networks will emerge as system change vehicles (Svendsen & Laberge, 2006; Waddell, 2011). As the social problems being addressed become more urgent or complex, the need to involve other organizations in the solution also increases, giving rise to multiparty, multisector collaborations. The collaboration’s transformative effects would not only be in social, economic, or political systems but also change each organization and its people in profound, structural, and irreversible ways.

Filling the Gaps and Pushing the Frontiers

The CVC framework in this article and its sequel provides a conceptual and analytical vehicle for addressing the research question, “How can collaboration between businesses and NPOs most effectively cocreate significant economic, social, and environmental value for society, organizations, and individuals?” It enables a deeper understanding of partnerships as multidimensional and multilevel value creation vehicles. Component 1’s CVC spectrum provides a new and more specific set of reference terms and concepts that enable us to identify the sources and resultant types of value. When these are applied to the CC in Component 2’s relationship stages we gain insights into how different types of relationships hold different potential for the cocreation of value. Figure 2 presents a summary view of how the framework’s key variables (value sources, value types, and collaboration stages) change as partnerships evolve across the CVC spectrum from sole creation to cocreation.

It is clear from the literature review that value creation through collaboration is recognized as a central goal, but it is equally clear that it has not been analyzed by researchers and practitioners to the extent or with the systematic rigor that its importance merits. Although many of the asserted benefits (and costs) of collaboration rest on strong hypotheses, there is a need for additional empirical research—quantitative and qualitative, case study and survey—to produce greater corroborating evidence.

The CVC framework’s value creation spectrum offers a set of variables and hypotheses in terms of sources and types of value that may help focus such research. There is a need for field-based research that documents specific value creation pathways. In all of this the focus is on the factors enhancing cocreation, particularly synergistic value.

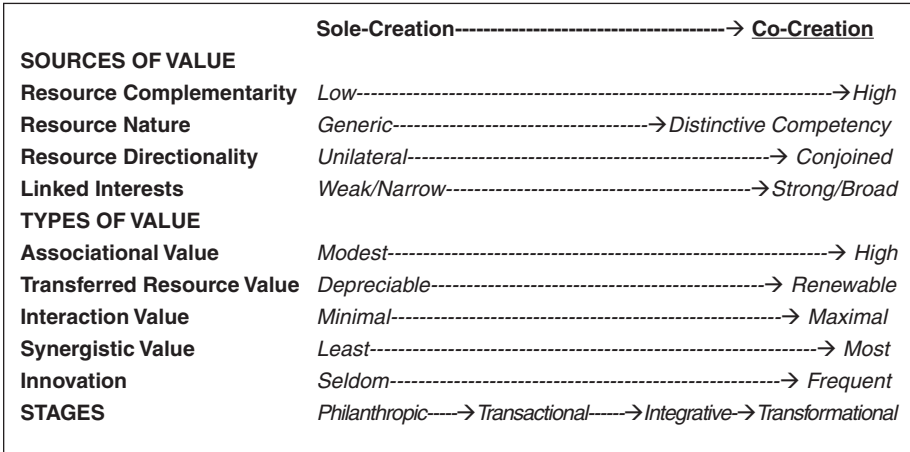


Figure 2. Collaborative value creation spectrum

There is a need to demonstrate how and to what extent social and environmental value creates economic value and vice versa and whether simultaneously or sequentially. Dissecting this virtuous value circle in terms of sources and types of value will shed additional light. In terms of the CC there is a need to deepen our understanding of the enabling factors that permit collaborative relationships to enter into the integrative and transformational stages. Within these higher-level collaborations, one needs to document how the cocreation process operates, renews, and grows. Given that these partnering forms are less common and more complex than earlier stages such as philanthropic and transactional, in-depth case studies are called for, with longitudinal or retrospective analyses required to capture the evolutionary dynamics (Koza & Lewin, 2000). Of particular interest are the innovation processes driving synergistic cocreation, which is a primary focus explored in our subsequent article (Austin & Seitani, 2012).

Figure 3 provides an offering of promising research avenues.

In conclusion, this literature review and new conceptual framework elaborated here and in the sequel article aim to help academics and partnership professionals think about and analyze more systematically their collaborations as internal and external value creation mechanisms. Given that our starting premise for this article was that value creation is the fundamental justification for cross-sector collaboration, our ending aspiration is that the following question be embedded in the minds of every collaboration scholar and practitioner: “How will my research or my action contribute to the cocreation of value to make a better world?”

Collaborative Value Creation Components	Research Avenues
Component I: Value Creation Spectrum	<p>Is resource complementarity dependent on organizational fit? And what are the factors that affect the resource complementarity for maximizing co-creation of value?</p> <p>How do generic and organization specific assets/ competencies contribute to the co-creation of synergistic value?</p> <p>Which distinctive competencies of the organization contribute most to the co-creation of value? And how?</p> <p>How does resource directionality differentially affect value creation?</p> <p>How do different combinations of resources across the partners co-create value?</p> <p>How can partners link their interests with the social good?</p> <p>To what extent does co-creation of synergistic value depend on the degree the interests of the partners are linked with each other and the social good?</p> <p>To what degrees are associational, transferred, interaction and synergistic value produced differently across the collaboration continuum?</p> <p>What is the relationship between the different types of value produced?</p> <p>What is the role of tangible and intangible resources in co-creating social value?</p> <p>How can partners achieve value renewal?</p> <p>How and to what extent does social and environmental value produce economic value and vice versa?</p>
Component II: Relationship Stages	<p>How do the value descriptors associated with the nature of the relationship in the Collaboration Continuum relate to each stage of the continuum in different fields of partnerships?</p> <p>How can the Collaboration Continuum be associated with the evolution of Corporate Social Responsibility in organizations?</p> <p>What sources and types of value are associated with each stage of the Collaboration Continuum?</p> <p>What forms of cross sector social interactions can be grouped under the transformational stage of the Collaboration Continuum?</p> <p>What are the key enablers of moving to each higher level of collaboration in the Continuum?</p>

Figure 3. Research avenues by collaborative value creation (CVC) component

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Bios

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