

1 **Understanding global health and development partnerships: Perspectives**
2 **from African and global health system professionals**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 Partnership is a key idea in current debates about global health and development assistance,
6 yet little is known about what partnership means to those who are responsible for
7 operationalising it or how it is experienced in practice. This is particularly the case in the
8 context of African health systems. This paper explores how health professionals working in
9 global health hubs and the health systems of South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia understand
10 and experience partnership. Drawing on semi-structured interviews with 101 professionals
11 based in each country, Washington DC and Geneva between October 2012 and June 2013,
12 the paper makes four key arguments. First, partnership has a legitimating function in global
13 health policy processes for international development institutions, government agencies and
14 civil society organisations alike. Second, the practice of partnership generates idiosyncratic
15 and complicated relationships that health professionals have to manage and navigate, often
16 informally. Third, partnership is shaped by historical legacies, critical events, and
17 independent consultants. Fourth, despite being an accepted part of global health policy, there
18 is little shared understanding of what good partnership is meant to include or resemble in
19 practice. Knowing more about the specific socio-cultural and political dynamics of
20 partnership in different health system contexts is critical to equip health professionals with
21 the skills to build the informal relations that are critical for effective partnership engagement.

22 Key words: Africa, partnerships, health policy, global health and development assistance,
23 health systems, health professionals

24

25 **Introduction**

26 Partnership is a pervasive idea in policy debates about global health and international
27 development assistance (Youde, 2014; Rushton & Williams, 2011; Buse & Tanaka, 2011). It
28 was central to the Millennium Development Goals (8: Develop a Global Partnership for
29 Development), is core to the Paris Declaration and Accra Agenda for Action (OECD, 2014),
30 and is a stated goal of international funders, development agencies, and national
31 governments. The idea of partnership is also central to debates about the post-2015 global
32 health and development agenda. Not only is partnership an integral component of the
33 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UN, 2015), but there is also recognition that a
34 renewed sense of partnership holds the key to their successful implementation (UNGA,
35 2014).

36 Yet questions remain as to: what does partnership actually mean to those who are
37 responsible for operationalising it as a policy idea within health systems? How is partnership
38 currently experienced? And what might this tell us about the continued use of the idea in
39 global health and development assistance policy? Despite widespread official commitment to
40 partnership, these questions have received limited attention in existing global health and
41 development literature. As a result, partnership continues to remain ‘one of the most over-
42 used and under-scrutinized words in the development lexicon’ (Harrison, 2002:589). While
43 there is a rich and varied literature on partnership within selected western health system
44 contexts, such as the UK (see Hunter and Perkins, 2014), there has been limited direct
45 engagement with the policy of partnership in relation to global health where the context for
46 partnering is quite different (Moran & Stevenson, 2014); not least because of the significance
47 of aid transfers to poorer countries and the associated relationships that can emerge in such
48 settings.

49 Existing global health and development literature has tended to approach partnership
50 in one of two ways: 1) from a *pragmatic-instrumental* perspective, and 2) from a more
51 *critical* position. The first treats partnership as an inherently progressive policy intention,
52 which should be implemented and, moreover, be implementable in practice. Here, partnership
53 is understood to be about realising equality, trust and/or mutuality in health and development
54 relationships and ensuring that recipients of aid in poorer countries, especially national
55 governments, are empowered as agents of their own health systems and wider development
56 (Conway *et al.*, 2006; Brinkerhoff, 2002; Youde, 2014).

57 The need to create more equal and synergistic relationships has been a recurrent issue
58 in the history of global health and development, with persistent charges of ineffectiveness and
59 neo-colonialism directed towards external funding agencies (Baaz, 2005; Abrahamsen, 2004).
60 These criticisms became acute during the 1980s and early 1990s due to conditions attached to
61 aid provided by agencies such as the World Bank, in an attempt to encourage governments of
62 poorer countries to enact structural reforms to health systems and the economy. Such
63 conditionality was widely criticised for being coercive and undermining national ownership
64 of policy processes (Harman, 2010; Loewenson, 1993; Bhutta, 2001). The idea of partnership
65 became increasingly popular in health and development circles as a response to these
66 criticisms. It was not only promoted as a way to return power, influence and leadership to
67 national actors within low income settings – transforming a donor-driven health and
68 development relationship into one of equality – but also as a way of ensuring that complex
69 health and development challenges could be met and resources used effectively (Barnes and
70 Brown, 2011). Pragmatic-instrumental literature tends to take this understanding of
71 partnership as given, and focuses on the extent to which these policy intentions have been, or
72 can in future be, achieved in different health system and development settings. Suggestions
73 for improving performance have tended however to focus on global institutional design or

74 governance of national hosting arrangements (Buse and Tanaka, 2011; Kraak and Story,
75 2010; Buse and Harmer, 2007), with only limited attention to the politics of partnership
76 during implementation (Kapilashrami and McPake, 2013).

77 The second, *critical* perspective sees partnership differently. Here, it tends to be
78 understood as a political slogan, misrepresentation or form of empty rhetoric that conceals
79 other motives and thus largely rebrands ‘old-style’ paternalistic intentions of international
80 health and development agencies (Baaz, 2005; Crawford, 2003; Fowler, 2002; Impey and
81 Overton, 2014). According to this perspective, international partners remain in a position of
82 disproportionate control within partnership, at least in part because they have found it hard
83 (or never intended) to create more equal, nationally-led health and development relationships
84 (Baaz, 2005; Impey and Overton, 2014).

85 Reports of health funding conditionality, issues of coordination within health systems,
86 and country level challenges associated with pendulum swings in global health (Schrecker,
87 2014; Williamson, 2008; Hill et. al., 2011) suggest it would be easy to dismiss partnership in
88 this way. Such reports infer that there remains little local room for manoeuvre, and thus that
89 partnership has not been translated into real health and development practices. As several
90 researchers have shown however, local practices are often more contested, complicated and
91 ‘dirtier’ (Kapilashrami and McPake, 2013; Mosse, 2005; Harrison, 2010) than both the
92 *pragmatic-instrumental* and *critical* literature has suggested. These researchers highlight
93 how policy processes increasingly operate from global to local scales (i.e. within and between
94 global health hubs and national health systems) and involve a range of partners – in
95 government, funding agencies and civil society. These groups have diverse agendas and
96 interpenetrated relationships, and interpret, appropriate and encounter policies differently
97 (Gould, 2005; Harman, 2010; Kapilashrami and McPake, 2013; Mallarangeng and Van Tuijl,
98 2004; Mosse, 2005; Sridhar and Craig, 2011).

99 As such, ‘partnerships’ are likely to be translated and experienced in different ways
100 by professionals whose responsibility it is to operationalise the policy from global through to
101 national levels. There has been limited space for the views of these professionals in current
102 global health and development literature on the topic (Sridhar and Craig, 2011), and
103 particularly in the context of African health systems. Thus, we know little about how key
104 actors understand partnership within African health systems; whether those who are located
105 at different levels of governance see partnership as a relation of equality or (as suggested
106 above) as empty rhetoric; or how partnerships work from their perspective in practice
107 (Aveling and Martin, 2013). This is a significant gap given the pervasiveness of partnership
108 on global health and development assistance agendas and the immense scope and scale of the
109 challenges that remain within health systems (Sridhar and Craig, 2011). The implementation
110 of future global policies relating to partnership will inevitably be shaped by understandings
111 and past experiences (Mosse, 2005). It is therefore important that such perspectives are
112 brought forward in order to inform ongoing policy debates about partnership, and to provide
113 relevant information for professionals who work in partnership settings.

114 The aim of this paper is to address this gap by reporting findings from in-depth
115 interviews conducted with professionals working within the global health hubs of
116 Washington DC and Geneva, and within the health systems of South Africa, Zambia and
117 Tanzania. By drawing on both global and national perspectives, the paper seeks to present a
118 multi-sited and systemic understanding of partnership, which not only takes account of the
119 ‘big picture’ of global health and international development (e.g. wider political and
120 economic factors, institutional structures), but also the relational complexities of everyday
121 practice (Sridhar and Craig 2011; Aveling and Martin, 2013). The paper outlines the research
122 process and moves on to discuss professional perspectives on the meaning of partnership and
123 how it has been operationalised in practice. The paper shows that partnership has a

124 legitimating function within global health policy processes, yet there is little common
125 understanding of how good partnership is practiced or experienced. Partnership is critically
126 shaped by historical legacies, focusing events, and independent consultants in South Africa,
127 Tanzania and Zambia, and generates idiosyncratic relationships that health professionals need
128 the skills to manage and navigate, often informally.

129

130 **Methods**

131 The findings reported here come from a wider project looking at global health assistance and
132 diplomacy. One aspect of the work involved an exploration of the idea and practice of
133 partnership. A qualitative methodology was employed involving multiple methods. A
134 detailed policy and literature analysis was conducted in order to: identify formal processes,
135 events and institutions associated with health policy and partnership working in South Africa,
136 Zambia and Tanzania; and identify key actors involved in policy conception and delivery
137 within the global health hubs of Washington DC and Geneva and each African country
138 (Barnes et. al., 2015).

139 Washington DC and Geneva were selected as research locations given that prominent
140 global health institutions are located there, thus affording the opportunity to speak to key
141 global level professionals. South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia were selected to provide
142 comparative insights. In terms of comparison, all have stated commitment to partnership at
143 country-level and have similar national structures for partnership working (see discussion
144 below). In terms of difference, the gross domestic product and national reliance on external
145 funding for health was significantly different, thus offering the potential to understand how
146 wider economic conditions shape partnership experiences.

147 Having conducted the initial policy and literature analysis, schematic maps were
148 produced of the formal spaces that exist for partnership within health policy at different

149 levels. These informed field research subsequently undertaken at global and national levels:
150 facilitating the purposeful identification of key informants for interview and meetings to
151 observe. Potential informants not engaged in formal partnership processes were also
152 identified (e.g. civil society organisations (CSOs), academics) in order to construct a
153 balanced understanding of partnership.

154 In total, 101 professionals participated in semi-structured interviews between October
155 2012 and June 2013 in each country and in Washington DC and Geneva. Interviews were
156 conducted with 21 professionals based in the headquarters of the World Bank, Global Fund to
157 Fight AIDS Tuberculosis and Malaria (Global Fund), WHO, UNAIDS, USAID and Inter-
158 American Development Bank in one-on-one or group settings. At national level, 80 semi-
159 structured interviews were conducted in South Africa (n=24), Tanzania (n=32) and Zambia
160 (n=24) with professionals working in: government health and finance ministries, UN
161 agencies, World Bank, other funding agencies, CSOs and processes associated with the
162 Global Fund (e.g. Country Coordinating Mechanisms (CCMs) and principal recipient
163 programmes). Professionals working in the East Central and Southern Africa Health
164 Community (ECSA HC) and Southern African Development Community (SADC) were also
165 interviewed. In Tanzania, the Annual Health Sector Review (October 2012), Fifth P4P
166 Advisory Committee (October 2012) and Joint Annual HIV/AIDS Technical Review
167 (November 2012) were observed.

168 Qualitative data was analysed iteratively *via* thematic analysis: sorting, labelling,
169 summarising using pre-agreed themes (e.g. meaning of partnership, challenges, strategies)
170 whilst also allowing for the identification of emergent ones, detecting patterns and
171 subsequently developing a detailed understanding of partnership. Exemplary quotations have
172 been selected to illustrate themes emerging from the data in the sections below.

173

174 **Results and Discussion**

175 **Professional perspectives on the meaning of partnership**

176 Of the 101 global health and development professionals interviewed, all were familiar with
177 and comfortable in using the term partnership. This, to some extent, reflects the pervasiveness
178 of the idea in global policy debates, and demonstrates that it has been broadly accepted into
179 the cognitive architecture of global and national health policy actors (Green, 2007; Mosse,
180 2005). However, interviews revealed that there were clear differences of opinion as to what
181 partnership means in relation to health and development. The discussion below summarises
182 the main ways in which partnership was understood and how different understandings are
183 significant because they manifest in competing views about which, and how, different
184 stakeholders should be involved in health governance.

185

186 *Competing understandings*

187 A number of professionals across the case study locations discussed partnership in terms of
188 equal collaboration, mutuality, and comparative advantage: as being about bringing together
189 stakeholders who have differing skills, backgrounds or knowledge to meet a common
190 challenge or achieve common goals (e.g. delivery of quality health services or efficient
191 resource use). Here, a synergistic relationship was envisioned between partners, in which
192 collaboration would bring more than each partner could achieve on their own:

193

194 The partnership, that means we have to work together, to support each other,
195 collaborate in doing things to make things more quality together. (16TZOct2012).

196

197 I think key, for me, is partnership is also looking at what strengths each other have.
198 Also, it helps in terms of using the resources effectively... if you go into partnership
199 you find synergies there. (11ZMJun2013).

200
201 In many respects, this perspective reflected the *pragmatic-instrumental* approach to
202 partnership highlighted above. As such, those who expressed this view indicated that there
203 should be scope for different actors to be involved within the health system (a ‘multi-sectoral’
204 approach): not only government and international agencies, but also other country-level
205 stakeholders across civil society and the private sector, with roles and responsibilities to be
206 determined by relative skills and knowledge (Brinkerhoff, 2002; Conway *et al.*, 2006). As
207 one UN official in Zambia suggested:

208
209 Partnership is sitting, I see a round table not a table with someone at the head... where
210 everybody is given a chance to say what they know best, no matter who they are... at
211 the end you are all able to speak towards what needs to be done... (13ZMJun2013).

212
213 In contrast, some professionals working in CSOs in Zambia and Tanzania indicated
214 partnership was about more overtly political and participatory ideals: voice, advocacy and
215 securing broad engagement in health systems processes. Here, partnering was understood as
216 being about challenging the way health policy was developed and, moreover, about
217 challenging the perceived dominance of health and other government ministries. There was
218 also a tendency to discuss partners in terms of power and influence. As one Zambian CSO
219 professional indicated, ‘I think there is power in coming together’ (19ZMJun2013).

220 In Washington DC, and for World Bank professionals in particular, partnership also
221 seemed to be understood in an explicitly political way. Partnership was discussed as being

222 about health system governance and, moreover, about governance improvement and reform.
223 World Bank professionals emphasised the important role of ‘civil society’, noting that CSO
224 partnerships for health and development had been ‘Jim Wolfensohn’s legacy’ at the Bank
225 (9WSSep2012). As one official emphasised: ‘There is an understanding on our part that this is
226 the way we do business’ (5WSSep2012).

227 Finally, and in contrast to the perspectives set out above, other professionals working
228 in Zambia and South Africa spoke of partnership in a much narrower, contractual way: as
229 being about financial exchange and driven by global funding (10ZMDec2012,
230 22ZMNov2012, 24ZMNov2012; 20ZMDec2012; 5SAFeb2013; 1SAMar2013). Partners
231 tended to be discussed in terms of their funding roles – who gives and who receives – often
232 with some mention of differentiation between, for example, multilateral and bilateral funders
233 and the different ways in which government or CSOs could receive funding (e.g. trust funds,
234 sub-granting, budget support). For these professionals, partnership resonated more closely
235 with ‘old-styles’ of aid funding (see above): in which health and development processes are
236 shaped and driven by donor-recipient aid relations (Crawford, 2003).

237 The above discussion clearly demonstrates that professionals who are responsible for
238 operationalising partnership ‘buy-in’ to the idea, yet have different and, indeed, competing
239 understandings of what it means. To some extent, this is unsurprising given the lack of
240 conceptual clarity surrounding the term (Barnes and Brown, 2011). Instead, the meaning is
241 ‘worked out’ by professionals as partnerships are operationalised (Mosse, 2005).
242 Significantly, and as the discussion below demonstrates, key actors must also ‘work out’ and
243 promulgate their own roles within partnership, so as to legitimise their involvement in health
244 at global and/or local levels. As we will see, such legitimisation is important because it
245 allows individuals and organisations to access funding and/or enhance their status, thus

246 allowing them to continue operating in what is an increasingly competitive global health and
247 development industry.

248

249 *'Working out' roles in a competitive and changing global health context*

250 A number of professionals working in CSOs across South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia were
251 keen to emphasise that their organisation was 'different' to others. Their organisation's
252 unique history of engagement in health, accumulated experience, or broad networked
253 structure were all highlighted as important in terms of either gaining access or being of
254 ongoing value to local health partnerships. Presenting themselves as 'different' seemed
255 important because it allowed professionals to stake a legitimate claim in partnership
256 processes. Being seen as a legitimate partner is important for CSOs in Tanzania, South Africa
257 and Zambia because of the material benefits that partnership can bring, both for individuals
258 and organisations. Being a partner to Global Fund CCMs can, for example, facilitate access
259 to global funding. Similarly, being seen as, and subsequently participating as, a legitimate
260 partner in a range of other partnership spaces (e.g. sector-wide reviews, consultations,
261 workshops) also helps secure access to funding, given the informal links that can be made
262 with senior (often influential) officials from international agencies or government bodies, or
263 through the per diems that may be attached to these meetings (Barnes et al. 2015). Per diems,
264 in particular, are often an important form of salary support for CSO workers (and also
265 government officials) contributing to household budgeting and financial planning (Vian et al.,
266 2012), and can thus bring real material benefits to health professionals and their families. At
267 the same time, given the competitive funding environment that exists for CSOs in South
268 Africa, Zambia and Tanzania, being accepted as a legitimate partner has an important effect
269 on organisational sustainability. As one Zambian CSO professional put it: 'Getting money is
270 life or death for organisations' (22ZMNov2012).

271 A number of professionals working in international agencies also indicated the
272 importance of ‘working out’ and promulgating their organisation’s role in global and local
273 partnerships. UN officials based in South Africa, Zambia and Tanzania indicated that their
274 agencies had a unique role in health, given that they focused on relationship-building and not
275 money. UNAIDS, for example, was identified as being ‘different’ for brokering relationships
276 between government, global institutions and other country-level partners, and for providing
277 technical skills where needed:

278

279 I think part of UNAIDS’ role is we invest a lot of time in building contacts... I
280 certainly invest a lot of my time in meeting people informally and just chatting about
281 things (14ZMDec2012)

282

283 World Bank professionals in Washington DC also emphasised that the Bank’s role
284 was about more than money and emphasised this had become a necessity given recent shifts
285 in the global aid architecture and type of support that African states (in particular) were
286 looking for. Bank officials explained, for example, that while ‘the Canadians... have a huge
287 focus on maternal and child health’ and ‘the Americans have a lot of stake in malaria and
288 HIV/AIDS’, the Bank offered a broader ‘package’ of technical and financial support
289 (11WSSep2012, 8WSSep2012): bringing key partners (particularly CSOs) around the table in
290 dialogue, convening analysis and promoting evidence use. For the Bank, ‘working out’ these
291 partnership roles was critical given apparent concern about a decline in the Bank’s ‘health
292 standing’ (9WSSep2012). This has, at least in part, been a function of the increased supply of
293 other global health funding in recent years, which means Bank support has become less
294 attractive (Harman, 2015). African states, in particular, have also increasingly sought support
295 for income-generating infrastructure projects (such as rail or power), rather than health

296 systems funding because they provide opportunities to recoup financing to pay off
297 development loans. In consequence, there was not only a need for the Bank to reemphasise its
298 role as a global health partner, but to also re-stake its claim as a 'Knowledge Bank' for health
299 systems:

300

301 ...the need for direct Bank financing may actually decline however it does not
302 necessarily mean the need for Bank partnership in other ways as a co-convenor of
303 high impact fora, an institution that can ask some questions and help bring
304 experiences from elsewhere to the table, that does not necessarily have to decline...
305 (1WSSep2012).

306

307 Significantly, this repositioning of the Bank's global partnership role was seen as a
308 challenge because of the way in which the Bank's legitimacy as a partner is judged.
309 Academics, health professionals, governments and other agencies expect the Bank to
310 contribute to health systems strengthening (e.g. Hill et al., 2013) and Bank staff suggested
311 that the Bank's total financial contribution was often assessed, as opposed to its role in
312 providing technical support (i.e. knowledge) for health systems:

313

314 ...the trouble is the outside world doesn't measure the composition of our technical
315 assistance as closely as the composition of our financial assistance, so they see these
316 things such as the health clinic, the health programme... it's a side show
317 (8WSSep2012).

318

319 These insights reveal the complexity and political messiness of partnership. This
320 complexity stems, at least in part, from the fact that there is no shared meaning for

321 partnership and, relatedly, from the fact that there are competing views about which and how
322 different stakeholders should be involved in health governance. Partnership clearly has a
323 legitimating function for many actors, which is seldom discussed in existing literature or
324 policy debate on the topic. This is a critical omission because the legitimisation process is
325 politically mobilising: it ties the interests of different actors together (Mosse, 2005) precisely
326 because they all derive their legitimacy, at global and/or national levels from partnership
327 policy. In other words, the identities and status of different actors are tied up with partnership.
328 While this facilitates collaboration between professionals who have competing views about
329 health governance, there is a constant risk of conflict (Lewis and Mosse, 2006); particularly
330 in instances where noted differences in views about health governance threaten the legitimacy
331 of particular actors to engage in partnership.

332 At a broader level, although the instrumentalist intent of partnership may be to
333 promote collaboration or understanding, in practice many government and civil society actors
334 in aid-recipient states, to a greater or lesser extent, feel pressure to engage in the ‘right kind’
335 of partnership so as to ensure they are seen as reliable and legitimate partners. Engaging as
336 the ‘right kind’ of partner (i.e. amenable to donor and development partners) is a key way of
337 maintaining access to decision-making about where funding goes, and/or their position as aid
338 recipients. This is in many ways an extension of the ‘post-conditionality’ practices identified
339 by Harrison (2004), whereby African states present reformist measures as a means to attract
340 continued development aid.

341 Understanding more about these legitimating functions of partnership is important if
342 we are to improve how partnerships are conceived and implemented in the future. Indeed, this
343 is particularly important because, as the next section demonstrates, the dissonance in views
344 about health governance (noted above) clearly manifest in the way that partnerships for
345 health are experienced, resulting in: 1) a series of challenges for those who are responsible for

346 operationalising the idea; and 2) particular strategies that different actors seek to pursue in the
347 course of partnership working.

348

349 **Professional perspectives about how partnership works**

350

351 *Commitment and positive progress*

352 Most of the professionals interviewed indicated that there was some level of commitment,
353 openness and willingness on the part of those they regularly interacted with, at either global
354 or national level, to work in a collaborative partnership. Many examples of progress to
355 broaden participation in partnerships for health were highlighted. In particular, improvements
356 in the nature of the interaction between different groups within South Africa, Zambia and
357 Tanzania were highlighted, alongside efforts to achieve more balanced forms of
358 communication. It was reported, for example, that the dynamic between government bodies
359 and agencies such as the World Bank, USAID and DfID had generally improved in recent
360 years, with the former now more able to shape the content of the health agenda without being
361 overtly steered by outside agencies (who had their own preferences). One step forward here
362 was the formalisation of principles such as ‘country ownership’ in global policy statements,
363 which provided a common reference point for regulating the actions of aid donors:

364

365 ...the scenario has definitely changed from a donor-driven agenda to a country-driven
366 agenda... the reason is that I think at the global level the policies that have been
367 developed have deliberately gone that way... when it is written black and white like
368 that they have to adhere to what they have said... (2ZMNov2012)

369

370 The existence of institutional frameworks for partnership, which had had time to
371 ‘mature’, as one UN official in Zambia put it (11ZMJun2013), was also widely agreed to
372 have been a step forward. Technical working groups, annual reviews, subcommittees and
373 formal networks all exist within the three case study countries. These report and feedback to
374 each other and provide formal spaces for government ministers, civil servants, CSOs,
375 development partners, and the private sector to engage. These spaces have all, to some extent,
376 been set up in response to global statements about partnership relations and (at least in
377 principle) are intended to work in a coordinated way with other country-level partnerships,
378 such as Global Fund CCMs (Sridhar and Craig, 2011; Barnes et al., 2015; Sundewall, 2009).

379 Professionals in each country highlighted the importance of time in building long-
380 term confidence, trust and productive dialogue in not only these formal institutional spaces,
381 but also in informal interactions. Indeed, confidence and trust were widely reported as being
382 critical for creating an environment in which such dialogue could occur. A point emphasised
383 in wider studies within health systems (Farmer, 2011). Also reported as important, and a
384 positive development in South Africa in particular, was strong leadership in supporting the
385 process of trust-building, forging informal links and brokering relations where these were
386 previously strained. Changes to leadership of the South African CCM (SANAC) from 2012
387 were, for example, reported to have improved communication, resulting in greater efforts to
388 listen to experts, CSOs, international organizations and provinces. Leaders within the South
389 African government were also reportedly more willing to engage those previously ‘outside of
390 the inner circle of friends and trusted organizations’ (9SAFeb2013, 10SAMar2013).

391 The findings set out above suggest that a common, practical basis for health
392 partnerships exists in South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia, and thus that there are existing
393 institutional foundations for partnership to work in the SDG era. There was certainly a
394 general consensus that partnership is an appropriate policy norm and that there have been

395 steps to make partnership a reality. The pragmatic-instrumental literature described above
396 emphasises the importance of the institutional foundations for partnership (e.g. Buse and
397 Harmer, 2007) and the findings presented here validate this point. Indeed, of particular
398 significance for current debates about partnership and the SDGs is the recognition that global
399 statements, whilst somewhat divorced from ‘the day-to-day’, have potential to shape the
400 framework for relationship-building, and have positively influenced the ability of African
401 actors to exert control within interactions. This suggests that the incorporation of partnership
402 as goal 17 in the SDGs, and in future SDG statements, might be an important way to continue
403 support for country-level control within health systems (UN, 2015).

404 This is not enough however, given the critical importance of informal relationships
405 within health partnerships. This is particularly pertinent when thinking about how specific
406 actors enter into partnership agreements. Formal participation structures dictate that
407 government agencies and key donors will participate. However who gets to participate from
408 CSOs is based much more on informal links derived, for example, from revolving door
409 employment, umbrella groups, and familial and friendship networks. Moreover, leadership
410 was highlighted as being key at country-level; not just in formal partnership spaces but in
411 supporting informal trust-building via brokering relations between partners, in and through
412 interactions which are relatively ‘hidden’ from view (Lewis and Mosse, 2006; Farmer, 2011;
413 Harman and Rushton, 2013). While the topic of leadership within health systems is under-
414 researched, recent studies have highlighted the multi-polar networks and complex
415 ‘organizational ecology’ within which leaders are embedded, which support such informal
416 brokerage processes (Chigudu et al., 2014).

417

418 *‘Normal’ challenges yet differing agency and control*

419 Importantly, while the above-mentioned positive steps forward in partnership were
420 highlighted, a range of challenges were also discussed. To some extent, these were
421 understood as ‘normal’ given that it was recognised that all working relationships brought
422 issues that needed to be overcome. As a UN official in Tanzania commented: ‘With any
423 partnerships there’s always some challenges right?’ (12TZOct2012). The challenges discussed
424 however, reveal important insights about the agency and level of control that African actors
425 can exert, which, as discussed below, are constrained by factors including: the historical
426 legacy of past interaction, critical events, the way consultants engage in partnership
427 processes, and a lack of clear systems for mutual accountability.

428 As indicated above, professionals across South Africa, Zambia and Tanzania all indicated
429 that confidence and trust were critical in supporting productive dialogue between partners.
430 However, in all countries, these were seen to ‘ebb and flow’ as a result of factors including
431 changes in external funder priorities and national political leadership. In Zambia, the Patriotic
432 Front coming in to power in 2011 brought considerable change to ministerial structures and
433 in the appointment of senior personnel, which a number of professionals (outside
434 government) indicated had stifled dialogue. Critical events, such as the discovery of the
435 misappropriation of funds by Ministry of Health staff in 2009 (‘the troubles’) were also
436 reported to have fractured trust between partners. The situation was similar in Tanzania, with
437 corruption, European political change, and the global financial crisis all reshaping the context
438 for collaboration (28TZOct2012). These wider political developments, both nationally and
439 globally, clearly had an important structuring effect on everyday partnership (Sridhar and
440 Craig, 2011); shaping both the material basis for partnership (i.e. reduction in aid transfers)
441 and complicating the relational basis too (i.e. fracturing trust).

442 Significantly, professionals working across South Africa, Zambia and Tanzania all
443 raised concerns about the way consultants (international accountants, private companies,

444 national research teams) were engaged in partnership processes. While consultants were
445 never directly referred to as ‘partners’, there was concern about their level of influence given
446 that they were often intimately involved in developing partnership documentation, strategic
447 policy documents, and/or assessing the extent to which partnership indicators or targets had
448 been met. Preparation of the National AIDS Strategic Framework in Tanzania had, for
449 example, been ‘outsourced’ to consultants and consultants were contracted in all three
450 countries to prepare national submissions to the Global Fund and appraise progress. This type
451 of outsourcing is increasingly common across African health systems (and indeed occurs in
452 policy processes outside health) (Sridhar and Craig, 2011; Gould, 2005). The concern here
453 was that consultants often end up doing so much work that they are extremely instrumental in
454 final policy decisions (see also Sridhar and Craig, 2011). Although the work of consultants
455 can capture elements of partnership when exercised in concert with government and other
456 stakeholders, it risks becoming a way for local partners to abdicate responsibility, or for
457 consultants to promote particular preferences (such as those of the external agencies they are
458 often funded by) where there is weak internal organisation.

459 Professionals were especially critical of the actions of some partners and, in
460 particular, those of the Global Fund. Across all countries, the Global Fund was widely
461 regarded as a ‘challenging’ partner, given the organisation’s inflexible, bureaucratic and
462 constantly changing processes for accessing and managing funding. These issues were
463 generally seen as being restrictive, creating internal pressure to change existing
464 governance systems to meet demands (sometimes reasonably or unreasonably) and as a
465 threat to local coordination. These issues are not unique to South Africa, Tanzania and
466 Zambia, with similar problems reported in, for example, Cambodia (Aveling and Martin,
467 2013) and India (Kapilashrami and McPake, 2013).

468 There was some reluctance to raise these issues directly with the Fund in Tanzania
469 and Zambia for fear of jeopardising financial flows. In contrast, critical views were
470 particularly strong in South Africa wherein the Fund was commonly referred to as a
471 'failing' partner by private sector, UN and government officials alike. One government
472 official went so far as to suggest the Fund was engaged in 'economic colonization'
473 (6SAFeb2013). These critical views were, in part, an expression of local frustration about
474 the particular way in which Global Fund CCMs have been a tool for political and health
475 brinkmanship in South Africa (wherein provinces like Western Cape could outscore
476 national performance on health thus making their claims for national autonomy more
477 salient) (Barnes et al. 2015). They also signify however, a greater ability of South African
478 professionals to 'push-back' against Global Fund partnership requirements than those in
479 Zambia and Tanzania, who felt unable to hold the Fund to account:

480

481 ... since we are the ones that want the money, they always have the upper hand...
482 most of the time because we are the recipient NGO, we end up saying okay, fine, I
483 agree with all of the above and you sign (18TZOct 2012).

484

485 In terms of explaining this, South Africa is less economically dependent on external
486 financing than both Tanzania and Zambia, and this, at least in part, seems to affect the
487 freedom afforded to professionals working in the South African health system to express
488 their views and thus exert control within partnerships (Barnes et. al., 2015). In other
489 words, the extent of economic dependency affords them greater 'negotiating capital' and
490 political leverage in decision-making (Gould, 2005; Whitfield, 2010).

491 Significantly, underpinning accountability problems is the uncertain legality and
492 consequences of what happens when one partner does not meet expectations. Partnership

493 relations are often formalised in local forms (e.g. Memorandums of Understandings
494 (MoUs), donor-recipient financial agreements), which are intended as institutional
495 mechanisms for partners to hold each other to account (Sundewall, 2009). There are,
496 however, problems with the way in which these mutual accountability mechanisms are
497 developed and adjudicated in practice. Not only do partnership MoUs have limited legal
498 standing (and are therefore of limited value when disagreements occur, as was the case
499 with the Zambian ‘troubles’ of 2009), but there is also confusion as to which law
500 arbitration clauses in financial agreements pertain. Interviewees were either uncertain
501 about this or assumed that contracts fell under South African/Tanzanian/Zambian law. The
502 reality, however, is that this depends on the country and funder:

503

504 ...arbitration clauses start by saying that if there is a difference we will try and
505 amicably resolve... If it fails we will try the arbitration law of the implementing
506 country... And the arbitration act says you appoint an arbitrator who is mutually
507 acceptable to both parties... There are times when the donor has insisted that the
508 applicable law... will be like the US but we have refused... (2ZMNov2012).

509

510 The idea that the default law is not that of the country in which a partnership is
511 implemented suggests a legal asymmetry to partner relations that has not been fully
512 explored in existing research. Moreover, it suggests an asymmetry in which African
513 stakeholders could have limited effective control over funding partners. There are
514 certainly strategic efforts to more robustly hold external agencies to account in each
515 country. The Tanzanian government is, for example, seeking to formally assess donors
516 annually (28TZOct2012). There are questions however, as to how this will play out in
517 practice, and the strategies that might be employed to navigate the accountability process.

518 It will be important to generate more evidence about these accountability issues in order to
519 construct more balanced partnerships in future.

520 A final issue relates to the way in which formal partnership structures operate in
521 practice. While formal spaces for interaction were generally regarded by most African and
522 global health professionals as a step forward in terms of supporting collaborative relations,
523 there was widespread concern these were not working optimally. A range of difficulties
524 were discussed, which not only related to technical issues of management, but also to the
525 micro-politics of interaction.

526 Professionals in Zambia and Tanzania (from CSOs, government and external agencies
527 alike) expressed concern about the volume of ‘cumbersome’ meetings which took up time,
528 indicating that debate tended to be ‘process-orientated... rather than substantive dialogue’
529 (28TZOct2012). This not only resulted in few clear decisions, but also limited informal
530 discussion and wider ‘blue-skies’ thinking about how to address health system issues:

531

532 ... we could spend all day everyday in a committee or meeting... people aggregate the
533 partnership responsibility to that structure. So they think that we don’t need to discuss
534 things over a coffee or a lunch because that has been taken care of... it doesn’t
535 necessarily occur to them that you can do something differently (14ZMDec2012)

536

537 Others, including professionals in South Africa, questioned whether the right technical health
538 groups were represented and expressed frustration about the shifting and sometimes
539 competing orientations of external agencies, which undermined how discussion and decision-
540 making progressed; a view supported by some professionals who were themselves working in
541 external agencies:

542

543 ...there are real fundamental problems with the way development assistance is
544 working here... Policy dialogue with government and donors, they don't spend a lot
545 of time talking to each other... we as donors haven't got our act together, let alone
546 engage with government. (12TZOct2012)

547

548 Crucially, the lack of productive dialogue in formal institutional spaces also partly
549 appears to be a result of active political strategies employed by government health officials,
550 and thus reflects the way these professionals exert their agency within partnership.
551 Government silences within formal meetings, in which donors are left to talk, can, for
552 example, be an attempt to obfuscate decisions and thus evade the control of outside agencies
553 (7TZOct2012). Similarly, it can be a strategic practice for senior officials to send junior staff
554 to meetings, who do not have delegated authority to debate issues, in order to continue
555 government activity 'behind closed doors' away from donor view. While reflective of
556 African agency in partnership relations, these practices can be the source of local frustration,
557 consume time and creative energy (Eyben, 2010), and result in paralysis in moving forward
558 with decisions that require partner input:

559 ... there is some delegating taking place here and you have junior people, that is the
560 general story, not being able to take decisions... its felt a bit offensive on DP
561 (development partner) side. (28TZOct2012).

562 These examples illustrate that government stakeholders are able to exert some level of
563 control over the pace and timing of partnership relations; deploying strategies which seek to
564 deflect the oversight of funding agencies (Bergamaschi, 2009; Gould, 2005, Mosse, 2005).
565 Yet, as the above discussion on the role of consultants and accountability relations illustrates,
566 they do so from an uneven footing and operate within a complex set of everyday partnership

567 practices which we still know relatively little about. Of particular concern is the lack of
568 dialogue and ‘blue skies’ thinking noted above, which is arguably contributing to deliberative
569 closure (Eyben, 2010), in Tanzania and Zambia in particular. This process effectively
570 ‘produces ignorance’ (Mosse, 2005) about health systems issues; closing down opportunities
571 for professionals to learn from, challenge and address them.

572

573 **Conclusion**

574 This paper has explored what partnership means to those responsible for operationalising it as
575 a policy idea within health systems and to understand how partnership is experienced within
576 existing practice. It is clear that partnership as a global policy making framework has
577 emerged as an accepted norm by professionals working in the global health hubs of
578 Washington DC and Geneva, and in the health systems of South Africa, Zambia and
579 Tanzania. The practice of partnership reveals idiosyncratic and political properties that
580 professionals working in global health must regularly manage. Being involved in partnership
581 has an important legitimating function for health policy stakeholders and where this
582 legitimacy is brought into question it risks setting up relations of competition and conflict
583 (Mosse, 2005). Partnership relations are further challenged by the historical legacy of past
584 interaction and critical events, and are skewed by the way local or international consultants
585 are engaged in the process and by a lack of clear systems for mutual accountability (Sridhar
586 and Craig, 2011).

587 Global efforts to institutionalise the principle of partnership have been one means of
588 enhancing the ability of African government officials, in particular, to more fully control
589 health agendas and there is evidence to suggest that practical strategies are being employed
590 within partnership relations in order to consolidate national ownership. Consolidating these
591 within the SDG process will be a further way to balance the uneven global health and

592 development playing field within African health systems. To focus on institutional
593 mechanisms however, is not enough (Kapilashrami and McPake, 2013; Aveling and Martin,
594 2013). The key to better partnership rests with better understanding the more political
595 elements of partnership practices, the way strategies are deployed to appropriate partnership
596 processes and evade control (Whitfield, 2010; Bergamaschi, 2009), and the way closer
597 relationships of trust can be brokered (Lewis and Mosse, 2006; Mosse, 2005). Such
598 knowledge is important because it provides crucial information about the socio-cultural
599 constraints and political dynamics of partnership, upon which health professionals can evolve
600 their own practices and build the informal relations that are critical for effective engagement.
601 Given that leadership and informal brokering are important here, it is crucial that health
602 professionals have skills in these areas. This suggests a need to ensure that professional
603 training covers topics such as politics, negotiation and diplomacy, so that those responsible
604 for operationalising partnership are able to forge and negotiate effective informal
605 relationships.

606 Finally, the global health and development assistance community generally expect
607 policy to be informed by evidence. This appears not to have been applied to policy relating to
608 partnership. This is a critical omission given that partnership continues to direct global health
609 and development policy processes (UN, 2015). The findings here illustrate the importance of
610 generating qualitative evidence about what partnership means in different contextual settings
611 to those who practice it, so as to more fully understand: whether and how partnership can
612 advance and/or delimit other health policy objectives; and appraise what avenues exist to
613 reform both the institutional *and* relational aspects of partnerships in ways that increase
614 prospects of success. One of the values of the idea of partnership is that it is a policy norm
615 that brings disparate groups together around a shared concept. Ongoing perceived failures in

616 the practice of partnership risk delegitimising this norm and could ultimately result in
617 weakened forms of global health cooperation.

618

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