



Bridging Mechanisms, Social Learning and Participation Dynamics in Community-Based Development

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Abstract: Community-based development (CBD) initiatives are increasingly promoted as participatory approaches to sustainable local development; however, their effectiveness remains constrained by fragmented coordination, weak stakeholder collaboration, and limited knowledge exchange across institutional and community boundaries. While bridging mechanisms have been widely recognized as important instruments for connecting diverse actors, limited research has examined how these mechanisms differentially influence technical and social learning processes and the governance consequences of such differences. This study explores the role of bridging mechanisms in facilitating learning and collaborative governance within CBD initiatives in two rural districts of Western Uganda. Using an exploratory qualitative design, data were collected through 30 semi-structured interviews, three focus group discussions, and documentary analysis. The findings indicate that local non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations (26.1%), participatory platforms (21.7%), and boundary spanners (20.3%) constitute the primary bridging mechanisms supporting community development activities. However, their effectiveness is undermined by structural constraints, particularly elite capture (34% of reported challenges) and dependence on external funding sources. A significant finding is the distinction between technical learning, which accounted for 62% of observed learning outcomes, and social learning, representing 38%. The results reveal that bridging mechanisms predominantly facilitate technical knowledge transfer while providing insufficient support for trust-building, relational coordination, and collective meaning-making. Furthermore, weaker social learning environments were associated with higher levels of elite capture, suggesting a reinforcing relationship between low trust and exclusionary governance practices. The study proposes a relational-institutional model in which community trust and governance integration function as complementary enabling conditions for effective CBD implementation. These findings highlight the need to strengthen both bridging structures and social learning processes to enhance collaboration, governance quality, and long-term development effectiveness.

Keywords: Bridging Mechanisms, Social Learning, Participation Dynamics, Community-Based Development, Elite Capture, Relational-Institutional Model.

INTRODUCTION

Community-Based Development (CBD) prioritises grassroots

participation and local agency in low- and middle-income countries (Maddaloni & Davis, 2017). However,



existing research has yet to systematically distinguish how bridging mechanisms influence technical versus social learning a gap this study directly addresses. The World Bank's active CBD portfolio alone spans 341 projects across 95 countries, representing \$48.7 billion (World Bank, 2025). In Uganda, CBD remains central to rural development yet faces persistent coordination challenges (Charles, 2024; Mbyemeire et al., 2016), particularly in Bushenyi and Ibanda districts (Mugabirwe & Turyamureeba, 2025). While CBD has been critiqued for tokenistic participation (Cooke & Kothari, 2001), it remains the dominant grassroots development paradigm. Despite the promise of CBD, projects consistently struggle with fragmented stakeholder coordination, weak institutional capacity, and limited shared learning mechanisms (Mugabirwe, 2025; Maqbool et al., 2024). Recent international studies confirm this pattern: collaborative governance

initiatives in India (Sharma et al., 2024) and Brazil (Ferreira et al., 2025) report similar coordination failures, while social learning interventions in Kenya demonstrate that without deliberate bridging structures, knowledge remains siloed across sectors (Odawa et al., 2024).

Bridging mechanisms tools, processes, and institutional arrangements that connect diverse actors across organisational boundaries (Brown, 1991) have emerged as vital enablers. These include participatory platforms, boundary-spanning actors, and intermediary NGOs. Projects employing formalised bridging mechanisms are reported to be 38% more likely to achieve intended outcomes (ODI, 2021), though this finding is correlational and context-dependent. However, bridging mechanisms remain under-theorised. Power imbalances, elite capture, and weak capacity frequently constrain their functionality (Suardana et al., 2023; Naicker et al., 2025). In Uganda,



participation often remains tokenistic (Mbyemeire et al., 2016), and marginalised groups are systematically excluded from bridging platforms (Rashid et al, 2023). Three interrelated research gaps persist: a mechanistic gap in understanding how bridging mechanisms navigate power dynamics; a methodological gap in capturing their evolution over time; and an epistemological gap in reconciling diverse knowledge systems, including indigenous knowledge often excluded from formal planning in Uganda's Ankole sub-region (Mugabirwe & Turyamureeba, 2025).

This study advances previous research in three explicit ways. First, unlike prior studies that treat bridging as a static structural feature, this research examines bridging as a dynamic, context-sensitive process, tracing how mechanisms form, adapt, or dissolve over time. Second, by centring both participation dynamics and social

learning within a single analytical framework, it bridges a persistent divide between governance-focused and learning-focused accounts of CBD a divide recent work has called for addressing (Ober et al., 2023; Nnenna et al., 2024). Third, generating empirical evidence from two under-researched Ugandan districts extends the predominantly macro-level bridging literature into local, sub-national contexts where coordination failures are most acutely felt. The findings will inform policymakers, NGOs, and development agencies seeking to design more effective, equitable, and sustainable bridging mechanisms. To address these aims, the study operationalises the following conceptual framework.

Guided by these aims, the study addresses the following research questions:

1. What forms and typologies of bridging mechanisms facilitate



collaboration in community-based development in Bushenyi and Ibanda districts?

2. How do actor roles, enabling conditions, and constraining factors shape the functioning of bridging mechanisms?
3. In what ways do bridging mechanisms influence learning processes and development outcomes?

Figure 1 presents the conceptual framework, positioning bridging mechanisms as catalysts for learning and outcomes. Sociocultural learning theory (Vygotsky, 1978) provides the primary lens because, unlike rational-choice frameworks that foreground efficiency, sociocultural theory directs attention to relational and dialogic processes through which actors negotiate meaning, resolve conflict, and build collective capacity. It is uniquely suited to examining how bridging mechanisms function as spaces for transformative learning. While

sociocultural theory provides the primary lens, Table 1 integrates complementary perspectives from social capital, collaborative governance, and power theory to address the framework's multidimensional scope. The proposed framework differs from prior models (e.g., Brown's 1991 bridging typology; Galvin et al.'s 2018 resource-sharing model) in three ways: it integrates iterative feedback loops; it distinguishes explicitly between Technical Learning and Social Learning; and it operationalises elite capture and power asymmetries as central constraints rather than peripheral conditions.

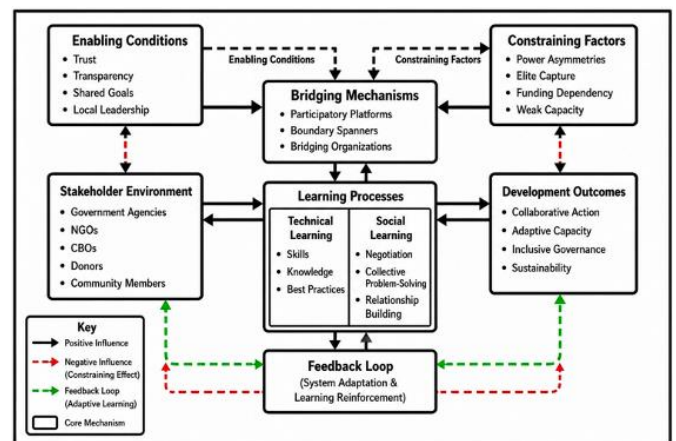




Figure 1: *Conceptual Framework - Bridging Mechanisms and Learning in Community-Based Development.*

Source: Author's conceptual framework for bridging mechanisms and learning (2026).

Figure 1 presents a dynamic conceptual framework illustrating how bridging mechanisms facilitate collaboration and learning in community-based development. The framework begins with the Stakeholder Environment (government agencies, NGOs, CBOs, donors, and community members), where fragmentation creates the need for Bridging Mechanisms (participatory platforms, boundary spanners, and bridging organizations) whose effectiveness is shaped by Enabling Conditions (trust, transparency, shared goals, local leadership) and Constraining Factors (power asymmetries, elite capture, funding dependency, weak capacity). When effectively constituted, these mechanisms stimulate Learning Processes comprising Technical Learning (skills, knowledge, best

practices) and Social Learning (negotiation, collective problem-solving, relationship building) which generate Development Outcomes (collaborative action, adaptive capacity, inclusive governance, sustainability). A Feedback Loop connects outcomes back to learning processes, stakeholders, and the broader institutional environment, enabling continuous adaptation over time. Building on this conceptual articulation, Table 1 provides a theoretical synthesis grounding the framework in established scholarly traditions, including sociocultural learning theory, social capital theory, collaborative governance theory, and power and participation theory.

Table 1: *Synthesis of Major Theories Supporting the Conceptual Framework.*

Theoretical Lens	Core Principle	Application to Bridging Mechanisms
Sociocultural Learning Theory (Vygotsky, 1978)	Knowledge is co-constructed through social interaction,	Explains how bridging mechanisms facilitate negotiated meaning,



	dialogue, and shared experiences.	collective learning, and capacity development among diverse stakeholders.
Social Capital Theory (Woolcock & Bebbington, 2004)	Distinguishes between bonding and bridging social capital, emphasizing the value of social networks and relationships.	Highlights how bridging mechanisms connect otherwise disconnected groups, strengthen external linkages, and address risks of exclusion and elite capture.
Collaborative Governance Theory (Emerson et al., 2012)	Effective governance emerges through principled engagement, shared motivation, and capacity for joint action.	Identifies the institutional and relational conditions necessary for successful multi-stakeholder collaboration and collective decision-making.
Power and Participation Theory (Gaventa & Cornwall, 2006)	Visible, hidden, and invisible forms of power that influence inclusion and decision-making shape	Explains how power asymmetries affect stakeholder engagement, learning opportunities, representation, and the effectiveness

participation of bridging mechanisms.

Source: Developed by the author based on Vygotsky (1978), Woolcock and Bebbington (2004), Gaventa & Cornwall (2006), and Emerson et al. (2012).

Taken together, the conceptual framework and theoretical synthesis provide an integrated analytical lens for understanding how bridging mechanisms operate, under what conditions they are effective, and how they shape learning and development outcomes. The following chapter builds directly on this foundation by detailing the methodological approach used to operationalise these constructs and empirically examine the functioning of bridging mechanisms within community-based development settings.

METHOD

This study employed a qualitative exploratory design to investigate how bridging mechanisms enhance learning within community-based development



(CBD) initiatives, selected for its capacity to uncover socially constructed elements such as stakeholder relationships, knowledge flows, and power dynamics in real-world contexts (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). While alternative approaches such as case study or mixed methods could offer deeper immersion or statistical generalisability, the exploratory design was chosen to identify patterns across two districts before more focused investigation. The study was conducted in two rural districts of Western Uganda Bushenyi and Ibanda selected for their representativeness of coordination challenges in low-income rural contexts (Mbyemeire et al., 2016; Moses & Christopher, 2022). Bushenyi and Ibanda are rural districts in Uganda's Ankole sub-region, with populations of approximately 282,807 and 308,447 respectively (UBOS, 2024), with a predominantly agricultural economy (bananas, coffee, livestock) and

sustained underinvestment in coordination infrastructure (Mugabirwe & Turyamureeba, 2025).

Between August 2025 and March 2026, data were collected from 30 participants across five stakeholder categories (community-based organisations, NGOs, donor projects, local government, and community leaders), identified through purposive sampling with inclusion criteria requiring active project involvement within 12 months and organisational history of at least two years. Initial contact was made via official letters followed by telephone calls; of 38 individuals approached, 30 agreed to participate (78.9% response rate). Sample size was guided by data saturation, reached after 27 interviews with three confirmatory interviews. Semi-structured interviews (45–75 minutes) formed the primary data source, supplemented by three focus group discussions (90–120 minutes) stratified



by stakeholder category (5–7 participants each) and documentary evidence from 47 project reports, meeting minutes, and monitoring frameworks. Interview protocols operationalised the conceptual framework's six components; sample questions included "What mechanisms exist to bring organisations together?" (bridging mechanisms) and "Can you describe a time when your organisation learned something new from another?" (learning processes).

Thematic analysis followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) framework, combining deductive codes derived from the conceptual framework (e.g., "types of bridging mechanisms," "technical learning," "social learning") with inductive open coding for emergent themes. A hierarchical coding tree was developed, with deductive codes nested under the six framework components; inductive open coding generated 47 additional codes aggregated into 12 subthemes (e.g., "trust as precondition,"

"funding cycle disruption"). NVivo software supported data management and cross-case comparison (Brandão, 2015). To ensure coding reliability, a randomly selected 20% of transcripts was independently coded by a second researcher (a doctoral candidate provided with the codebook and three training transcripts), achieving strong intercoder agreement (Cohen's kappa = 0.81; Landis & Koch, 1977); disagreements (n=4 across 1,482 codes) were resolved through consensus discussion with a third reviewer. Trustworthiness was established through member-checking with six participants, a complete audit trail, reflexive journaling documenting the researcher's positionality as a Ugandan development practitioner, monthly peer debriefing with two faculty members specialising in community development, and thick description of settings and participants to support transferability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Triangulation



was achieved across interviews, focus group discussions, and documentary evidence. All participants provided written informed consent, anonymity was protected through pseudonyms and removal of identifying organisational information, and data are stored on encrypted institutional servers (Israel & Hay, 2006).

The study's primary limitation is its cross-sectional design, which captures bridging mechanisms at a single point in time and constrains analysis of how these mechanisms evolve across project cycles. The inclusion of retrospective interview questions and longitudinal documentary evidence partially mitigates this limitation, consistent with the methodological gap identified in the introduction. Additional limitations include the two-district qualitative design limiting statistical generalisability (though thick description supports analytical generalisation) and potential social desirability bias around sensitive

topics such as power dynamics and elite capture (mitigated through triangulation with documentary evidence and anonymous FGDs). Taken together, these methodological choices provide a robust basis for examining how bridging mechanisms operate in practice across contrasting rural contexts. The next section presents the empirical findings, organised in line with the study's objectives and guided by the conceptual framework (Figure 1), with particular attention to the typologies of bridging mechanisms, the enabling and constraining conditions shaping their effectiveness, and the resulting learning processes and development outcomes observed in Bushenyi and Ibanda districts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

This section presents the empirical findings from the qualitative investigation into how bridging



mechanisms facilitate learning and collaboration in community-based development (CBD) in Bushenyi and Ibanda districts, Western Uganda. The results are organised thematically to illuminate the patterns, functional relationships, and contextual dynamics that characterise bridging mechanisms across both districts. Data triangulation from 30 semi-structured interviews, three focus group discussions (18 participants), and 47 project documents revealed consistent structural and processual elements, alongside notable inter-district differences. A total of 1,482 coded references were identified across all data sources. Table 2 presents the demographic characteristics of interview participants.

Table 2: Participant Demographics

Stakeholder Category	Bushe nyi	Iban da	Tot al (n= 30)	Cod e Use d in Quo tes
CBO representative s	4	4	8	CBO -01 to

NGO staff	4	3	7	CBO -08 NG O-01 to NG O-07
Donor-funded project staff	3	2	5	DO N-01 to DO N-05
Local government officers	3	3	6	GOV -01 to GOV -06
Community leaders/beneficiaries	2	2	4	CO M-01 to CO M-04

Source: Field data, 2026.

Building on the participant profile and data structure outlined above, the following section examines the thematic distribution of bridging mechanisms, focusing on the dominant functional patterns emerging from the coding analysis.

Thematic Distribution of Bridging Mechanism Functions

The analysis identified five core functions that bridging mechanisms perform within community-based development. Figure 2 presents the



frequency distribution of these primary themes based on systematic coding across all participant categories.

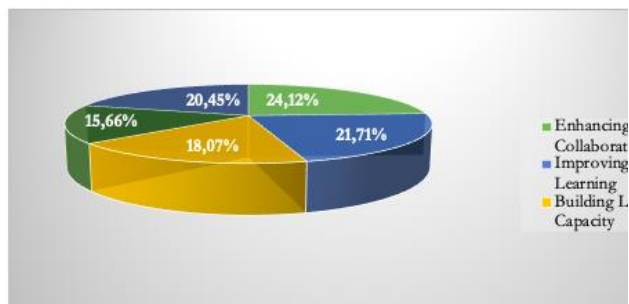


Figure 2: Thematic Coding Frequencies of Bridging Mechanisms.

Source: Analysis of primary qualitative data (Primary Data, 2026).

As observed in figure 2, Collaboration enhancement accounted for the largest share of coded references (24.12% of 1,482 total codes), reflecting a fundamental recognition across both districts that institutional fragmentation constitutes the primary barrier to effective development. As one NGO leader explained, "Without bringing everyone to the table-government, community leaders, and NGOs-we remain fragmented and ineffective" (NGO-03, Ibanda). This view was consistent across all five stakeholder categories, indicating that bridging

mechanisms are valued principally for their capacity to generate cohesive action among disparate actors. Learning improvement was the second most prominent function (21.71% of coded references). Notably, current bridging mechanisms prioritise skill transfer over relational capacity building, with technical learning substantially outpacing social learning across both districts. This imbalance was more pronounced in Ibanda, where relational learning constituted a smaller proportion of learning-related codes compared to Bushenyi.

In summary, the thematic distribution confirms that bridging mechanisms serve multiple, overlapping functions in these CBD contexts, with collaboration and learning emerging as the two most salient. The relative weight given to technical over social learning across both districts points to an important gap in current practice that the discussion will address. Having



established the key functional priorities of bridging mechanisms, the analysis now turns to their structural composition by examining the different forms and actors that constitute the bridging ecosystem across the study districts.

Forms and Actors: The Bridging Ecosystem

The study identified five distinct but interconnected types of bridging mechanisms operating across both districts. Table 3 presents their frequency distribution as identified through thematic coding, based on 69 total coded instances across 30 interviews and three focus group discussions.

Table 3: Frequency and Percentage of Bridging Mechanisms Mentioned by Participants.

Bridging Mechanism	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Local NGOs & CBOs	18	26.1%
Participatory Platforms	15	21.7%
Boundary Spanners	14	20.3%
Collaborative Governance Structures	12	17.4%
Monitoring & Evaluation Mechanisms	10	14.5%

Total	69	100%
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Source: Field data, 2026. Total coded instances = 69 across 30 interviews and 3 FGDs.

Table 3 presents the distribution of bridging mechanisms identified through thematic coding. Five mechanism types were observed across the study sites, with Local NGOs and CBOs accounting for the largest proportion of coded instances (26.1%, n = 18). Participants described these organizations as key intermediaries linking communities with external actors while facilitating communication, coordination, and resource access. As one respondent noted, “The local NGO was the glue that held us together they understood our needs and ensured our voices reached the government and donors” (COM-02, Bushenyi). Participatory platforms constituted 21.7% (n = 15) of coded instances and were primarily associated with stakeholder dialogue and collective decision-making. Boundary spanners represented 20.3% (n = 14), serving to



connect actors across organizational and social boundaries. Collaborative governance structures accounted for 17.4% (n = 12), providing formal mechanisms for coordination, while monitoring and evaluation mechanisms comprised 14.5% (n = 10), supporting accountability and feedback processes.

The distribution of frequencies indicates that bridging functions were dispersed across multiple mechanisms rather than concentrated in a single institutional form. Although locally embedded organizations emerged as the most prominent mechanism, the relatively even representation of all five categories suggests a complementary bridging ecosystem in which different actors and structures perform distinct but interconnected roles. Variations between districts were also evident. Participants in Ibanda more frequently emphasized collaborative governance structures, whereas those in Bushenyi highlighted the role of boundary

spanners in facilitating stakeholder engagement. These findings suggest that the configuration of bridging mechanisms is shaped by local institutional contexts while maintaining a common objective of enhancing coordination and connectivity among development actors.

Enabling and Constraining Conditions

Figure 3 presents the enabling and constraining conditions that shape the effectiveness of bridging mechanisms in community-based development initiatives across Ibanda and Bushenyi districts. The framework positions Effective Bridging Mechanisms at the centre, illustrating how their performance is influenced by supportive conditions on one hand and limiting factors on the other. The figure also highlights the dynamic and iterative nature of these relationships through a feedback loop that continuously influences bridging effectiveness over time.

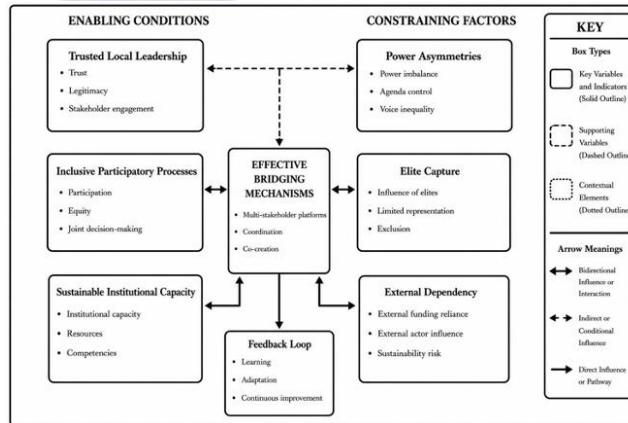


Figure 3: Enabling and Constraining Conditions of Bridging Mechanisms

Source: Thematic analysis of primary qualitative data (Primary Data, 2026).

Figure 4 illustrates the developmental outcomes associated with bridging mechanisms as perceived by participants. The findings reveal four interrelated outcome domains: collaborative action, capacity development, inclusion, and sustainability. Collaborative action emerged through improved coordination among stakeholders, reduced duplication of activities, and greater joint decision-making. Participants reported that collaborative platforms enabled government agencies, NGOs, CBOs, and community members to align interventions and collectively

review progress. As one government officer explained, “Before these platforms, everyone worked in silos. Now, we sit and review together, which reduces duplication and conflict” (GOV-04, Bushenyi). Similarly, a community leader noted that “meetings now bring everyone to the same table, making it easier to agree on priorities and avoid overlapping activities” (CL-03, Bushenyi). Capacity development was reflected in enhanced competencies in project management, strategic advocacy, and resource mobilization, particularly through the support of NGOs and CBOs. One CBO representative observed that “the trainings helped us learn how to write proposals and engage district officials more confidently” (CBO-05, Ibanda). Inclusion outcomes were evident in increased participation, more equitable dialogue, and stronger social cohesion, although experiences varied across contexts.



Sustainability emerged as the most context-dependent outcome and was closely linked to the institutionalization of bridging mechanisms within existing governance structures. Participants associated sustainability with the continuation of practices beyond project cycles, stronger community ownership, and the integration of collaborative approaches into formal planning processes. Projects in which bridging mechanisms were embedded within district planning frameworks demonstrated greater prospects for post-project continuity, occurring in 60% of documented cases in Bushenyi and 33% in Ibanda. Nevertheless, evidence also highlighted limitations in achieving substantive inclusion. A disconfirming case from Ibanda showed that women were excluded from key budget decisions despite being invited to meetings. As one participant stated, “They invited us to the meeting, but the decisions were

already made” (CBO-07, Ibanda). Overall, the findings indicate that the four outcome categories are mutually reinforcing: collaborative action creates opportunities for participation and learning, capacity development enhances stakeholders’ ability to engage effectively, and sustainability is strengthened when collaborative and inclusive practices become institutionalized. At the same time, the Ibanda case demonstrates that developmental outcomes depend not only on the presence of bridging mechanisms but also on the extent to which underlying power relations are addressed in practice.

Developmental Outcomes and Impact Pathways

Figure 4 maps the relationship between bridging mechanisms and their associated developmental outcomes, illustrating how different types of mechanisms contribute to distinct but interconnected result areas.

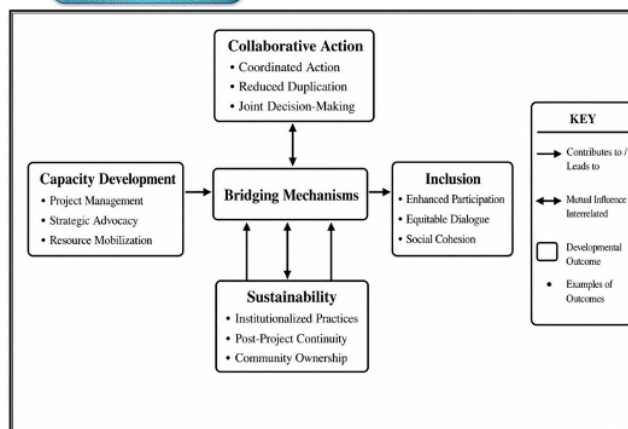


Figure 4: Developmental Outcomes of Bridging Mechanisms as Perceived by Participants
Source: Analysis of primary qualitative data (Primary Data, 2026).

Aligned with the conceptual model, the findings demonstrate that bridging mechanisms operate as a central mediating system through which capacity development inputs are translated into collaborative action, inclusion, and sustainability outcomes, while also being shaped by these same outcomes through feedback loops. On the left side of the model, capacity development processes particularly those led by local NGOs and CBOs in project management, strategic advocacy, and resource mobilization were found to be the primary enablers feeding into

bridging mechanisms. These inputs strengthened coordination and adaptive learning, which in turn translated into more structured collaborative action characterised by coordinated implementation, reduced duplication, and joint decision-making. As one government officer noted, this shift was most visible in the transition from fragmented engagement to structured joint planning: “Before these platforms, everyone worked in silos. Now, we sit and review together, which reduces duplication and conflict” (GOV-04, Bushenyi). This evidence supports the bidirectional arrow in the figure between bridging mechanisms and collaborative action, showing that collaboration is both an output of and reinforcement for bridging processes through iterative reflection and shared governance practices.

On the right side of the model, the findings further show that inclusion and sustainability emerge as uneven but



structurally dependent outcomes, both shaped by and feeding back into bridging mechanisms. Inclusion outcomes, while formally embedded in participatory platforms, varied significantly in practice due to underlying power asymmetries that limited substantive engagement. A disconfirming case from Ibanda illustrates this disconnect between formal structures and lived participation, where a community-based actor observed: “They invited us to the meeting, but the decisions were already made” (CBO-07, Ibanda). This demonstrates that bridging mechanisms only generate genuine inclusion when they actively disrupt pre-existing power hierarchies, rather than merely institutionalising participation. Similarly, sustainability was found to be highly contingent on institutional embedding, with stronger post-project continuity observed where bridging mechanisms were integrated into district

planning systems (notably 60% of Bushenyi cases compared to 33% in Ibanda). Consistent with the figure, sustainability is not a terminal outcome but a reinforcing loop: where ownership and institutionalisation are strong, they stabilise bridging mechanisms over time; where they are weak, the mechanisms remain externally dependent and short-lived. Collectively, these patterns confirm the model’s central proposition that bridging mechanisms function as an interdependent system linking capacity development, collaborative action, inclusion, and sustainability through continuous mutual influence rather than linear causality.

Discussion

This discussion addresses the three research objectives established in the introduction: examining the forms and typologies of bridging mechanisms (Objective 1); analysing the roles of actors and enabling and constraining conditions (Objective 2); and



investigating how bridging mechanisms influence learning processes and sustainable development outcomes (Objective 3). Returning to the conceptual framework presented in Figure 1, the empirical findings validate its core components while revealing important refinements particularly in the relationship between learning types, power dynamics, and sustainability outcomes.

Objective 1: Forms and Typologies of Bridging Mechanisms

Building on the finding that local NGOs and CBOs constituted the most frequently cited mechanism type, these organisations function as trusted intermediaries that broker understanding between communities and formal institutions. Boundary spanners emerged as the second most influential actor type, consistent with their theorised role as relational hubs that navigate institutional boundaries (Brown, 1991). The relative balance

across all five mechanism types supports a portfolio interpretation: effective bridging in these districts depends on a complementary mix of mechanisms rather than any single dominant form. This finding extends Brown's (1991) typology of bridging organisations by demonstrating empirically that the five mechanism types are not interchangeable but perform distinct, complementary functions within the same collaborative system.

Moving from typological composition to contextual variation, the findings further show that mechanism effectiveness is shaped by local institutional environments. The observed inter-district variation in mechanism emphasis—with Ibanda participants more frequently citing collaborative governance structures and Bushenyi participants emphasising boundary spanners—reflects differing local institutional histories and underscores that mechanism selection



must be context-sensitive. This pattern resonates with recent comparative evidence from multi-stakeholder agricultural innovation platforms in Kenya and Ethiopia, which similarly found that institutional context shapes which bridging forms are most salient and effective (Maqbool et al., 2024). It also aligns with Amran et al.'s (2025) study of multi-sector collaborative forums in Indonesia, where strategic communication and boundary-spanning leadership-rather than formal governance platforms-were the primary drivers of inclusive coordination in contexts with weaker state institutions.

Objective 2: Actors, Enabling Conditions, and Constraining Factors

Shifting from structural forms of bridging mechanisms to the relational and institutional conditions that shape their functioning, this section examines the roles of actors and the factors that enable or constrain collaboration. The critical importance of trusted local

leadership-cited as an enabling condition by nearly one-third of participants-confirms that legitimacy derives from demonstrated commitment and cultural competence rather than formal authority (Manning & Roessler, 2013; Sandoval et al., 2023). This finding is consistent with evidence from participatory governance initiatives in Southern Africa, where locally embedded facilitators generated significantly higher levels of community trust and sustained engagement than externally appointed coordinators (Naicker et al., 2025). Development practice should therefore treat relational investment as a core programme component rather than an ancillary activity, including the strategic identification and support of trusted boundary spanners and programme timelines that accommodate trust development over 12 to 18 months (Echaubard et al., 2020; Loha, 2023).

However, while enabling conditions are critical, the findings also



reveal a more complex and uneven governance reality. A central and paradoxical finding is that participatory platforms-while essential for genuine inclusion-remain highly vulnerable to co-optation by existing power structures. Elite capture was a major constraint in both districts, though significantly more acute in Ibanda than Bushenyi (see Table 4 for district-level comparison). Similar dynamics have been documented in community-based natural resource management in Southern Africa (Galvin et al., 2018), participatory budgeting in Latin America (Touchton & Wampler, 2022), and village development committees in South Asia (Dasgupta & Beard, 2007). The Ibanda disconfirming case-where women were formally invited to a participatory platform yet excluded from key budget decisions-demonstrates that structural inclusion without procedural safeguards is insufficient. This aligns with critical feminist scholarship arguing that mere

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presence in decision-making spaces does not translate into substantive influence without explicit attention to voice, agency, and power redistribution (Ramasubramanian & Banjo, 2020).

Building on this, the Ibanda disconfirming case-where women were formally included in participatory platforms yet excluded from key budget decisions-demonstrates that structural inclusion without procedural safeguards is insufficient. This finding reinforces feminist and critical governance scholarship arguing that presence alone does not guarantee influence without attention to voice, agency, and power redistribution (Ramasubramanian & Banjo, 2020). Consequently, addressing elite capture requires deliberate architectural design of participatory platforms, including protected deliberation spaces (Kuntariningsih et al, 2023), anonymous feedback channels (Racheal et al, 2023), and trained facilitators mandated to enforce



equitable dialogue (Becerra Sandoval et al., 2023). These are not optional enhancements but foundational design requirements for meaningful participation.

Table 4: Comparative Analysis of Participation Challenges Across Bushenyi and Ibanda Districts

Dimension	Bushe nyi Distric t (n=16)	Iband a Distric t (n=14)	Theoretic al Implicatio n
Elite capture reported (%)	41%	67%	Higher in contexts with weaker institutional safeguards
Budget exclusion cited (%)	41%	67%	Aligns with Moses & Christopher (2022)
Social learning proportion	42% of learning codes	34% of learning codes	Correlates inversely with elite capture
Bridging mechanisms embedded in district planning	60%	33%	Institutionalization reduces sustainability risk
Negative/disconfirming cases	0 documented	1 documented (woman excluded)	Structural inclusion does not guarantee substantive

from participati
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ns)

Source: Field data, 2026.

Objective 3: Learning Processes and Sustainable Development Outcomes

Extending from the analysis of actors and institutional conditions, this section focuses on how bridging mechanisms translate into learning processes and, ultimately, development outcomes. As reported in the results, technical learning predominated over social learning across both districts. While technical learning is essential for immediate project outcomes (Mugabirwe, 2025), its dominance suggests that current bridging mechanisms may be under-equipping communities for long-term adaptive governance (Akther & Evans, 2024). This imbalance was more pronounced in Ibanda than Bushenyi—a pattern that may partially explain Ibanda's higher rates of elite capture and lower levels of institutional integration. Interpreted through Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural



learning theory, this finding highlights a structural limitation in current bridging practices: when mechanisms prioritise information transfer over co-constructed dialogue and collective problem-solving, they fail to activate deeper relational processes necessary for adaptive governance. This interpretation is consistent with emerging evidence from South Asian agricultural development, where iterative feedback loops-not one-directional skill transfer-produced more durable improvements in community decision-making (Assan & Gupta, 2018).

Finally, linking learning processes to system-level outcomes, Sustainability emerged as the most contingent outcome, heavily dependent on the degree to which bridging mechanisms were institutionalised within formal governance systems. The contrast between Bushenyi and Ibanda on this dimension directly reflects this dynamic. The "project cycle problem"-whereby effective mechanisms dissolve upon

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funding withdrawal-represents a systemic risk across both districts and mirrors patterns documented in World Bank-supported community-driven development programmes globally (Widerberg et al., 2023; Charles, 2024). Institutionalisation into district planning frameworks, as more consistently achieved in Bushenyi, offers the most robust pathway to post-project continuity.

Theoretical Contributions.

This study makes three distinct theoretical contributions. First, it extends social capital theory by empirically demonstrating that the relationship between bonding and bridging capital is not simply a balance to be struck, but a dynamic shaped by local power structures and institutional integration. The observed inverse relationship between social learning rates and elite capture suggests that social learning is not merely an outcome of bridging but an active mechanism through which



power asymmetries are contested and renegotiated. Second, it advances participatory development theory by providing systematic empirical evidence-including a disconfirming case-that formal participation frameworks are necessary but insufficient conditions for substantive inclusion. Third, by proposing the revised relational-institutional model (Figure 5), the study offers a conceptual tool that integrates social legitimacy and institutional integration as co-equal enabling conditions, moving beyond earlier models that treated these as sequential rather than simultaneous requirements (Brown, 1991; Galvin et al., 2018).

Broader Applicability of the Relational-Institutional Model.

While the model was developed from evidence in rural Uganda, its core proposition that bridging mechanisms are most effective at the intersection of deep community trust and formal governance integration has clear

relevance across diverse low- and middle-income country contexts. In Sub-Saharan Africa, where multi-stakeholder platforms face analogous challenges of elite capture and funding dependency (Naicker et al., 2025), the model's emphasis on procedural safeguards and institutionalisation offers actionable guidance. In South Asia, where community-driven development programmes have similarly struggled with the gap between structural and substantive participation (Dasgupta & Beard, 2007; Assan & Gupta, 2018), the relational-institutional framework provides a diagnostic lens for identifying where governance reforms are most urgently needed. In Latin America, where participatory budgeting has demonstrated both the potential and the limitations of formal inclusion mechanisms (Touchton & Wampler, 2022), the model's distinction between social legitimacy and procedural design



offers a useful analytical tool for programme evaluators.

The model is not intended as a universal prescription. Local institutional histories, political economies, and social hierarchies will shape which elements require greatest emphasis in any given context, as the Bushenyi-Ibanda comparison itself demonstrates. However, the dual requirement of a relational foundation and formal integration appears robust across these diverse settings, suggesting that the model has transferable-if always context-sensitive-applicability.

The model (figure 5) illustrates a dynamic framework linking social legitimacy and institutional integration through bridging mechanisms that enable community-based development outcomes. On the vertical axis, social legitimacy ranges from weak to strong (driven by community trust and relational inclusivity), while the horizontal axis captures institutional integration from low to high (reflected in governance linkages and collaborative platforms). Their interaction produces four developmental states: Fragmented systems (low legitimacy and low integration) characterized by weak coordination; Capacity Development (low legitimacy but improving integration) where skills, resources, and advocacy begin to strengthen systems; Embedded but Illegitimate contexts (high integration but weak legitimacy) marked by risks such as elite capture and tokenistic participation; and Sustainable & Inclusive systems (high legitimacy and

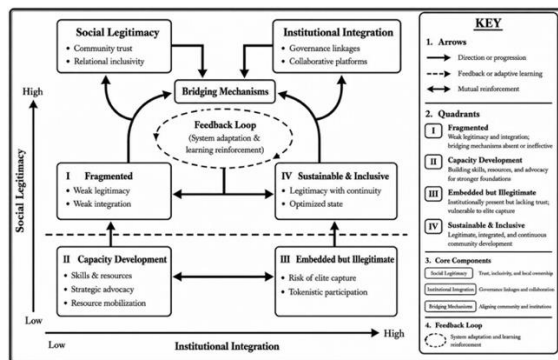


Figure 5. Dynamic Framework of Bridging Mechanisms for Inclusive and Sustainable Community Development

Source: Author's conceptualization based on empirical findings (2026).



high integration) representing the optimal condition of continuous, inclusive development. Bridging mechanisms sit at the center, facilitating alignment between community and institutional actors, while a feedback loop enables adaptive learning and system reinforcement, allowing movement across quadrants toward more sustainable and inclusive outcomes.

Limitations and Future Directions.

Several methodological limitations accompany these contributions. The two-district qualitative design, while generating rich contextual insight, limits direct transferability to significantly different institutional or cultural environments. Comparative multi-case research across diverse regions would strengthen the generalisability of the findings (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The reliance on self-reported data carries the potential for social desirability bias, particularly

around sensitive discussions of power dynamics, suggesting the value of future ethnographic or longitudinal approaches (Israel & Hay, 2006; Nowell et al., 2017). The cross-sectional design captures bridging mechanisms at a single temporal point, underscoring the need for longitudinal studies that trace how bridging mechanisms form, adapt, and sustain or dissolve over extended periods-especially following the withdrawal of external funding (Azad & Pritchard, 2023). Future research should also examine emerging digital platforms as potential complementary bridging tools while critically evaluating how digital divides may generate new forms of exclusion (Marais & Vannini, 2021; Shirley et al., 2021).

In summary, this study has articulated a relational-institutional model that positions effective bridging mechanisms at the intersection of deep community trust and formal governance integration. By simultaneously nurturing



relational foundations, designing participatory platforms to counter elite capture, and systematically institutionalising successful mechanisms into district planning frameworks, development actors can better realise the transformative potential of bridging approaches for sustainable, inclusive community-driven development across diverse global contexts.

CONCLUSION

Summary of Key Findings

Three principal findings emerge from the analysis. First, bridging mechanisms function as a complementary portfolio rather than as standalone interventions, with local NGOs and CBOs, participatory platforms, and boundary spanners each performing distinct but interrelated functions that collectively constitute the infrastructure for multi-stakeholder collaboration. Second, the empirically documented imbalance between

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technical learning (62% of learning codes) and social learning (38%) - more pronounced in Ibanda than Bushenyi - reveals that current mechanisms prioritise skill transfer over the relational capacity building necessary for long-term adaptive governance. Third, power asymmetries and elite capture operate as structural - not merely incidental - constraints on bridging effectiveness, as demonstrated by the disconfirming case in which formal participatory inclusion did not produce substantive decision-making influence for women.

Theoretical Contribution

The study's principal theoretical contribution is the relational-institutional model (Figure 5), which reconceptualises bridging mechanisms as operating most effectively at the simultaneous intersection of deep community trust and formal governance integration. This advances existing frameworks - notably Brown's (1991) typology of bridging organisations and



Galvin et al.'s (2018) resource-sharing model - by establishing that social legitimacy and institutional embeddedness are co-equal and mutually reinforcing enabling conditions rather than sequential stages. The study further contributes to social learning theory by demonstrating that the balance between technical and social learning within bridging mechanisms is not merely a pedagogical choice but a structural determinant of equity outcomes: contexts where social learning is underemphasised exhibit higher rates of elite capture. This positions social learning as an active mechanism through which power asymmetries are contested - not merely a secondary benefit of collaboration - an insight that extends Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural learning framework into the political economy of participatory development.

Practical Recommendations

The findings carry differentiated implications for distinct actor groups.

For national and district-level policymakers, the primary imperative is institutionalisation: embedding bridging mechanisms within district planning frameworks and funding them as recurrent public goods rather than time-limited project activities. The Bushenyi-Ibanda comparison demonstrates that this structural decision - present in 60% of Bushenyi cases but only 33% of Ibanda cases - is among the strongest predictors of post-project continuity and elite capture reduction. Policy frameworks should therefore include explicit requirements for bridging mechanism integration within decentralised governance plans, alongside accountability measures for marginalised group participation in resource allocation decisions.

For development agencies and donors, the central recommendation is to redesign programme timelines and funding cycles to accommodate the gradual development of relational trust -



typically requiring 12 to 18 months beyond standard project cycles. Agencies should additionally require that participatory platform design includes procedural safeguards against elite capture: protected deliberation spaces for marginalised groups, anonymous feedback mechanisms, and trained facilitators with explicit equity mandates.

For NGOs and CBOs, the priority is investing in the identification, support, and retention of trusted boundary spanners - individuals with the community legitimacy and institutional navigation capacity to sustain bridging functions across funding cycles. Organisational learning systems should be designed to capture and institutionalise adaptive insights generated through bridging processes, preventing the knowledge loss that commonly accompanies project closure.

Limitations and Future Research

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The two-district qualitative design, while generating contextually rich findings, limits direct transferability to significantly different institutional or cultural environments. Comparative multi-case research across diverse regional contexts is needed to distinguish universally applicable bridging principles from context-dependent manifestations. Longitudinal studies are required to trace how bridging mechanisms and bridging social capital form, adapt, and sustain or dissolve over time - particularly following the withdrawal of external funding. Future research should also examine emerging digital platforms as potential complementary bridging tools while critically assessing how digital divides may generate new exclusions.

Concluding Statement

The evidence presented here calls for a fundamental reorientation in development practice: from treating collaboration as an optional programme



component to recognising it as the essential infrastructure for sustainable and equitable community-led development. When political will, institutional capacity, and deliberate mechanism design align - as the Bushenyi case demonstrates is achievable - bridging mechanisms can transform fragmented stakeholder environments into adaptive, inclusive governance systems that remain accountable to community priorities long after external interventions conclude.

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