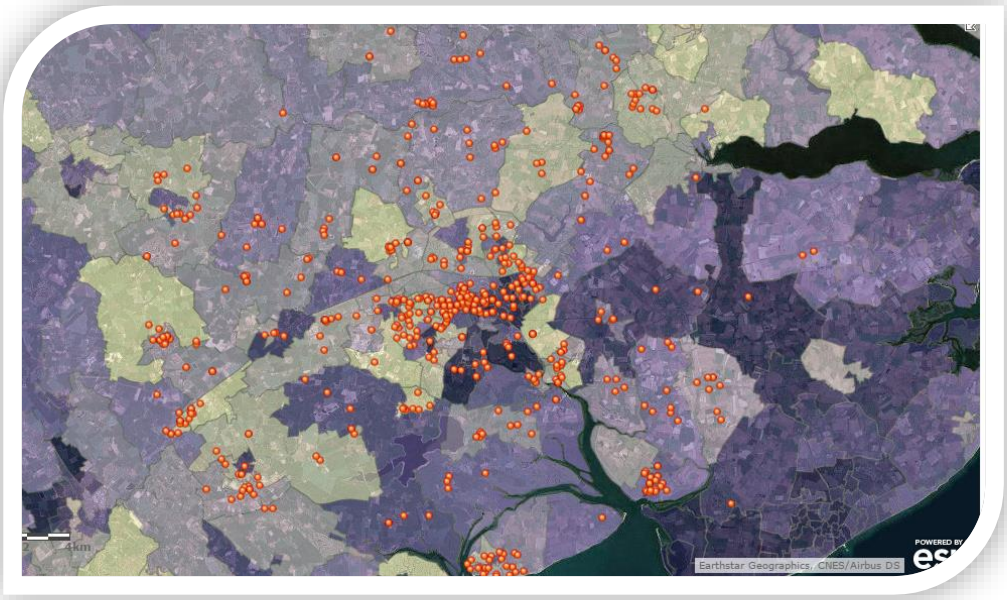
Cartographic Representations of the Third Sector

An exploratory exercise



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Abstract

This research report looks at how advancements in mapping software could benefit the third sector in the United Kingdom by proposing a searchable online map that shows both the organisations in the third sector and the geographical and intra-sectoral areas in which they work. Interview results from a variety of third sector actors are shown and embedded in wider secondary data and contemporary academic discourses. The report discusses how a 'third sector map' could benefit the sector, the areas of the sector that are conducive to being mapped and the current feasibility of producing such a map. Benefits that could occur as a result of a comprehensive mapping exercise include fewer gaps in service provision and providing greater exposure to unregistered groups. However, methodological issues such as the poor availability of data and technological issues such as the inadequate provision of capable mapping software limit the current development of the map. As few studies with such a broad focus have been undertaken in this field, the report suggests future avenues for research.

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Key Words

Third Sector, GIS, Maps, Data, Primary Research, Charities

Glossary of Abbreviations

CSJ – Centre for Social Justice, independent think-tank.

GIS – Geographical Information System

NCVO – National Council for Voluntary Organisations

OCVA – Oxfordshire Community and Voluntary Action, VCS for Oxfordshire

VCS / CVS– Voluntary and Community Service

VGI – Volunteered Geographic Information

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Introduction

From Government reports to key thinkers in the field, it is widely accepted that formulating a definition of the third sector in the United Kingdom is problematic. Termed the 'third' sector after being recognised to contain organisations that fit neither the public or private sectors, organisations within the third sector vary greatly in aim, structure and scope. For the purpose of this report, organisations within the third sector must contain the characteristics that Salamon and Anheier (1996) (in part) propose: (a) they must have some degree of formal structure; (b) they must be operationally and organisationally separate from government or a publicly funded body; (c) they must operate on a non-profit basis, and as James (1990) highlights, they must use excess earnings to further the purposes of the organisation and finally (d) they must also be self-governing. The term third sector is often used interchangeably with civil society and the voluntary sector. Whilst the concepts are inherently different, civil society and the voluntary sector comprise constituent parts of the third sector. In the United Kingdom, the importance of the registered third sector is considerable before taking into account the impact of unregistered groups; groups registered with the Charity Commission as of 30th September 2015[1] total 181,786, with a combined annual spending of £66.16bn, £57.33bn of which is on charitable activities. They employ 947,569 people and work with over 3.2 million volunteers. With the sector taking on an ever-growing share of formerly public sector services (Independence Panel, 2015) yet receiving less state and private funding (NCVO, no date) as initiatives such as Social Impact Bonds (Guardian, 2014) and the Social Investment Tax Reliefs (Financial Times, 2015) propose to take their place, the third sector is experiencing an ever increasing pressure and responsibility as it grows in scale and depth of operation whilst having fewer resources to do so.

As the sector develops, an area worthy of immediate research is highlighted by the Centre for Social Justice (CSJ). In their 2014 'Breakthrough Britain' report titled *Social Solutions – Enabling Grass-Roots Charities to Tackle Poverty*, it is recommended that a pilot exercise is undertaken in creating an online map of the social sector. Whilst the CSJ primarily focus on organisations that deliver welfare based services, this report takes their suggestion and goes further to examine how an online, searchable map of the whole third sector can be produced. The map would feature where the third sector *is* working, alongside socio-economic factors that could indicate where the sector *should* be working. Currently, few exercises with such a broad scope have taken place, making this project and its research focus ground-breaking. This takes place in the midst of a

[1] Charity Commission. Accessed 2015. Available at:http://apps.charitycommission.gov.uk/ShowCharity/RegisterOfCharities/SectorData/SectorOverview.aspx

"geospatial revolution" (Dangermond, 2010), in which platforms such as Google Maps are changing the way we view and interact with the world. Geospatial technologies and interactive mapping are becoming integrated into everyday lives and allow for a more dynamic geographic experience (Goodchild, 2009). If the third sector becomes part of this seismic shift in viewing and experiencing the world, multi-stakeholder benefits can be realised. The shift in mapping technologies combined with a desire for a comprehensive mapping exercise of the third sector means this 'exploratory exercise' begins to fill a gap in research, at an appropriate time.

1. Research Questions

In order for the project to have clear and focussed outcomes, the following research questions were formed:

Q1: "What is the role of maps in promoting the interests of the third sector?"

This first question asks *why* we should map the third sector. This question is best answered by speaking to people that work within the third sector, in order to garner a true perspective of the motives for mapping their work and to ascertain how maps can 'do work' for this sector.

Q2: "What aspects of the third sector are conducive to cartographic representation?"

This second question draws out the areas of the third sector that are able to be physically mapped, and lends itself to question how they can be visually represented. It goes beyond asking *why* we should map the sector, but to ask *which* areas of the sector can be mapped. By bringing the third sector as a whole into focus and analysing its constituent parts, the research is given a firm foundation.

Q3: "How feasible is the creation of a 'third sector map?"

This final question goes beyond hypothetical and theoretical discussion and looks at whether (a) the third sector is 'ready' to be mapped, and (b) whether the mapping technology exists in a usable way to do so. This question rounds off the research into a conclusion of the current state of play, whilst subsequently opening up further areas for research and development.

2. Research Context

2. 1 Technological and paradigmatic shifts in mapping

Cartography as a practice and its surrounding academic study have undergone seismic technological and paradigmatic shifts over the past century. The knowledge and skills of mapmaking were once privileged in the hands of the elite, who used the map as an aid to statecraft (Harley,1988). The map therefore was loaded with "a form of knowledge and a form of power" (Harley, 1988, p. 279). Wood (2010) explores this deeper, and concludes that maps are powerful propositions that can either confirm or deny the existence of something, often elucidating these propositions in new and radical ways. True to this notion is the power maps have gained through the emergence of the internet. Leszczynski (2012) marks this turn as the state having lost hegemony over the "cartographic project" (Leszczynski, 2012, p.73) as the market regime rolls out a neo-liberal answer to the retraction of state power, creating a new 'geoweb'. Within geographical study, 'neogeography' (Haklay et al. 2008) became the buzzword to describe this constructivist shift in research focus. The geoweb and neoliberalisation of map making has created a range of new phenomena in the fields of geospatial technology, counter-mapping, volunteered geographic information and participatory GIS. This development, also titled "Maps 2.0" (Crampton, 2010, p.26), has arguably democratised cartography, as the power to create and disseminate information through maps has spread from the hands of the few to the many (Crampton, 2010). Geospatial technologies are "the range of modern tools contributing to the geographic mapping and analysis of the Earth and human societies" (AAAS, 2015), they include tools such as remote sensing, global positioning systems (GPS) and geographic information systems (GIS). With these technologies embedded within daily lives, mapping has been given a readily accessible interface. GIS in particular has opened up the field of cartography or 'Maps 2.0' to many who can now openly map and share data.

A primary philosophical school of thought that accompanies this shift in power within cartography is a positivist approach, which sees the progression as a dynamic one which enables and powers the indvidual. Scholars such as Mathew Edney (1993) look as far back as the cartographic reformation (1500 B.C.- 1850 B.C.) to try and contradict ideas put across by those such as Brian Harley (2002) who present a linear portrayal of development. Congruent with Latour's (2005) notion of actor-network-theory, Edney (1993) looks at cartography as an ongoing development of an increasingly complex "almagam of cartographic modes, rather than as a monolithic enterprise. Each mode comprises a set of cultural, social and technological relations which determine

cartographic practices" (Edney, 1993, p. 54). Counter-mapping, a term coined by Peluso (1995) is considered to be a key cartographic mode, as a process which places one notion against another via a map, which as a result of technological GIS improvements allows hegemonic forces to be resisted by a variety of actors (Rundstrom, 2009). The production of a 'third sector map' challenges assumptions and contemporary ways of viewing the third sector, it literally proposes a different perspective. It also begins to contest the way we use maps, as it becomes the focal point for partially solving many of the key concerns within the third sector.

Schuurman (2000) reminisces of GIS easing into the 1990's with only the merits of GIS being discussed, until a divide between GIS practitioners and their critics in human geography emerged in the mid 1990's. Positivist approaches came under fire, with writers such as John Pickles (1995) leading the way in highlighting the social inequalities and unevenness that geospatial technologies can represent and reproduce. Led by key thinkers such as Crampton (2010), critical cartography as a sub-discipline still bears great importance and institutional weight to this day. Whilst Pickles (1995) and many other writers discuss the social implications of GIS, Mordechai Haklay (2013) questions whether neogeography and GIS has actually democratised cartography at all. Haklay (2013) proposes that the study of neogeography is too instrumentalist, and doesn't consider issues such as lack of mapping knowledge and inequalities in access to the internet and mapping software. Haklay (2013) argues that as geographers, we need to focus more on the everyday user and not the specialist in order to achieve true democratisation. This is an issue when considering the production of a 'third sector map' which needs to be intelligible for all.

2.2 The third sector in the United Kingdom

The "intermediary organisational universe…located between the private, for-profit world and the government" (Anheier and Seibel, 1990, p. 1) known as the third sector, has been an object of academic study for a relatively short period of time. In the 1970's organisational theories of the non-profit organisations within North America emerged, with most discussion at the time debating them as a response to either market failure or government failure (Anheier and Seibel, 1990). In 1973 the term 'third sector' was applied to these groups by the Filer Commission in the US, in order to draw public and scholarly interest to the subject (Anheier and Seibel, 1990.) As the nature of the third sector continued to be debated, Estelle James (1990) took a comparative approach to theories of non-profit organisations and developed a theory linking a state's religious heterogeneity to the

strength and size of its third sector. A messy picture emerged where it was clear that the size and function of the third sector varied greatly from state to state; this was the case in the late 1980's and continues to be the case today. There are many paradigmatic frameworks with which to study the third sector and its convergence with other sectors (Kramer, 2000), and ultimately some non-profits end up acting like for-profit companies, just as some for-profits end up acting like non-profits in their motives (Bridge et al. 2009). In short, the third sector is not an easy concept to define and study.

For measuring and quantifying the UK's third sector and its work, the best set of data available is produced by the NCVO in their almanac. By taking all organisations registered with the Charity Commission as 'general charities', a reasonably comprehensive view on the sector can be had. The NCVO's 2015 almanac relies on 2012/13 financial data and the Charity Commission's current records to draw conclusions about the sector. Alongside the figures quoted in the introduction of this report, the almanac describes the landscape of the UK's third sector as comprising of mostly small charities that operate locally (78% of charities), but statistically being dominated by larger charities; 73% of assets throughout the sector are dominated by the top 1% of asset owners (1,168 charities) (NCVO, 2015). The sector is still suffering from a reduction in spending by local government, but is diversifying its funding base to try and account for this loss. On average, there is one registered organisation for every 400 people, however the geographical spread of groups is uneven across the UK. The majority of voluntary organisations are based within Southern England, with the South East accounting for almost a fifth of England's voluntary organisations. The majority of charities are based within major urban areas, with London in particular holding 46% of the income received by the sector. Whilst factually correct, many large charities are registered in London yet operate elsewhere, making the figures misleading.

2.3 Linking the third sector and mapping practices

Academic studies around the mapping of the third sector vary greatly in scope and aim. The term mapping is used primarily to describe quantitative assessments of the sector or a section of it. This is in contrast to the use of the term 'mapping' within this report, which is referring to the production of a physical map in a cartographic form. Whilst the term is used differently, it is only the final visual display that sets the definitions apart.

In 2010, David Kane and John Mohan undertook an exercise in "Mapping registered Third Sector Organisations in Yorkshire and the Humber". As part of the Northern Rock Foundation Third Sector

Trends Study, they produced a statistical report of charities in the area, covering information such as their distribution, the size of the groups, where the groups work and the funding and expenditure patterns of the groups. The report contains results from statistical analysis that would be useful to accompany a map of the third sector in this area, however the data is solely displayed as charts and graphs in the report. As part of the longitudinal study, John Mohan and David Kane also worked with Karl Wilding, Julia Branson and Fiona Owles to look "Beyond flat-earth maps of the third sector" (2010) in order to get a better understanding of 'below the radar' organisations. By taking data from a variety of groups and then cross-referencing and de-duplicating them, a fuller picture of all (rather than just registered) third sector groups in North-East England and Cumbria was gained. Questions were raised over which 'radar' to look from, as in many cases groups fall above or below the scope of bodies or institutions when they are being quantitatively analysed.

Never (2011) makes the case for better maps of service provision by using the Holy Cross Dispute in Northern Ireland as a situation where the third sector provided a voice for residents in the divided Belfast community. Again, Never refers to mapping as an exercise in data collection and display, and not explicitly in reference to the production of a map. However, he nonetheless makes the worthwhile suggestion of creating better local systems to identify need in relation to supply in a detailed fashion. Susan Appe (2012) writes a commentary on Never's paper that extends to many similar 'mapping' and data gathering exercises. Her key critique is that Never fails to discuss *who* should undertake the exercise in mapping. Similarly, when looking at the production of physical maps, Wood (2010) draws attention to how data can be skewed depending upon the objectives of the person or groups gathering and presenting the data; a different picture can be presented each time and thus the discussion of *who* is gathering the data must not be omitted.

Some papers present a more focused and specific approach to looking at the third sector. Mohan (2012) and Lindsey (2013) look at variations in the distribution of charitable organisations and the 'charity deserts' and hotspots that can occur (with a hotspot being a high density of charities in one area). Mohan (2012) makes the case that there are great inequalities of provision of service, and whilst few areas in the UK have a complete absence of organisations as the term 'desert' might imply, the differences in service provision varies considerably throughout the UK. In order to increase equity of provision Mohan recommends a better understanding of capacity and resources within the sector. Lindsey (2013) compares two case study areas in the UK, where one is affluent and the other deprived. Her findings conclude that there is a clear distinction between the areas: there are more charities in the affluent area which meet a broad range of community needs,

whereas charities in the deprived area are fewer in number and respond to urgent needs, often related to deprivation. Milligan (2007) also looks at disparities within the third sector, but with regard to voluntary activity. In particular, Milligan looks at how a geographical perspective can add to discussions around disparities within the sector and the implications for people and places. The importance of gaining a geographical perspective is underlined by Mohan (2011) in relation to work carried out by the Third Sector Research Centre.

Susan Appe (2015) recently published a paper that discusses interactive government registries of civil society organisations as potentially being a key and innovative tool that can allow for 'mapping' to take place. Appe puts a focus on Latin American countries as case studies but what sort of accessible registries exist in the United Kingdom? Here a jumbled picture emerges. The Charity Commission release extracts of their database, but not the whole database of registered organisations. In order to search for an individual organisation, the Charity Commission offers a good search platform that brings up relevant charities and their details. Other not-for-profit services such as the Charities Aid Foundation and Guidestar Data Services give a good search function of the financials of individual organisations. Charity Choice and Charities Digest (offline book) are both delivered by the for-profit company Wilmington PLC, who charge charities to appear higher up their search rankings. At a regional scale, Voluntary Community Services and local councils often display maps of organisations within their geographic area, but they are limited in search function and overall depth of content. On a national scale, the NCVO's Civil Society Almanac provides the best geographical overview of the landscape, however it is a static source that is not searchable. In short, a fragmented and poor quality set of tools exist for viewing the third sector at a variety of geographical levels.

Yet there is a push to improve the way the third sector displays its resources and engages with people in the digital age. In a report by Bull et al. (2015) for New Philanthropy Capital (NPC), they urge charity leaders to plan for the sector's future by adapting to the rise in digital technology. "The citizens of 2025 will expect to use digital technology to find the information they need, access products and services that work well for them, review and rate them for their peers and hold organisations accountable" (Bull et al., 2015, p.4). The urgency displayed in the report is required, especially as the expectations of 2025 may well come sooner. The stimulus for this research, the Centre for Social Justice's 2014 Breakthrough Britain publication, recommends the Cabinet Office to pilot the online mapping of the social sector in the UK, showing where organisations work. This would be a big achievement, yet we must look beyond simple location based mapping, to fully utilise the technological possibilities that are discussed by groups such as NPC.

3. Methodology

In order to properly answer the research questions and provide a broad overview of results, a triangulated mixed-method approach was employed to gather primary and secondary levels of research.

3.1 Primary data

3.1.1 Interviews

As this research is concerning a largely hypothetical and untested idea, inductive primary research in the form of semi-structured interviews was undertaken to provide qualitative results which ascertain opinions and thoughts on the proposed project, as suggested by Hoggart et al. (2002, p 208.). With the intention of carrying out a non-probability purposive sampling method, the researcher set about contacting potential interview subjects and gatekeepers (Burgess, 1984, p. 48), all of whom had extensive experience in the third sector at various levels of operation (see section 3.1.3) Many organisations failed to respond to requests for interviews, however a total of four semi-structured interviews were undertaken. They were based around six key questions (see appendix A) from which other points for discussion emerged. The interviewees kindly agreed to conduct the interview during the working day and as such a rough time limit of 30 minutes was placed on each interview. The interviews were audio recorded in order to release the researcher from taking notes and allow a free-flowing discussion to take place. Each interviewee openly agreed to the recording of the interview, signed (or was offered the chance to sign) a research consent form (appendix B), was made aware of their right to stop the recording at any time and agreed to their named inclusion in this report. The researcher was well informed of the topic area and the organisation that the interviewee belonged to in order to give confidence and reassurance to the interviewee (Newby, 1977). However, it was important not to impose thoughts or opinions onto the research questions or discussions in a way that influenced the outcome of the answer, an issue highlighted by McCracken (1988).

3.1.2 Ethnography

As Flowerdew and Martin (2005) discuss, purposive sampling can often lead to a snowballing effect, in which one contact refers the researcher onto another as the "researcher builds up layers of contacts" (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005, p. 117). An initial interview was indeed set up this way, and upon conclusion of that interview, the participant invited the researcher to attend a meeting

which discussed a topic related to this report. The meeting was attended by representatives knowledgeable in the third sector. The meeting was about 2 hours in length, and the researcher, for the most part, acted as an observer. The results from the meeting were made up of the researcher's own notes and other amalgamated notes. The meeting could be described as a form of participant-observation ethnography, which as Gobo (2011) illustrates, means the "researcher establishes a direct relationship with the social actors" (Gobo, 2011, p. 17). Gobo draws on an interactionist approach discussed by Denzin (1970) and Silverman (2001), which aptly describes the processes that took place as a result of the researcher attending the meeting. Gobo (2011) explains that this allows the researcher to understand how behaviour and actions can create meanings and discursive changes, as well as take on and see the actor's point of view while studying processes instead of structures.

3.1.3 Information on primary data sources

OCVA

Oxfordshire Community and Voluntary Action (OCVA) is a registered charity and acts as the umbrella body for voluntary and community groups in Oxfordshire. They run Volunteer Centre Oxfordshire, provide advice and training, act as advocates and representatives and build partnerships between non-profits in Oxfordshire. Trevor Barton, Systems and Support Manager for OCVA, is leading their Data for Good project which includes the proposal of a new data standard for the sector. The researcher was able to interview Trevor at the OCVA's Headquarters in Oxford (UK).

NCVO Meeting

Whilst interviewing Trevor Barton from the OCVA, the researcher was invited to attend a meeting which was to be held at the NCVO's Headquarters in Central London. Led by Trevor Barton, it discussed an open data standard for the charitable sector and in particular, Trevor and the OCVA's proposed OpenVCS data standard. Further details on the meeting and the data standard can be found on the OCVA's website[2]. Alongside the researcher, the meeting was attended by David Kane (NCVO, Senior Research Officer) Tim Davies and Steven Flower (Open Data Services), Mark Freeman (Cambridge CVS) and Greg Bloom (Chief Organising Officer at The Open Referral Initiative (USA)).

[2] OCVA (2015). Available at:
http://ocva.org.uk/2015/10/16/ocva-is-giving-away-its-knowledge-heres-why-open-data-and-social-change/

Emmaus Colchester

Part of the wider network of Emmaus charities, Emmaus Colchester (Essex, UK) provides accommodation for up to 20 formerly homeless people (referred to as companions). The community is in part funded by a network of two warehouse shops and two high-street shops in Colchester, through which it sells donated items and items collected in paid house clearances. The companions staff the day-to-day running of the warehouses and shops. The organisation has an annual income of approximately £560,000 and is roughly 60% funded by the social-enterprise, and 40% funded by housing benefit[3]. The researcher was able to interview Keith Henrick (General Manager) and Ecky Prolingheuer (Community Manager) at the community centre in Colchester in late 2015.

Macmillan Cancer Support

Macmillan Cancer Support is a national charity that provides specialist health care, information and financial support to people who have or are affected by cancer. In 2014 Macmillan reached over 5.4 million people affected by cancer and had a total income of £218.4 million[4]. The researcher was put in contact with Juliet Bouverie, who at the time of research was Director of Services and Influencing at Macmillan. Juliet worked for Macmillan for 16 years and holds a wealth of knowledge about the third sector. The researcher was able to interview Juliet at Macmillan's Central London Headquarters in late 2015.

Henley Stroke Club

Henley Stroke Club is a not-for-profit membership group that provides information, peer support and social and recreational activities for those affected by stroke in the Henley on Thames (Oxfordshire, UK) area[5]. Henley Stroke Club is not a registered charity, but is affiliated to the Stroke Association, a large national charity. The club has a typical membership of 21, with 10 volunteer helpers. The club is funded by a £1 weekly subscription per member, as well as unsolicited donations from local companies or groups. The researcher was able to conduct a 30 minute interview with the secretary of the Stroke Club, Margaret Peters, via telephone.

[3] Emmaus Colchester Annual Report (2014) Available at: http://apps.charitycommission.gov.uk/Accounts/Ends05/0001077805_AC_20140630_E_C.PDF
[4] Macmillan Cancer Support Annual Report (2014) Available at: http://www.macmillan.org.uk/Documents/AboutUs/RaiseAndSpend/AnnualReviews/Annualreport2014.pdf
[5] Stroke Association. Accessed 2015. Available at: https://www.stroke.org.uk/finding-support/henley-stroke-club

3.2 Secondary data

Alongside primary data, secondary level data has been used for a variety of instances in this report. The first form of data used is basic qualitative and extensive quantitative data about the third sector in the United Kingdom, or charitable organisations. It has typically been gathered by national bodies or organisations that oversee the third sector on a grand scale. The second set of secondary data concerns societal factors and is collected from census statistics or labour force statistics. The third and final set of secondary data is qualitative data from non-academic studies, articles and maps surrounding this research theme. Flowerdew and Martin (2005) discuss secondary data as providing a 'status quo' overview on the area of research as well as giving the primary data a solid contextual base for it to be interpreted against. Flowerdew and Martin also discuss relevant drawbacks to the heavy use of secondary data, with a major concern being the varying definitions that are used making the data incomparable or hard to work with. This was most certainly the case, and is discussed in further depth in section 4.1.1. When analysing and reading secondary data, the purpose of the data collection and intentions of the author(s) must also be considered and evaluated. This is particularly the case when studying other maps, as Wood (2010) discusses, as the map is always projecting a certain case and is never without bias.

3.3 Analysis

The results in section 4 are laid out by theme of nominal variable, with a mixture of primary and secondary data discussed within each category. In order to gain the most from the primary research, running transcripts of the four interviews were made as soon as possible after they took place (see appendix D). Both the notes from the meeting and the transcripts of the individual interviews then had line numbers placed in a running order down the side of the document, in order to undertake a coding exercise. The coding took place in the form suggested by Smith and Osborne (2008), which they term 'interpretative phenomenological analysis', a process by which the transcripts and notes are read through with initial themes and subsequent code being assigned by the researcher. These etic codes (Flowerdew and Martin, 2005) are assigned by the researcher, as opposed to emic codes which are assigned by the subject of the research. The themes/codes are then tabulated and where each line of the transcripts or notes fits a category, it is noted under that category (X Axis) alongside which transcript / set of notes it was from (Y axis). This can be seen in appendix C. Throughout, the researcher checks to ensure the themes are still appropriate and are then refined accordingly. This occurred when the researcher noticed that a clear distinction between sections 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 was needed, as many outcomes from the primary research could

fit either. Aside from ensuring correct categorisation of the data, coding allows for a clear structure to be formed, as well as minimising the possibility of key datum being missed by the researcher. The final tabulated sheet of line numbers in conjunction with their correct category gives the researcher a good overview of strong and weak themes, as well as a quick point of reference when producing the report (Silverman, 2001). The appropriate areas of secondary data are then discussed within the categories produced as a result of analysing the primary data.

3.4 Mapping

Included in section 4.2.5 are maps that show the third sector in the Colchester (Essex, UK) area. Colchester was chosen as a site for study as the researcher is familiar with the landscape of the third sector in the area. Section 4.1.1 discusses the issues with gathering data on the third sector, and as such an open source version of the Charity Commissions 2011 dataset was accessed and used[6]. The dataset contained 340,260 records, many of which were on historic groups. The groups were filtered by address, and only groups with a Colchester postcode remained in the dataset. The researcher then removed all inactive groups, which left a total of 630 records to be mapped. Using a free trial of ArcGIS Online, the data was then overlaid onto a map of Colchester. ArcGIS Online allows access to a variety of data sets, one of which was the results of the 2010 Indices of Multiple Deprivation map, which could be used as a layer against which to plot the groups in Colchester. ArcGIS Online also provides data visualisation tools, allowing the creation of hotspots. However, the researcher encountered technical difficulties in showing where the charities worked by ward. ArcGIS also does not easily facilitate searching within a dataset to select certain elements, therefore individual layers of types of charity would have to be created. This would have been too time consuming to undertake.

[6] Charity Commission 2011 dataset. Open version. Available at: https://datahub.io/dataset/open-charities

4. Results

The results and subsequent analysis are best combined and split into three categories: stage 1 refers to research results pertaining to before mapping has taken place (pre-mapping), stage 2 refers to results that occur during the technical mapping process (mid-mapping) and stage 3 refers to results that arise after the mapping has taken place (post-mapping). Whilst this may answer the research questions in a different order, it presents the results in the most logical format.

4.1. Stage 1: Pre-mapping

4.1.1 Data

In order to produce a map of the third sector, certain data sets and resources need to be available and formatted in a usable way. Interview question 3: "What current resources are available to create such a map?" (see appendix A) prompted much discussion around this point; the coding table shows 27 separate instances of discussion around data from the 5 transcripts. A topic already briefly discussed in section 2.3 is that of openness and accessibility to data on the third sector. The best data at a national level that can be filtered and downloaded is published by the Charity Commission via their search function (both advanced search and Beta function)[7], as highlighted by Trevor (OCVA), Juliet (Macmillan) and Keith and Ecky (Emmaus). The Charity Commission publish the most recent accounts, annual reports, rough area of operation and mission statement, all of which provide a good overview of the charity. However, the register is still not completely open as only 500 search results are downloaded at a time, and the information that gets downloaded is very basic. The Charity Commission supply an extract of the database, but it requires a content management system in order to properly view it. At a regional level, the best data is held by Community Voluntary Services (CVS/VCS), such as the OCVA. Juliet suggested that they may hold good levels of data about organisations in their area, a statement confirmed by Trevor from OCVA. OCVA believe that there are 4500 non-profits in Oxfordshire, and they have good data on roughly 2000 of them, with permission to share that data for roughly 1000 of the groups. Trevor believes that CVS data is more detailed than that held by the Charity Commission and therefore puts them at a unique advantage, particularly as they gather data on unregistered charitable groups. However, most CVS groups have not published an open set of the data that they hold.

[7] Charity Commission charity search. Accessed 2016. Available at: http://beta.charitycommission.gov.uk/

A second key issue around the topic of data is regarding the format in which data is collected and dispersed. Keith (Emmaus) spoke of the Charity Commission setting the standards for data collection and publication in the sector. Secondary research confirms this, yet it is clear that the data available from the Charity Commission is not easily comparable with other various data that exists on the third sector, such as that available by the Charities Aid Foundation (CAF). This is a problem acknowledged by Trevor (OCVA) and the reason for the meeting at the NCVO. In order to help provide better access to data that is produced in a format that is readily comparable and usable, Trevor proposes the wide-spread use of his 'Open VCS'[8] format by CVS groups around the country. Based upon the fields in the widely used CiviCRM system, the format encourages the standardisation of a wide range of data. The OCVA have undertaken a census where groups in Oxfordshire have been encouraged to input their data in line with this standard, in order to allow for deeper and comparable data to be published. By doing this, Trevor says that OCVA can counter their *"breadth, depth and permission issue"*. If all CVS groups undertook similar exercises, a picture of the wider third sector in the UK would emerge.

4.1.2 Individual perspectives

At this stage in the process of creating a map, it is important to consider the desire of individual groups for such a resource. Of the four interviews and one meeting, the response towards the project and proposal was a positive one which showed a desire for its potential to be realised. Whilst it was acknowledged that it was a sizable project with a long way to go, all groups expressed a willingness to be involved. However, of more use to the discussion are the findings on why groups wouldn't want to be involved. It was highlighted by Tim Davies at the meeting held at the NCVO that we must respect the right of groups to opt out of data collection exercises. This is an issue prevalent to Volunteered Geographic Information (VGI). Coined by Goodchild (2007), VGI refers to the collection and production of geographic information, which Sui, Elwood and Goodchild (2012) say has allowed for non-specialists to map and be mapped in the 'exaflood' of digital data growth. Blatt (2015) rightly points out the risks and ethical concerns of VGI, with a key concern being the inclusion of unwanted data. This concern proved true after interviewing Margaret Peters (Henley Stroke Club), who said that privacy was an important factor in considering what contact details to include on the map, in a way that would limit unwanted attention. A second concern with the use of VGI was highlighted by Ecky Prolingheuer (Emmaus Colchester), who said

[8] OCVA. Accessed 2016. Available at: http://ocva.org.uk/data/

that by matching up service provision with levels of service need, political issues could occur where councils or local governments disagree with the level of need being represented on the map and feel it misrepresents the area.

Aside from the ethical concerns around the mapping of the data, the researcher frequently got the impression that many in the third sector could not understand the potential uses of mapping service provision against need. At least 15 organisations were contacted about the proposal and many discussions were met with reluctance or apathy towards the project. The researcher found this often changed once the benefits were highlighted, but a general feeling remains that as this is a novel idea, many in the sector are yet to realise the potential for such a tool.

4.1.3 Larger scale perspectives

The perspective of the national body emerged as a point of discussion in the interviews. Questions over who should coordinate and fund the project at a strategic scale were asked. As Trevor (OCVA) rightly noted, many for-profit groups limit access to resources in order to encourage 'pay per view', which lends to the idea that it should be led by a government or sector-wide not-for-profit group. Trevor also noted *"If you use a tool [developed] by a commercial company, the sector might turn their back on it".* Juliet (Macmillan) believes that long-term the map should be state funded, however during the development of a prototype a mixture of funding sources (such as Nesta, Design Council, Big Lottery Fund) may have to be explored. Keith (Emmaus Colchester) advocated the suggestion of the Charity Commission using a proportion of Gift Aid to fund such a project.

The evidence in section 2.2 is explicit in showing that there is a demand at a national scale for this sort of resource, however as Juliet noted, until the concept is proven, discussions around the long-term funding of it are limited.

4.2 Stage 2: Mid-mapping

4.2.1 Technical skills and knowledge

When looking at the physical production of a third sector map, a primary consideration is the technical extent of the project. As Haklay (2013) elucidates, GIS and mapping technologies are still complex in operation and the concerns of the specialist and not the everyday user are taken into consideration. Whilst less esoteric mapping software is becoming available, the level of software

needed for such an exercise requires specific knowledge. Alongside knowledge of the software, substantial knowledge of the sector is also required in order to produce a tool that benefits a variety of stakeholders. Juliet (Macmillan) believes a combination of technical expertise and sector knowledge is required: *"You need somebody who's phenomenally well connected with a bit of pulling power to join up the dots. Someone who's a really well known person in the field of design and innovation who could really get this going".*

During interviewing, the timescale of the project was discussed. Due to the scale of data required and complex operating features within the tool, a long duration was estimated by the researcher for developing a fully operational concept tool. Juliet (Macmillan) estimated that it would take 2-3 years to develop a tool that could prove the concept and could be tested. Ecky (Emmaus) estimated at least 5 years of work to get a fully operational tool working at a regional level, but considerably longer if the map was developed to capture the national picture.

4.2.2 Geographic scale

The geographic scale of the map is a defining question. The CSJ (2014) report suggests a map at the national scale, just as Appe (2015) discusses the advantage national datasets have of being able to provide a strategic overarching picture, in the way that the NCVO's Civil Society Almanac does. As discussed in section 4.1.1, the Charity Commission holds records at a national level, however the richness of records held could be surpassed by using data collected at a regional level by Voluntary Community Services (VCS's). Therefore, if a map was developed using national level data, it could lack the depth that a regional map would have. The research undertaken confirms that the exercise is best developed at a county level, with the option to join up counties over time to show the bigger picture. Trevor (OCVA) is undertaking a census exercise for Oxfordshire as is the OCVA's geographical remit. Keith and Ecky (Emmaus) believed that due to the number of organisations the map is best delivered at a regional level. Margaret Peters (Henley Stroke Club) also stated the map should be focused at the county level as it mirrors the regional level of support given by the Stroke Association. Juliet (Macmillan) felt that people can identify by county and would know to explore the maps of neighbouring counties. If the map was geographically restricted to the county level, the individual maps could be 'stitched' together to provide a bigger picture, which would allow for the inclusion of charities that operate beyond their county or in multiple counties. Census and socio-economic data is provided at ward level, meaning it is advisable for the map to show within

which wards organisations operate. This is a key advantage with producing the map using online software which allows for different geographical scales to be observed.

4.2.3 Map layers

Kramer (2000) and Never (2011) recognise a great deal of interplay between actors within the third sector, as well as interplay and collaboration between the private, public and third sectors. This suggests that options beyond simple data on individual organisations should be included for a more detailed analysis and overall useful map. With the software available (see section 4.2.6), it is possible to overlay data sets on top of a basemap or on top of each other to provide a different picture each time. These layers can include a variety of data. Trevor Barton (OCVA) plans to include a layer on historical funding patterns in the tool developed as part of his Data for Good project, whilst Ecky Prolingheuer (Emmaus Colchester) suggested the inclusion of a layer that points to relevant government services such as housing assistance and support councillors. As section 4.3.3 discusses, a layer featuring small and unregistered groups would prove useful. Juliet Bouverie (Macmillan) suggested that for cancer sufferers, the inclusion of self-help and support groups would be a useful addition. Data is also available on historic charitable groups[9], meaning a basic layer could be produced which may help identify where groups have attempted and failed to operate previously. The map increases in effectiveness if a layer is included that features sociological factors (see section 4.3.4) such as indices of multiple deprivation. Figure 1, taken from the 2015 English Indices of Deprivation report[10] shows how such a layer would look.

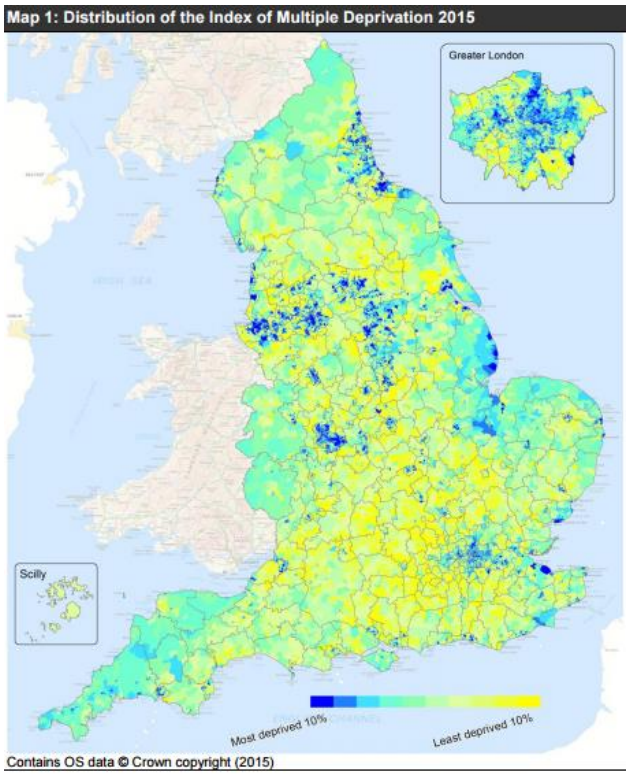

Figure 1 – Map of Multiple Indices Deprivation by Ward (2015 data)[10]

[9] Charity Commission. Accessed 2016. Available at: http://apps.charitycommission.gov.uk/Showcharity/ShowCharity_Help_Page.aspx?ContentType=SearchHelp_RemovedDate&SelectedLanguage=English.

[10] Department for Communities and Local Government (2015). Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/465791/English_Indices_of_Deprivation_2015_-_Statistical_Release.pdf

4.2.4 Search and display options

Research question 2 focuses on the areas of the sector which are best represented on a map. Alongside the possible options for separate layers of data, the search and display functions within the layers is of importance to how the sector can be sorted and viewed. The search facilities listed in section 2.2 typically allow for searches by name, charity number, what the charity does, who the charity helps, rough geographical area of operation and the charity's income range. The research showed that whilst these options are useful to search by, when displayed on a map it may also be useful to display options such as whether the organisation is requiring volunteers, as Macmillan already do on a map of their services[11]. Either by gathering data from across datasets as Mohan (2012, p.12) suggests or by gathering ward level data in the way Trevor Barton (OCVA) is, a choropleth map of where the organisations work could also be a visual search option. At the NCVO meeting the researcher proposed that a semantic metadata field (as Schuurman, 2005 suggests) should be included as a search option, a suggestion which was viewed with merit, however Trevor Barton felt it could not be included in his schema at this stage. Keith Henrick (Emmaus Colchester) rightly made the point that the makers of the map have to be carefully selective over which options to display in order to not overload the user.

[11] Macmillan Cancer Support. Accessed 2016. Available at: http://www.macmillan.org.uk/in-your-area/choose-location.html

4.2.5 Taxonomy and classification

In order to search the map, organisations have to be classified into distinct categories. Currently, the Charity Commission ask charities to describe *what* they do, *who* they help and *how* they operate. Figure 2 shows the categories that charities are asked to associate themselves with, as well as the incremental categories given when searching by income.

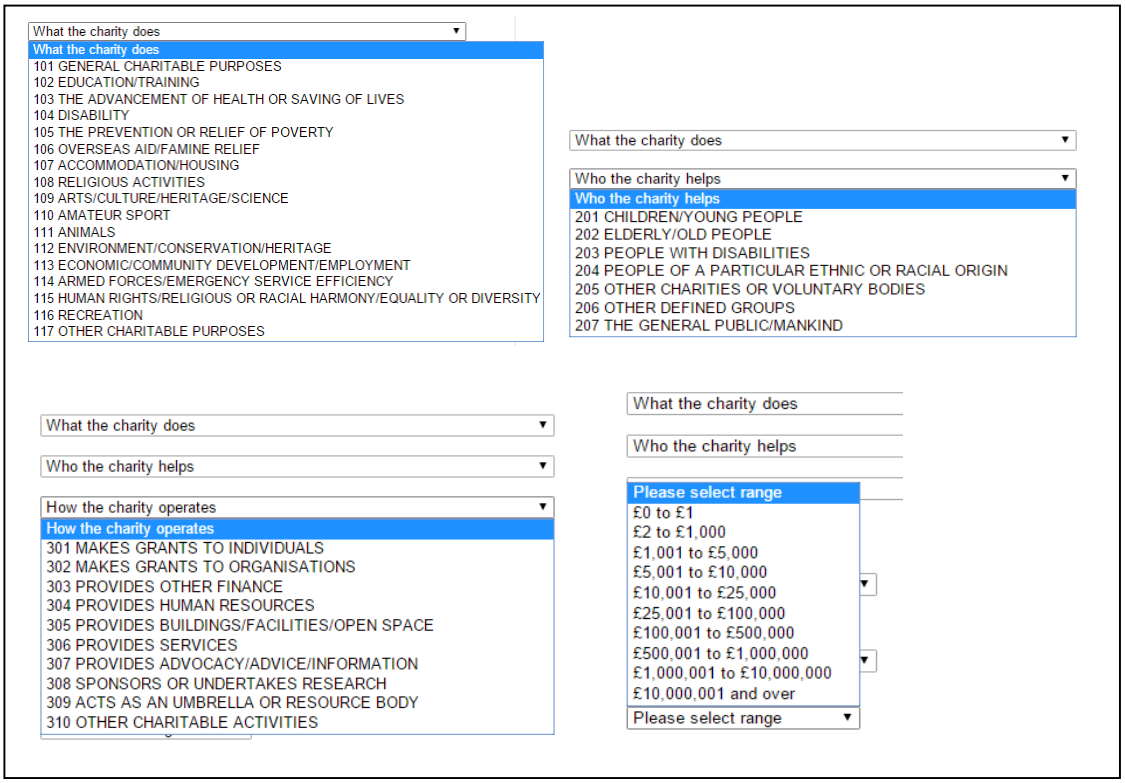

Figure 2 – Charity Commission Categories and Search Options[12]

The research undertaken has cast light on difficulties that may occur in relation to taxonomies and classifying groups. When discussing Trevor Barton and the OCVA's OpenVCS data standard, David Kane (NCVO) raised the concern that not all groups have the same understanding of the terms used to classify them, resulting in the misclassification of groups. For example, in figure 2, 'general charitable purposes' is an all-encompassing term. David Kane and John Mohan (2010) found that as groups had to fit into one category for their study, aggregate statistics were useful, but when broken down the data on individual categories may not be representative of the organisation's whole body of work; Kramer (2000) states that charities frequently straddle groupings and have a variety of roles. A taxonomical issue raised at the NCVO meeting and confirmed by all interviewees, is the idea of groups being affiliated with 'parent groups' and as such some recognition needs to be made of that in the taxonomies. This is certainly the case with Henley Stroke Club, who are

[12] Charity Commission. Accessed 2016. Available at: http://apps.charitycommission.gov.uk/Showcharity/RegisterOfCharities/AdvancedSearch.aspx

affiliated to the Stroke Association, and Emmaus Colchester who are part of the wider Emmaus UK groupings. By ensuring that 'parent' groupings are shown, a geographical perspective that is unique to GIS is not lost, as is a concern of Grimshaw (1996) when discussing taxonomies in GIS. Finally, Kane and Mohan (2010) discuss the use of their 'general charities' definition removing private or self-interest groups from their study. When analysing how charities will both gain themselves but also contribute to wider society when mapped as part of the bigger picture, this is an important point to consider, with the example of an independent school that is registered as a charity not giving to wider society.

4.2.6 Current software available

Desktop GIS applications still dominate the GIS market, with ArcGIS by ESRI being the most commonly used paid-for software and QGIS being the most commonly used Free and Open Source Software (FOSS). These applications are very powerful and are considered the industry standard. They are useful when producing static maps or maps that are shared amongst users of the software. For this exercise, it is required that the map is active, searchable and available to all, meaning ArcGIS and QGIS are not sufficient.

Google Maps is the hegemonic online map, however with their GIS style program Maps Engine closing down in early 2016, and being replaced with a basic tool titled 'My Maps', a space exists for a powerful online equivalent of desktop ArcGIS. ESRI have attempted to fill this space by producing ArcGIS Online, a web GIS platform that allows for some of the basic functionality seen in desktop ArcGIS, such as creating layers of visualised data on top of a basemap, however it is able to be shared with all and is 'active' in that it is searchable. Competitors to ArcGIS Online include CartoDB and Mapbox, however they fail to match the level of functionality that ArcGIS Online has. ArcGIS Online, CartoDB and Mapbox all offer restricted or capped access for free, however for full functionality a subscription must be paid.

4.2.7 Pilot maps

Whilst this report is in part the product of an opinion-gathering exercise, it is also a useful opportunity to explore the current options for producing a map of the third sector. Using a free trial of ArcGIS Online, the researcher produced maps of registered charities in Colchester, Essex. As discussed in sections 4.1.1, a full dataset is hard to come by therefore an open version of the

Charity Commission's 2011 dataset was used[13]. The researcher produced the following maps:

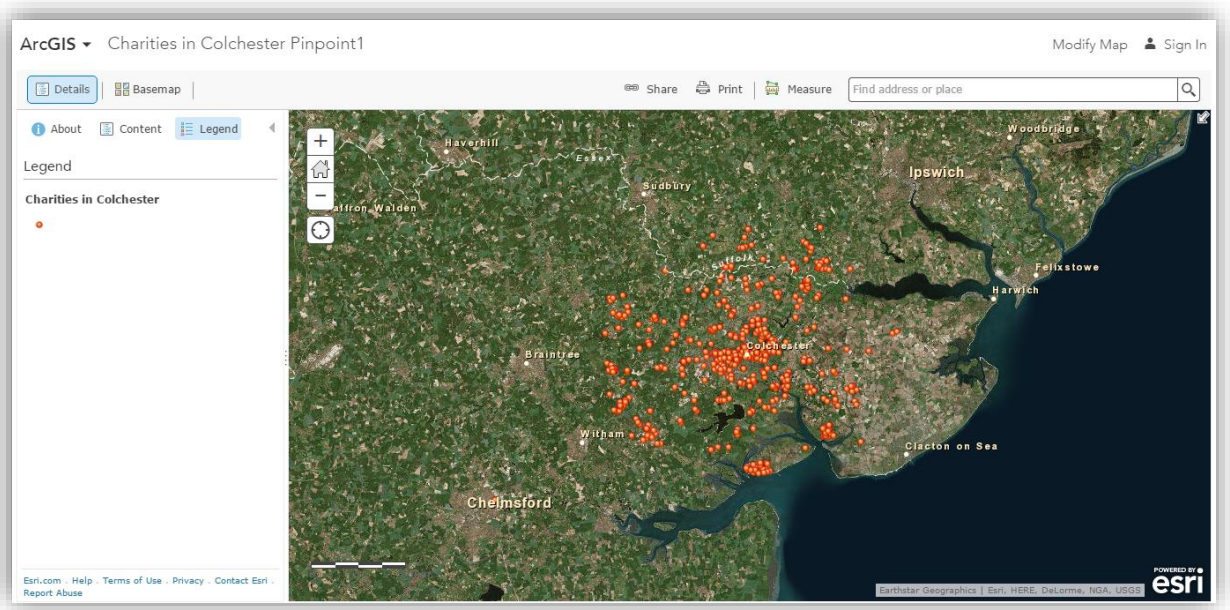

Figure 3 – Pin point map of all charities in Colchester. Scale bar is representing 10km, map orientated northwards.

Figure 3 - shows the location of all charities with 'Colchester' in their registered address.

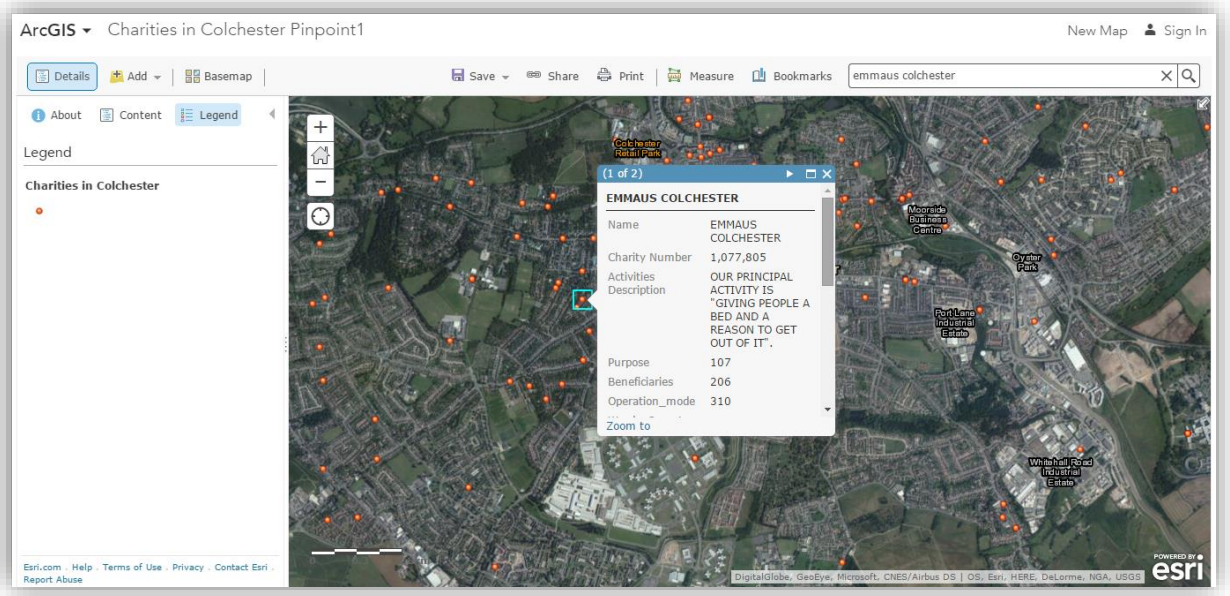

Figure 4 – Search result and display of individual charity's data. Scale bar represents 0.6km, map orientated northwards.

Figure 4 shows the search and display result for Emmaus Colchester. This information can be displayed by clicking on the point. Whilst the information box shows a good level of detail, the

[13] Charity Commission 2011 dataset. Open version. Available at: https://datahub.io/dataset/open-charities

location of Emmaus on the map is incorrect as the Charity Commission holds the address of the Chair of the Trustees, as opposed to Emmaus Colchester's offices.

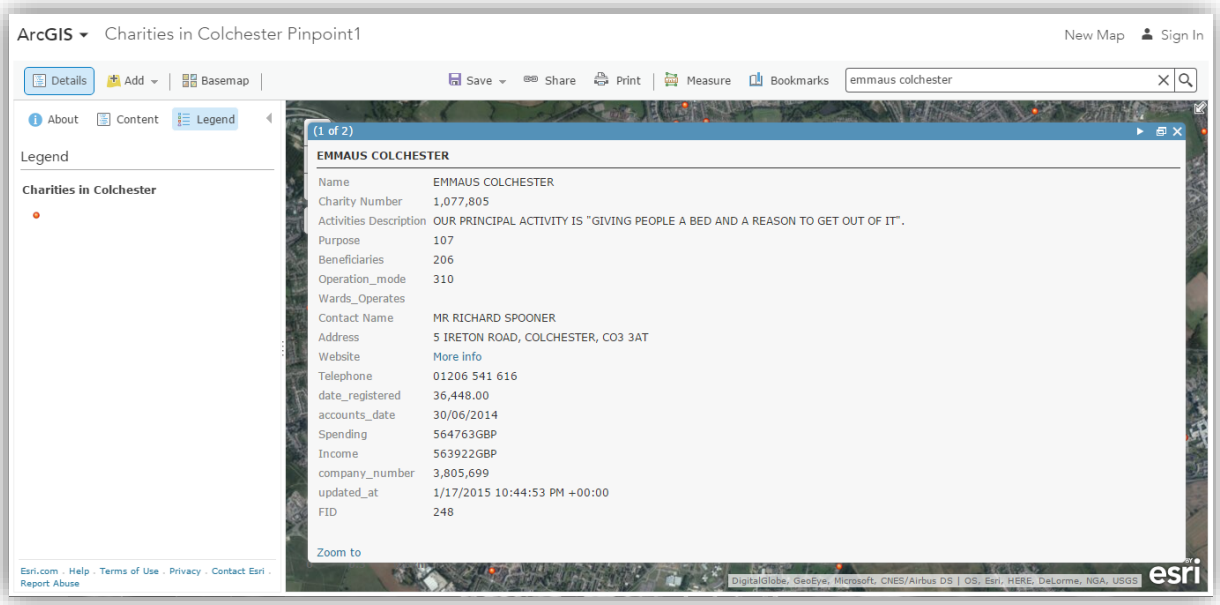

Figure 5 – Expanded view of individual charity's data.

Figure 5 shows an expanded view of the data held for Emmaus Colchester. Purpose, beneficiaries and operation categories feature codes that correlate with the taxonomies shown in section 2.3.

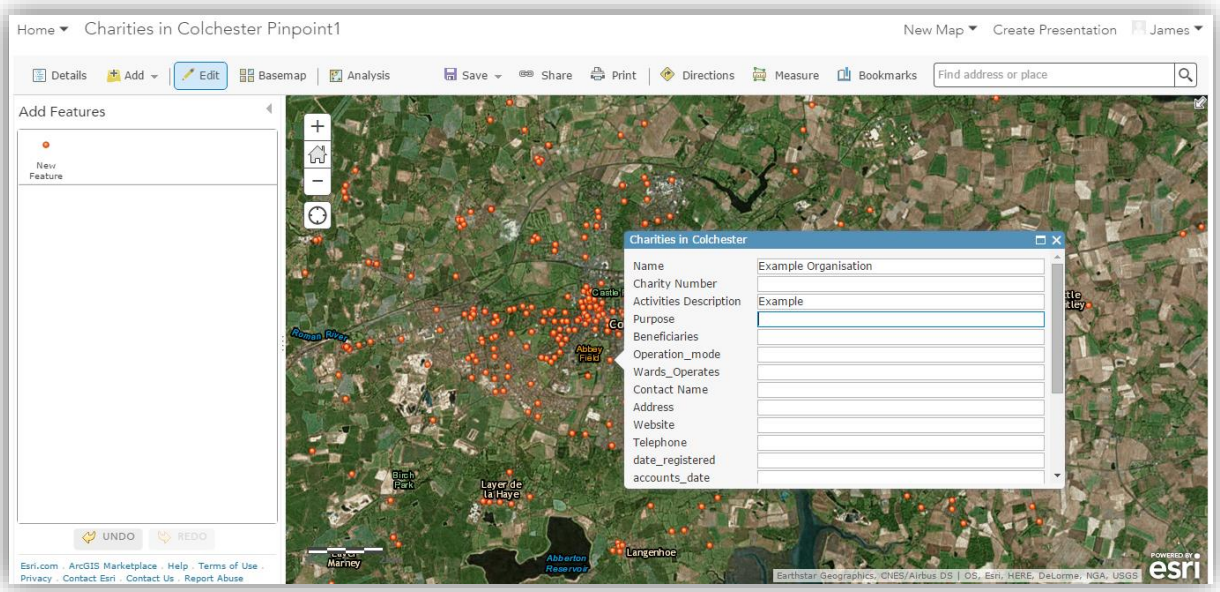

Figure 6 – Adding new data point to map. Scale bar represents 2km, map orientated northwards.

Figure 6 shows how using the 'edit' feature, new points can be added to the map and data can be filled in for that entry.

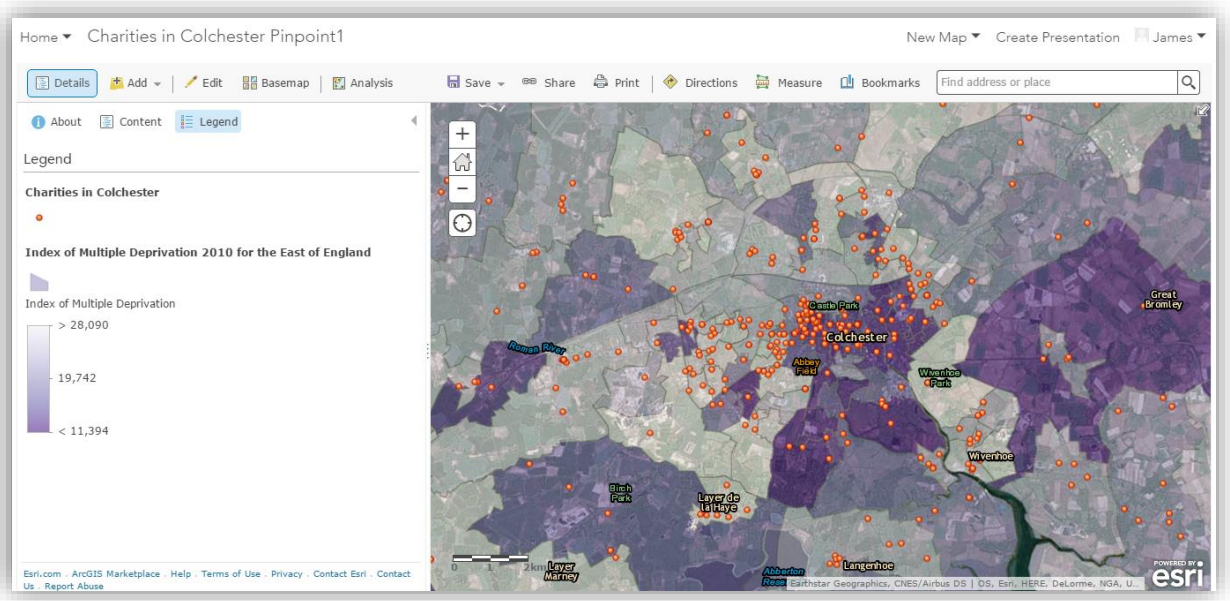

Figure 7 – Registered charities in Colchester plotted against Indices of Multiple Deprivation. Scale bar represents 2km, map orientated northwards.

Figure 7 shows the location of charities in Colchester, plotted against a chloropleth map indicating the Indices of Multiple Deprivation data for 2010. The range of the data shown in the legend is indicative of the Super Lower Output Area's (SLOA) ranking amongst the 32482 areas in England. Therefore the lighter the shade of colour, the less (comparatively) deprived the ward is[14].

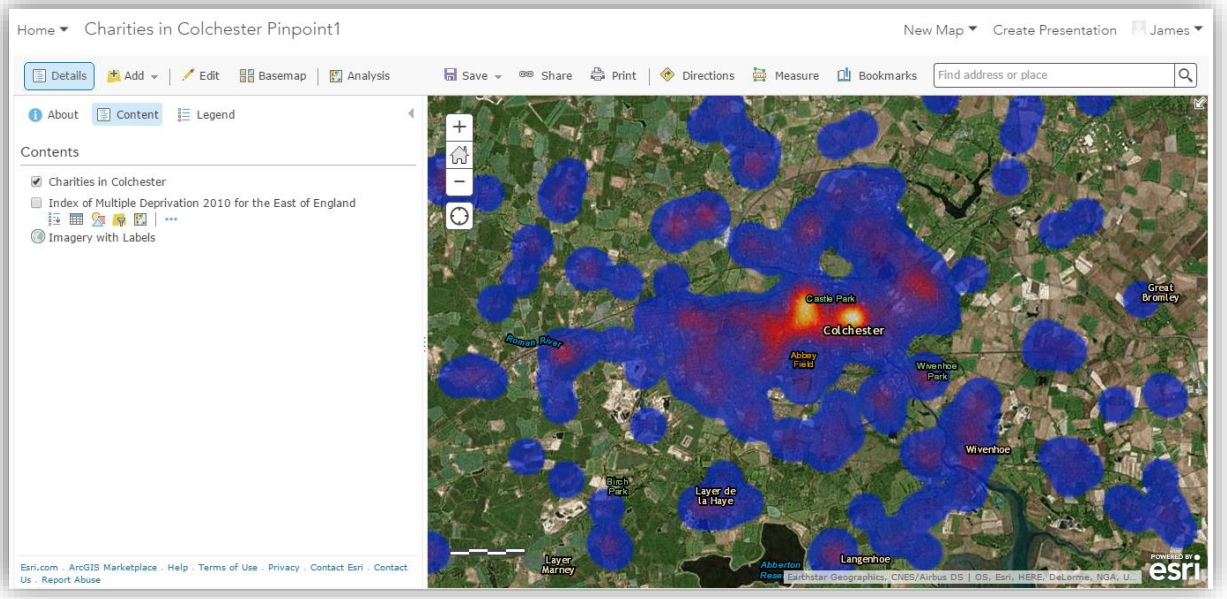

Figure 8 – Heatmap of charities in Colchester. Scale bar represents 2km, map orientated northwards.

Figure 8 shows the density of the registered locations of charities in Colchester. It uses ArcGIS

[14] ESRI Guidance for IMD (2014). Available at: http://www.esriuk.com/~/media/esri-uk/Schools/1A%20Guide%20to%20Working%20with%20Index%20of%20Multiple%20Deprivation%20data%20in%20ArcGIS%20Online%20

Online's built in heatmap tool. The heatmap shows the density of charities by colour, with red/yellow being high density, and light/transparent blue being low density.

4.3 Stage 3: Post-mapping

4.3.1 A connected third sector

Figure 3 shows a simple location based map of charities in Colchester. This sort of map has been produced by individual Voluntary Community Services to show the resources in their area. It serves a useful purpose for those wishing to benefit from the work of groups. Firstly, they can find the appropriate group they are after, and then see the geographical location. Juliet Bouverie (Macmillan) said "*One of the benefits of this is that I can see it would be really useful to sign-post people affected by cancer to what local charities are offering in their community".*

The map can also serve to help other organisations and services find organisations that are relevant for themselves and others. In the Centre for Social Justice (2014) report, the Bradford Community Health Maps were used as an example of a VCS produced map that helped GPs and other clinicians point patients to the appropriate services. Juliet (Macmillan) believes this would be a great benefit of the map, as often "*they don't know what is out there as a lot of what charities offer is quite invisible".* Susan Appe (2015) comments that by encouraging groups to collaborate on one platform, the more effective and efficient provision of public services and goods will occur and hopefully prevent duplication of services. Brent Never (2011) brings in the question of scale when looking at service delivery, as whilst it is clearly of use to document where charities are and the work they do, the sector can be linked up at a variety of levels and thus representing these levels on a map presents challenges.

4.3.2 Transparency

*"*UK charities are missing out on £665m in donations every year - people would give more if they were better informed, largest ever survey of its kind shows" ran the headline of a 2013 Guardian newspaper article that drew upon a report by NPC[15] which said that people would give at least £665m more a year if they could see more about the individual organisations and where their money was spent. With public scandals such as that surrounding Kids' Company and a perceived

[15] NPC (2013) Money for Good. Available at: http://www.thinknpc.org/publications/money-for-good-uk/

overpayment of senior leadership within charities, a tool that encourages transparency could only be a good thing. Juliet (Macmillan) commented "*If charities know that their information is not only going to be published on the Charity Commission website but also on this searchable tool, and that their numbers will be compared to others, then they might be more transparent about the impact that they have but also around potential projects that they'd like funding".* As quoted in section 2.3 it is expected that in a 'tripadvisor style' charities will face being held to account via the technological platforms that they expose themselves on, with the proposal of a third sector map providing a fantastic platform for encouraging a more transparent and public-facing third sector.

4.3.3 Putting groups on the map

Figure 6 shows the 'add feature' tool available on ArcGIS. This tool then opens up a form that is able to be completed by the user. Being able to add a new feature creates the opportunity for groups that are not registered charities to include themselves on the map. By putting themselves on the map, this overtly voluntary form of VGI is available to all, and contrary to Haklay (2013) opens up mapping software in a form of democratisation. Adding the point onto the map is simple and requires no previous knowledge of the software. The support for this feature is clear from the primary research: Margaret Peters (Henley Stroke Club) believes that as an unregistered organisation, they would benefit from being included on such a map, albeit with limited contact information and only key details displayed, such as the time of day that the club runs. Juliet Bouverie (Macmillan) commented that there are over 800 self-help groups for those affected by cancer, most of which are just groups of people coming together who have few resources for publicity. However, Blatt (2015) touches on a concern shared by both Juliet and Keith and Ecky (Emmaus Colchester), in that by 'opening up' the map, unwanted and miscommunicated data may appear. Therefore, some system of quality assurance and vetting is needed. Keith (Emmaus) suggested a half-way house, in which the map provides a link or access to the databases held by groups on unregistered organisations. Both Emmaus and Macmillan hold such databases.

When mapping 'below the radar organisations' Mohan et al. (2010) discussed the LOVAS method of gathering data on unregistered groups, in which local researchers undertook surveys of voluntary activity in their area. Mohan et al. noted how resource intensive this was, and therefore not possible to conduct at a larger scale. Trevor Barton (OCVA) has invited groups to fill in a census, meaning fewer resources are needed than the LOVAS method, whilst the same depth of

data is gathered. There are many options for including unregistered groups in a map of the third sector, and doing so is undoubtedly an important characteristic of the eventual tool.

4.3.4 Plugging the gaps

The recommendation for mapping the social sector in the Centre for Social Justice (2014) report comes under a heading of "Getting charities to where they are most needed". Mohan (2012) and Lindsey (2013) both highlight the inequalities in third sector service provision at differing levels, as does the NCVO's Civil Society Almanac (2015). Trevor Barton (OCVA) believes that "*nobody yet, as far as I'm aware…has put provision together with needs, together with existing funding".* Map 3 attempts to show provision and need, by plotting the distribution of charities in Colchester against the 2010 aggregated data on Indices of Multiple Deprivation by Lower Super Output Area. By doing so, we can see that a higher concentration of charities exists in the less deprived western side of Colchester, compared to the more deprived south-eastern side of Colchester. With up to date data and a broader picture it would become clear where resources are needed. Mohan (2014) discusses the issues with the Centre for Social Justice's (2014) recommendation of mapping service provision against population. Trevor Barton feels that by plotting provision against need and alongside funding opportunities, groups such as the OCVA can "*more intelligently go to groups, and say you have expertise in these areas, there's a pot of money to work in these areas, there's a need for it, then bid for it basically".* By including layers such as Indices of Multiple Deprivation, resources can be more efficiently allocated.

4.3.5 Philanthropy and funding

Interview question 6, seen in appendix A, points to further benefits that the map can bring, one of which being exposing groups to funders. As said in section 3.4, Trevor Barton (OCVA) wishes to include a layer on existing funding opportunities in his own tool, however the discussion of private philanthropy was also raised during the primary research. A feature of Charity Choice[16] is that it encourages an individual to fundraise, volunteer or give goods to a charity. Juliet (Macmillan) feels that "*most people give to charities on the basis of instinct and emotional appeal".* However, she does feel that there are select individuals and companies that are very discerning about giving to charity; clearer presentation of the options would encourage smarter giving. Juliet also speaks of

[16] Charity Choice. Accessed 2016. Available at: http://www.charitychoice.co.uk/

the map providing a platform for charities to highlight individual projects that they wish to be funded. When speaking with Margaret Peters (Henley Stroke Club), she presented a counter-perspective of smaller groups not wishing to be bombarded with funding. Margaret presented an anecdote of a similar unregistered group being left a large pot of money that the group had no real need for or knowledge of what to do with it. Therefore, whilst the option to open up the group to funders should be available, it should not be a mandatory requirement for the organisations.

4.3.6 Map longevity

Finally, such ambitious proposals raised questions about the longevity of the map. At the NCVO meeting, there was discussion about feedback loops being needed in order to keep the data shown on the map correct and updated, however no clear consensus on how best to do so has emerged. The answer mostly depends on who funds and manages the database. If delivered at a county level, then prompts for the individual organisations to update the data themselves, as suggested by Margaret Peters (Henley Stroke Club), is a feasible option. Juliet Bouverie (Macmillan) mentioned a needed interoperability between the map, Charity Commission databases and local databases held by VCS's so that all are automatically updated. Throughout the research process, it became clear that managing the database is a key consideration in being able to realise a map of the third sector.

5. Research Conclusions

The thematic results above help separate the topical offshoots that emerged out of the research process. In order to draw conclusions from the project, the above results can be aligned with the research questions in section 2:

Q1: "What is the role of maps in promoting the interests of the third sector?"

Unlike tables of data that quantify the third sector, displaying the data on a map offers a different visual representation with which people can engage. It is an idea that is coming to the fore and seems to be a natural progression in line with technological advancements. Trevor Barton's quote in section 4.3.4 "*nobody yet, as far as I'm aware…have put provision together with needs, together with existing funding",* neatly explains the justification for this project and the role of maps in promoting the interest of the third sector. Firstly, Trevor eludes to the ground-breaking nature of mapping the third sector. Secondly, an online, searchable map offers a unique position of displaying layers of third sector 'infographics' in a spatial setting. By displaying these multiple layers, a more efficient and effective third sector could emerge.

Q2: "What aspects of the third sector are conducive to cartographic representation?"

The third sector has many constituent aspects to it, however a map can be inclusive in displaying the majority of the third sector. Unregistered groups are an important part of the third sector that can be neatly displayed on a map, as are the geographical areas in which charities work. This is a novel feature that is overtly conducive to being represented cartographically. A clear consensus over the scale of the map emerged, with all primary research suggesting that a county level map strikes the best balance between showing an operational overview of the sector, whilst maintaining depth of data. This is with the view to 'sew' individual county maps into a national picture.

Q3: "How feasible is the creation of a 'third sector map'?"

Whilst this project is very much a first step, the feasibility of the eventual creation of a third sector map is a point for discussion throughout. Whilst the researcher experienced local technical issues with the mapping software, it is advancing at a rate where the technology will be available on a scale where all suggestions proposed will be able to be carried out in the near future. However, at the current time it is hard to give a solid statement confirming the availability of suitable software. The second part to the feasibility of the production of the map relates to whether the sector itself is ready to be mapped. It is clear to see that challenges lay ahead in terms of data collection. Trevor Barton and the OCVA's OpenVCS data standard is a clear way of gathering third sector data in an

intelligible way. The challenge remains for this to become a nationally observed standard, in order for larger scale perspectives to emerge.

6. Justification

Silverman (2001) makes the case that justification for research conclusions is a fundamental part of the reflective research process. Of importance is whether the research undertaken answers the questions laid out prior to undertaking the research. The researcher believes that as a result of the quality of primary data sources used, reliable conclusions can be drawn. Whilst only 5 primary data sources were drawn upon, they make up a rich cross section of the third sector; Margaret Peters and Henley Stroke Club represent the unregistered group, Keith Henrick and Ecky Prolingheuer provide the perspective of a mid to high level local charity, whilst Juliet Bouverie provides the perspective of one of the UK's most senior health charities. Alongside the meeting at the NCVO, Trevor Barton and the OCVA give the perspective of strategic organising bodies. There was a strong degree of consensus across all sources, further strengthening research findings. The research process was rigorous and the use of coding (appendix C) highlighted 148 appearances of relevant findings in the primary research. The coding also ensured all results were presented and correctly categorised. Therefore, the conclusions drawn and research displayed are both valid and of a high quality.

7. Reflection and future research

This 'exploratory exercise' has proved an exciting area of research that will hopefully be part of the bigger picture in shaping a more open and efficient third sector. However, upon critical reflection the research process prompts some evaluating thoughts. First, the scale of the topic under study is gigantic and thus this report fails to explore every avenue contained within the topic to their full extent. Discussions around data collection processes and the scale at which the third sector should be viewed are two topics both worthy of their own respective reports. Second, whilst the primary data collected during the research process is both valid and useful, a wider sample would produce a stronger set of results. Third, the study was plagued by (secondary) data availability and technical issues which hindered the production of more inclusive maps. One such case was the production of a map which showed where charities worked, for whilst the researcher inputted correct data on the wards in which groups worked, the software available experienced technical issues which prevented the merger of data sets. Data availability on funding sources prevented the researcher from producing such a layer, as compiling the data would have been too time consuming. Finally, the term 'third sector' encompasses a broader remit than just registered charities, thus questions over the titling of the project and map must be raised, especially if (due to data restrictions) the map almost solely focuses on registered and unregistered charities.

Despite its shortcomings, the project represents a new era of thought emerging in the digital age. Building intellectual bridges between the rarely intersecting paradigms of GIS and the third sector has proved challenging, however it opens up new potential avenues for research. The report focuses very much on the 'supply side', and therefore more research should be undertaken on how the public and non-third sector actors could engage with the map. In addition, more work needs to be undertaken on the correct scales and processes of data collection, prior to a more complete pilot map being commissioned. As a result of the thorough process of refinement that has led to structure of this report, the titles and themes are suitable for inclusion in future research.

In summary, the research undertaken has shown a strong willingness for the realisation of a map that shows the third sector in the UK, with a multitude of datasets and display options being given alongside the geographical areas and forms of service delivery. This report paves the way for a deeper and broader discussion of the way in which the third sector can wholly use future technological advancements in mapping software to be more efficient and capable during increasingly challenging times.

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Appendix A – Interview Questions

As previously mentioned, this research is based upon recommendations by the Centre for Social Justice in the 2014 Breakthrough Britain report Social Solutions: Enabling grass-roots charities to tackle poverty. The NCVO's Civil Society Almanac is the best source of quantitative data available, however one single, searchable map has not been produced. The Centre for Social Justice therefore recommend:

- an online map featuring not only registered charities, but one allowing unregistered charities to add themselves

- a map that is searchable online and shows the operations of charities and different scales

- a map that overlays socio-economic data to reveal the 'deserts' and inequalities in the third sector.

The report recommends producing a pilot map to analyse the way the data can be displayed.

Interview Questions

Q1 – What does your organisation do and what is your role at the organisation?

Q2 – (Explain idea of map) Do you think there is a need for this as a whole within the third sector, and if so, how could it benefit your/other organisations?

Q3 – What current resources do you know of that are available to create such a map?

Q4 – How could the data be visualised? Questions of scale, organisations (registered, unregistered) that are included, visual representation options? What would be the best options for you?

Q5 – What concerns/issues do you have about the map/project?

Q6 – What long term goals or initiatives can you see coming out of the map? (GP referrals, private philanthropy)

Any remaining questions please contact: ....@live.rhul.ac.uk. or dissertation supervisor Dr Gwilym Eades on Gwilym.Eades@rhul.ac.uk"

Appendix B – Research Consent Form

This interview is being conducted by Mr …. from Royal Holloway, University of London. The interview will form part of the research that will contribute towards a final year undergraduate dissertation with the working title of "Cartographic representations of the third sector: an exploratory exercise". All data gathered in the interview will be represented in the final report without the bias of the author, as far as is possible. The interview will take approximately 30 minutes.

Please read the following, and give your consent below:

- This interview is voluntary and you have the right to answer any questions as you wish, or not answer at all. You also have the right to stop the interview at any point.
- You have the right to remain anonymous in the report.
- If consent to record this interview is given, you retain the right to stop recording at any point in the interview, or to revoke your consent at the end of the interview. The project will be completed by 27.1.2016, when all audio recordings will be erased.

I therefore consent to (please tick):

☐ The interview to be audio recorded

☐ Direct quotes from the interview being used in the report

☐ My name, role at my organisation and information about the organisation to be included in the report

Participant: Name Signature Date

Interviewer: Name Signature Date

Any questions please contact: ……@live.rhul.ac.uk. or dissertation supervisor Dr Gwilym Eades on Gwilym.Eades@rhul.ac.uk

Appendix C – Extract from Coding of Interview Transcripts

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q
1	Interview Number	1.1 Lack of Data	1.2 Willingness/lack of response	1.3 Desire for the map for/against	2.1 Skills needed	2.2 Layout and search options	2.3 Other options to include	2.4 Taxonomy difficulties	2.5 Software available	3.1 Maintenance of maps	3.2 Linking up the third sector	3.3 Transparency/competition	3.4 Unregistered grouos	3.5 Plugging gaps	3.6 Private funding	3.7 Long term survival of project	Methodo
12																	
13	2 - Emmaus Col	45	201	26	101	82-85	29	69		91	22		136	182	75	104	
14	2 - Emmaus Col	63	221		177	97	31			136	99		140	191	158	131	
15	2 - Emmaus Col	110				105	34						145				
16	2 - Emmaus Col	116				107	150						158				
17	2 - Emmaus Col	120				177											
18	2 - Emmaus Col	149				201											
19	2 - Emmaus Col	213															
20																	
21	3 - Macmillan	44	115			20	156			107	9	31	156	55	26	106	
22	3 - Macmillan	55				29				170	37		165		35		
23	3 - Macmillan	182				70					55				142		
24	3 - Macmillan					78					78						
25	3 - Macmillan					86											
26	3 - Macmillan					91											
27																	
28	4- Henley Stroke	79	9	90		111	169			161	9		82				
29	4- Henley Stroke		43	123		141					129		90				
30	4- Henley Stroke		51			148							115				
31																	

Appendix D – Example Transcript of Interview

Interview Transcript with …….

1 EXAMPLE LINE

2 EXAMPLE LINE

3 EXAMPLE LINE

4 EXAMPLE LINE

5 EXAMPLE LINE