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Advancement of Social Service Delivery Through Cross-Sector Partnerships in Nigeria

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Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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2018

Abstract

Advancement of Social Service Delivery Through Cross-Sector Partnerships in Nigeria

by

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MSc, University of Navarra, Spain, 1994

DVM, University of Ibadan, Nigeria, 1985

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of

the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Administration

Walden University

November 2018

Abstract

Nonprofit organizations and the social services they provide have often engaged the attention of organizational scholars and practitioners. There is also a general perception of nonprofits as agents of social development in cases of public service failure. However, with the proliferation of many small nonprofits, their capacity for effective service delivery has been debated. Some have proposed cross-sector organizational partnerships (CSPs) as a means of assuring service effectiveness; however, such initiatives have been limited and not well understood in Nigeria. This study used a qualitative case study approach to focus on a CSP involving a nonprofit vocational training institute and 4 multinational companies in Nigeria. A purposeful sampling method was used, which emphasized participant experience and knowledge relevant to the study. Data were obtained from organizational records and participant interviews from a sample size of 10. An open-system theoretical lens was used as guide to answer the research question about the key elements of CSPs that support social service delivery by nonprofit organizations in Nigeria. Data analysis included coding, categorization, patterning, detailed description, and interpretation of the data. Categorical elements that increased institutional capacity of nonprofits or facilitated partnership management and government policy were found to be the key support to social service delivery. The results clarify links between CSP and social service delivery, and potentially aid synergy of action across sectors, in advancement of policy formulation and social service delivery.

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my father, Mr. Aloysius. A. Ihenacho, who was an efficient educational administrator and a father indeed.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The nonprofit-sector landscape has been undergoing remarkable changes in many countries of the world, including Nigeria. This has been evident in the rapid increase in the number of nonprofit organizations from the 1980s (Cernea, 1998; Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Nwagha, 1995; Salamon, 2002). In more concrete terms, the increase in the activity of nonprofits has manifested in the rate of registration of nonprofits within the past 15 years, when approximately 81.5% of the 69,729 presently registered nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in Nigeria were incorporated (Corporate Affairs Commission, 2014). There has also been considerable incursion of nonprofits into new functional areas, which were erstwhile reserved for governments and for-profit companies (Cernea, 1998). For instance, nonprofits engage in national and regional budget tracking, monitoring of government social projects and procurement contracts, as well as policy formulation and advocacy. Also, microfinance operations and promotion of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) are other innovative initiatives by which nonprofits contribute to national economies and poverty reduction (United States Agency for International Development, 2010). As the number of nonprofits has increased, so has the volume of their activities. In reality, some nonprofits such as the ActionAid UK have become multinational in scope and control such budgets that surpass annual budgets of some small African countries (ActionAid, 2016).

The activities of nonprofits sometimes situate nonprofits as effective links between governments and communities. For instance, the activities of nonprofits such as

the provision of basic education, adult and nonformal education, provision of primary health services in rural areas, and attending to basic social needs in communities place nonprofits as effective development bridges between community demands and government social service provision (White, 1981, pp. 100-131). Through their services, nonprofits play major roles in development within a critical third sector, which is that segment of the economy between the public sector (government) and the private for-profit sector. The impact of such services has been not so much in economic terms as in organizing people into functional groups for effective endogenous development (Cernea, 1998; Frumkin, 2002; Quamina, 2009).

Although the provision of social services by nonprofits has been praised and commended by many (Njuguna-Kinyua, Munyoki, & Kibera, 2014), the scale and effectiveness of delivery, and consequently the social impact of the services, have varied remarkably across regions of the world, depending often on local contexts. Even within regions or countries, it is difficult to guarantee adherence to standards of quality and scale for nonprofit service delivery. Often, the extent of social services provided by nonprofits has depended on such diverse factors as organizational size, access to funding, government legal or policy frameworks, and, to some extent, activities of organizations within the same or different sectors of the economy (Quamina, 2009; Yaansah, 1995). Several studies have been carried out on these factors that influence service provision (see also Berger, Peggy, Cunningham, and Drumwright 2004, and Salamon and Dewees, 2002), but the latter, activities of other organizations, which border on a vast field of cross-sector corporate collaborative activities, have come into the limelight recently and

have influenced social service delivery considerably, both in their extension and impact. Salamon and Dewees (2002), for instance, grappled with factors for the evaluation of services by nonprofits and found a robust data set in the ES 202 system that is good for this purpose, See also Daines, Lyon and Parsloe (1990) and Berger et al., (2004).

Organizational cross-sector partnership activities have been popularly advanced not only as an effective measure to overcome limits imposed on social service delivery by the small size of most nonprofits but also as conferring some capacity on the partnering organizations for effective service delivery (Berger et al., 2004; Daines et al., 1990; Foster & Meinhard, 2002). However, there is a need for a deeper understanding of the mechanism by which partnership activities confer such advantages (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012b) within specific circumstances of nonprofits in developing countries such as Nigeria, given that, in spite of the great preference for organizational partnerships, such initiatives are limited and not well understood in Nigeria.

Preview of Major Sections of the Chapter

In this chapter, I introduce the concept of a cross-sector partnership (CSP) in relation to social service delivery and the agents who have been involved in the provision of social services. I also present a background to the study and an overview of the state of organizational partnerships as well as the context of educational service provision. The statement of the problem is presented in the chapter, highlighting the gap in the knowledge of a CSP and the rising demand for social service provisions through CSPs as problems worth addressing. Subsequent sections in the chapter include the purpose of study, the research question, the theoretical framework, nature of study, definition of

terms, assumptions, scope of the study, limitations, and significance of the study. I end the chapter with a brief summary and an outline of the succeeding chapter.

Background

The nonprofit sector is very active in Nigeria, as it is in most developing countries, and has a relatively long history dating back to 1900, when the first social-sector organization was officially documented as such, judging from archived documents at the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) in Abuja, Nigeria. Some local literature dates the history to 1940 (Nwagha, 1995). This sector has played important roles not only in the struggle for national independence during the colonial era but also in the struggle for democracy during the military regime in Nigeria (Quamina, 2009; Soyinka, 2006). The Financial Reporting Council of Nigeria (2015) also acknowledged the importance of the social sector, especially in its contribution to economic and social development, given its ability to attract considerable foreign development aid and donations into the country. However, very little is known of this sector's methods, sustainability strategies, and partnership dynamics (Salamon & Anheier 1998; Quamina, 2009).

From the 1980s, many developing countries, including Nigeria, have experienced considerable social-sector growth (Salamon & Anheier, 1998; Cernea, 1988, Omorodion, 2007). For instance, the number of registered nonprofits in Nigeria increased rapidly from about 224 in 1960, when the country became independent, to approximately 10,575 in 1999, and to approximately 69,729 in 2014. An estimated 81.5% of these organizations were incorporated in the decade from 2000 to 2010 (Corporate Affairs Commission Nigeria, 2014). In reality, there are numerous nonprofit organizations, perhaps about half

of that stated number, which are yet to be formally registered at the Corporate Affairs Commission Nigeria, CAC. There are yet others that have obtained some form of recognition at the local government authority (LGA) levels (Amadi & Abdullah, 2011). Early surveys of the social sector of Nigeria by the United Nations Children's Fund and by a Nigerian nonprofit, Centre for African Settlement Studies and Development also revealed that about 90% of 6,700 nonprofits documented in the survey were established in the period from 1980 to 1989 (Nwagha, 1995).

Nonprofits in Nigeria are typically registered as incorporated trustees or as companies limited by guarantee. The laws governing the formation and registration of nonprofits are contained in Nigerian federal legislation, which allows for free association of individuals or groups for any purpose, insofar as such purpose is neither sinister nor in breach of public peace. Specifically, the Nigerian Companies and Allied Matters Act of 1990 outlined the requirements and procedure for the registration of nonprofits and any association in Nigeria (Ayo, 2012; Federal Government of Nigeria, 1990; Iheme, 2014). Under that Act, the CAC is charged with the incorporation of companies and associations. The Act made sufficient provisions for the registration of nonprofits and profit-making companies, but corporate complexes such as CSPs seem to be less contemplated within its provisions. There appear to be fewer incentives and provisions for registration of such multicorporate forms, and in reality, formal incorporation of CSPs has not been a common feature of the social sector of Nigeria. It could perhaps be argued that an absence of formal registration of CSPs and partnership agreements of that type

portends a possible limitation to their life cycle and service delivery, akin to the limitations observed by Takahashi and Smutny (2002).

The services delivered by nonprofits are essentially benevolent and geared toward the common good of society. They are thus voluntary, social, and nonprofit in character. Society relies on such services to fulfill many social needs that cannot be met by the government, individuals, or profit-oriented companies. However, because of the complexity of the objectives and target groups of such services, evaluation of their impact is also complex (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a; Sowa, 2009), as is understanding the various factors that influence the delivery of such services.

In Nigeria, nonprofit services, or services carried out by nonprofits in the field of education, primary health, and even policy advocacy, tend to be fragmented and, as such, are grossly limited in scope and scale. Many nonprofits, being small by nature, work in isolation and fail to take into account services rendered by other nonprofits, even in the same field. Under such circumstances, service delivery and any associated flaws in delivery processes tend to be duplicated, leading to wastage of efforts and resources within the social sector (Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Financial Reporting Council of Nigeria, 2015; Monfort, 1997). Availability of and access to funding have also been major constraints on service delivery by nonprofits. Most nonprofits in Nigeria receive their funding from foreign donor agencies, local communities, and to a limited extent, from fees for services. Few nonprofit foundations are endowed through corporate social responsibility grants from their parent organizations (Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Financial Reporting Council of Nigeria, 2015). However, sources of funding and the number of

funds available for nonprofit services are often limited, and competition for such limited funding or service contracts is great. Thus, the activities of other organizations within or outside the social sector insidiously constitute a major influence on service delivery by nonprofits. Yet organizational CSP has not been a popular option for nonprofits.

However, given the increasing global trend of channeling development assistance through nonprofits and nongovernmental organizations or NGOs (Morse & McNamara, 2006; Quamina, 2009; Yaansah, 1995), governments and some international development partners (IDPs) have kept up the effort to promote networks and CSPs among NGOs, governments, and private-sector companies, all in a bid to improve the situation and scale up nonprofit service delivery (Nwagha, 1995).

The relationship between the government and nonprofits has for a long time been marred by mutual suspicion and antagonism. This is to be expected, given that the government plays the role of a regulator in the industry and sometimes the role of an implementer of social services (Financial Reporting Council, 2015; Yaansah, 1995). Also, many nonprofits advocated against the military dictatorships that governed Nigeria for over 29 years. Subsequently, nonprofits assumed a posture of watchdogs against later civilian regimes and a militarized civil society. This opposition posture tended to limit collaborative efforts with the government. Moreover, many nonprofits fail to comply with organizational transparency standards that require the filing of annual returns and audited financial statements by nonprofits (United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 2010, p.100).

The relationship is gradually changing to one of tolerant recognition of the boundaries and roles of each sector in society. This has only been possible, however, through the creation of awareness and the education of each party on the activities of the other. Most CSPs between the government and nonprofit organizations consist mainly of recognition, facilitation of registration with government agencies, and to a limited extent, funding (Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000; Nwagha, 1995). For instance, the Nigerian government subsidized nonprofit schools and hospitals prior to the military government takeover of such institutions in the 1970s (Iheme, 2014; White, 1981), even though this is not the case now. The oil boom of the 1970s in Nigeria influenced the philosophy of the military government and led the government to take over educational and health institutions in the country. The government, therefore, attempted to provide such public services alone and discarded existing funding partnerships with nonprofit agencies and the private sector. Thus, the government could afford to, and actually continued to, build more schools and hospitals of its own. Under this circumstance, there was less incentive to subsidize such institutions run by nonprofits. However, with passage of time and dwindling government income, in addition to an increased national debt burden, the government is becoming more open to partnerships for the provision of educational and health services.

The agencies and government institutions that have worked with and recognized the activities of NGOs include United Nations agencies, the National Directorate of Employment, the Directorate of Foods, Roads, and Rural Infrastructure, the Directorate for Mass Mobilization for Self-Reliance, Social Justice, and Economic Recovery, the

Federal Environmental Protection Agency, the Oil Mineral Producing Areas Development Commission, and the National Commission for Women. This recognition has led to some collaboration among government bodies, donor agencies, and NGOs (Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000; Nwagha, 1995). In the past decade, some companies and individuals, such as MTN Nigeria Plc., Ocean and Oil Plc. (OANDO), and T. Y. Danjuma have set up nonprofit foundations to meet a perceived need for corporate social responsibility (CSR). These foundations have provided platforms for partnership with nonprofits and community-based organizations (MTN Foundation, 2016; OANDO Foundation, 2015; T. Y. Danjuma Foundation, n.d.). These initiatives by government and companies have been contributing to transforming the practice of CSP in the country.

CSPs between nonprofits and profit-making companies take various forms. Sometimes, they involve informal philanthropic donations (Alos, 2013); at other times, they may involve a strategic or social alliance (Berger et al., 2004; Takahashi & Smutny, 2002). There is also a general tendency to favor the practice of CSR activities among major profit-making companies in Nigeria (Eweje, 2006), as well as in many developing countries. This is an indication that there are various shades of CSPs, depending on the degree of formality and level of partnership sustainability desired by the partners. For instance, where there is less motive for a sustained relationship over time, or when the motive for the partnership is immediate support to the nonprofit and is the short-term marketing goal for the profit-making company, there could be a one-off grant or grants made by installments over a period of 1 year or 2 (Alos, 2013).

Other circumstances that mediate in the formation of corporate partnership relationships include, on the part of the nonprofits, the fund-raising skill of boards that determine the level of buy-ins on any proposed partnership, organizational track record, and relevance of the partnership project to industry or society. On the part of for-profit companies, a desire to partner is often determined by the annual financial performance of the company, the need for cause marketing, board disposition towards social projects, and the company's CSR policy.

According to Sagawa (2001), CSPs are an emerging innovation offering benefits to businesses and furthering the common good. In all forms of CSPs, there is often a win-win situation for the partners (Barkay, 2011) because it would be difficult to go into partnership relationships where the benefits, albeit social, did not outweigh the costs of partnership implementation (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a). In fact, value creation is considered a key reason for the creation of CSPs (Austin, 2010, as cited in Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a), even though CSPs have been conceived by some scholars as limited in their life cycle and therefore incapable of providing long-term solutions for service delivery (Takahashi & Smutny, 2002).

In spite of all of the activities and efforts in the social sector, there remains much to be learned about CSPs and their delivery of social services (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012b; Eweje, 2006). Nonprofit literature has not been especially clear regarding the causes and benefits of CSPs (Kourula & Laasonen, 2010), and this issue has been even less effectively addressed in a Nigerian context (Eweje, 2006). While Gazley (2010) observed that institutional and economic theories of collaboration seem to emphasize mutual

benefits and incentives as driving forces for collaborative actions, other scholars have emphasized human factors such as manager skills (Gazley, 2010; Johnson & Johnson, 1989) and collaborative entrepreneurs (Takahashi & Smutny, 2002) as forces that bring about CSPs.

Others have focused on the nature of the value-creation process in such partnerships and the dynamics of this process at the formation, selection, and implementation stages of partnership building (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a; Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarre, 2012). Yet other scholars, such as Foster and Meinhard (2002), have emphasized the role of attitudinal complexes in corporate partnerships. In the same vein, Frumkin (2002) highlighted the role of personal traits of staff in networks and alluded to the advantages of weak partnership ties over stronger partnership ties, on the grounds that the former are more likely to result in a more widespread network than the latter. These allusions not only point to the role of staff in CSPs but also to the role of CSPs in the capacity building of staff within nonprofits, which also marks the dimensions of support that may accrue to service delivery from CSPs.

The literature has also highlighted some features of CSPs that support nonprofit service delivery, such as skill diversity, a strong brand, increased capacity for resource mobilization, complementarity of strengths and resources, as well as increased scale of operations (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012b; Prieto-Carron, Lund-Thomsen, Chan, Muro, & Bhushan, 2006; Salamon, 2002). However, other CSP activities have been linked with limitations to social service delivery, and this may have helped to check the proliferation of CSPs (Berger et al., 2004; Takahashi & Smutny, 2002).

Among the social services delivered by nonprofits, the provision of educational services is traditional and popular, especially in Nigeria (Quamina, 2009). It is a field of service delivery that has been demand driven. For instance, with over 9 million children of school age not attending basic education schools and an annual education budget, below the lower limit of 26% of national budget recommended by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (Longe Commission, 1991, as cited in Odia & Omofonmwan, 2007), there has been a need and enough incentive to drive social sector initiatives toward educational service provision. A local survey in Lagos State revealed abundant nongovernmental social sector initiatives in this field, serving about 58% of children in basic education (the first 9 years of education). This demand phenomenon has occurred in spite of the free basic-education policy of the government and recent efforts to promote CSPs in this field.

Additionally, the public technical education schools have not been functional, thus exacerbating youth unemployment. This situation has, in turn, led to social sector initiatives in the field of technical vocational education and training services provision. One such project is the Institute for Industrial Training (TVIIT), which offers dual technical training on electro-mechanics to out-of-school youth. The TVIIT is an initiative of the African Development Foundation, a nonprofit organization incorporated in Lagos, Nigeria.

Problem Statement

A preliminary analysis of the social sector of Nigeria shows that a lack of skills and capacity for organizational partnerships, as well as inadequate understanding of the

nonprofit sector, may be contributing to problems associated with social service delivery in the sector (Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000; Quamina, 2009).

These problems, when unchecked, can ultimately result in institutional failure and increased turnover of important sector institutions, causing loss of jobs and gross impairment in social services delivery (Cernea, 1998; Salamon, 2002; Weinstein, 2009).

The implications of the observed problems for social service delivery may require further explanation. For instance, nonprofits mainly depend on funding to provide their services. Foster and Meinhard (2002) observed that 64% of 645 Canadian nonprofits studied depended on government grants for service provision. In the case of Nigeria, there is less dependence on government but more on external aid in order to provide services, and the same applies in many developing countries (Yaansah, 1995). In fact, apart from volunteered services, all other components of program implementation by nonprofits, such as labor, materials, and transport, require funding. Nonprofits need to fund their missions (Weinstein, 2009), but unfortunately the sources of funding are limited and often external to the organizations. This has introduced elements of competition, uncertainty, and discontinuity in services, raising issues of sustainability with respect to mission. It has been observed that scarcity of funding has led to disruptive competition among nonprofits (Foster & Meinhard, 2002; Frumkin, 2002), even though scarcity may also be construed as a motive for partnership among organizations in the same sector or across sectors (Kirk & Nolan, 2010; Takahashi & Smutny, 2002). In both cases of competition and partnership, there is an impact on social service delivery.

However, the extent to which CSPs advance services and mission is complex and requires further explanation.

There are also problems associated with the complexity of the social sector itself and the complex nature of sector organizations that influence the support received for nonprofit service delivery. The complex nature of the social sector can be adduced from the diversity of its beneficiaries, stakeholders, organizational sizes, and even regulatory authorities within each country. Given the diversity of each aspect of the sector, including policy regimes, it has often been difficult to find standard terminologies, rules for service provision, and guidelines for service evaluation that fit all within the sector (Quamina, 2009). This, in turn, has contributed to difficulty in understanding social sector institutions and in extending support for their services. Thus, in addition to the challenges these complexities present in terms of policy formulation, they make comprehension of the sector activities difficult.

In the same context, the legal, administrative, and operational policy frameworks within each country can influence the manner in which social services are delivered. Government policies have not always been supportive of social services delivery; in some cases, they have constituted administrative restrictions or regulatory bottlenecks that have stymied services with stiff administrative processes (Quamina, 2009; Yaansah, 1995). For instance, the limited provisions for the incorporation of CSPs at the CAC constitute a flaw that could compromise CSP service delivery. Further, the Nigerian government policy that centralized statutory annual filing processes by nonprofits at the Federal Capital Territory Abuja and the enabling act for the operation of a Special Control Unit

Against Money Laundering by the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC, 2012) are instances of general policies with the potential to stymie social services by nonprofits. Arguably, such policies could detract from support to social services and complicate administrative logistics for nonprofits, notwithstanding any fiscal objective of the policy.

There is thus a knowledge dimension to the problem of service delivery through multisectorial approaches and operations of CSPs in the country. The available literature, on the other hand, leaves several questions unanswered about CSPs and social service delivery. It is likely that gaps in knowledge about the usefulness of CSPs to social service delivery influence the dispositions of managers on both sides of the profit divide (Sowa, 2009), and this could explain the general aversion to partnerships observed in Nigeria today. Earlier studies also pointed to insufficient knowledge as a possible cause for the formulation of policies that were at once disabling and inappropriate to the development of social services on one hand, and on the other hand, obstructive to partnership engagements by nonprofits (Anand & Tarun, 2000; Daines et al., 1990; Quamina, 2009; Yaansah, 1995). Yaansah (1995) found that in some developing countries, government regulatory policies worked neither against nonprofits nor in their favor but tended to obstruct development aid channeled through nonprofits.

In the midst of all of these difficulties, the demand for social and charitable services has continued to increase, exacerbated by the developmental challenges in unindustrialized countries (Foster & Meinhard, 2002; Quamina, 2009). The current surge in the population of internally displaced persons affected by the activities of religious

insurgencies in Nigeria, for instance, has stretched the resources of the Nigerian Emergency Management Agency beyond limits. The services of nonstate actors, churches, and international development partners are now being mobilized as part of additional efforts to solve the social problem. These initiatives and services from the social sector could be boosted for more impact through policy backing and cross-sectorial partnership activities.

In the field of education as well, the government has acknowledged that concerted cross-sectorial efforts will be needed to meet the demand from a growing population in need of basic and technical education in the country. There has been, thus, an open recognition of need for and a call by government for cooperation or CSP with other stakeholders in field of education (Federal Ministry of Education, 2007; Kazeem & Ige, 2010; Teboho, 2000).

A CSP is a form of organizational partnership involving one or several organizations belonging to different sectors of the economy. It has been considered a stage in the collaboration continuum (Le Ber & Branzei, 2010) that originates from a desire to create social value or achieve some common good that may accord to the mission of the partners. Such complex structures, within the dynamics of organizational relationships, have been employed by some nonprofits to extend their services. Although some have found CSPs to be self-limiting and of short-term value to social service delivery (Takahashi & Smutny, 2002), CSPs have become midpiece structures between for-profit companies and nonprofits that draw on the core competences of both sectors.

They have become effective means to address market failure and create social value for nonprofits (Gordon & Daniels, 2009; Le Ber & Branzei, 2010).

However, some difficulties have been associated with service delivery through CSPs. One of these is the effort and skills required of nonprofit managers for the management of such complex interorganizational structures. There is also a danger of altering the missions or mandates of nonprofit partners to accommodate funding purposes (Ehigiamusoe, 1998). Likewise, in funding partnerships, much emphasis is placed on programmatic outcomes to the detriment of institutional support to the nonprofit partner (Frumkin, 2002), with an attendant risk of operational deficits. In other cases, CSPs have led to excessive dependence on the part of nonprofit partners, a phenomenon that has tended to compromise corporate integrity. Some scholars have also expressed doubts over the outcomes of CSR activities involving community-based organizations (Barkay, 2011; Eweje, 2006). For instance, Barkay, (2011) doubted the advantages CSR conferred on nonprofits or community when CSR becomes a marketing strategy that is geared to profitability of companies. However, some considered CSR practices not only as the morally right thing to do by businesses but also a profitable business strategy (Barkay, 2011). CSR actions have become, sometimes, business strategies that pay little attention to the morality and the outcome of such actions (Barkay, 2011). Others viewed CSR as an "enlightened self-interest (on the part of organizations) to be socially responsible" based on the hope that ethical behavior would profit companies (Eweje, 2006, p. 96).

The constraints on social service delivery and the circumstances of CSPs, as outlined above, appear to lend credence to a common concern, which is, how to

overcome political and cultural obstacles in the path of successful CSPs in order to scale up and extend social service delivery (Cernea, 1998; Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000; National Planning Commission, 2004). The same constraints on social service delivery and the circumstances of CSPs outlined above also give grounds for arguments and doubts over the benefits accruing from CSPs in favor of social services delivery, requiring further study for an in-depth understanding of how CSPs have supported social service delivery. In this sense, in this study, I explored a case of cross-sector organizational partnership in Nigeria in order to understand the key elements of CSPs that support social service delivery in the country.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore CSPs in Nigeria in order to identify key elements of such partnerships that support social service delivery by nonprofits. I looked at the case of CSP involving the TVIIT, a nonprofit institution, and other organizations namely, Institut Européen de Coopération et de Développement (IECD), the CFAO Solidarité, CFAO Nigeria, Schneider Electric, and Cummins West Africa.

I made use of an open-system theoretical framework to examine a CSP in context and attempted to close gaps identified in the literature. Proceeding in this way, the study may contribute to ongoing scholarly discussions in the field of organizational studies and administration of social services. Specifically, it could provide a deeper understanding of the mechanisms by which CSPs support social service delivery, especially when faced with controversies surrounding corporate philanthropy in the form of corporate social responsibility (Financial Reporting Council of Nigeria, 2015; Selsky & Parker, 2005).

Research Questions

Considering the CSP and social service contexts described above, against the backdrop of an open systems theory framework, I asked the following question: What are the key elements of CSPs that support social service delivery by nonprofit organizations in Nigeria? CSPs presuppose openness of organizational systems and permissiveness of organizational boundaries because, as the open system theory suggests, human organizational systems are open and tangible realities made of people who change and learn from their environment, and who are capable of shaping their environment purposefully, and in such ways that sufficient conditions for their conduct can be found within the system and environment (Bertalanffy, 1968; Emery, 2004). Some elements that support social service delivery in partnerships could also be, in some way, the various manifestations of the adaptive openness suggested by the open system theory at the individual, corporate, and partnership levels. Such catalysts of social service delivery constituted the secondary objects of exploration in this qualitative research.

The open system theory also describes human systems as featuring “reasonable balance of autonomy, self-governance, homonomy, and interdependence” (Emery, 2004, p. 48). Under this light, it could be possible to explore some elements that act at the corporate interphase, between the various units in partnership, to support service delivery of CSPs. According to the open system theory, such elements regulate the exchange of values, materials, and power among partners in such ways as to maintain a homeostatic equilibrium while the organizations remain interdependent (see also Greiner, 1998).

Thus, answering the research question could produce important lessons that may improve management of CSPs in general and help to shed light on what some might consider a general aversion to business partnerships in Nigeria. It could also provide alternative answers to secondary questions such as

1. What key elements of CSPs help to develop skills for social service delivery among staff of nonprofits?
2. What key features of CSPs promote growth in the assets and organizational size of nonprofits in support of social service delivery?
3. What key elements of a CSP show the openness of the nonprofit organizational system in Nigeria?

In considering the above questions, support to social service provision could be measured in terms of capacity development of personnel, growth in asset size, and organizational capacity for more complex partnerships. Also, as a corollary, CSPs, which permit growth of its organizational partners would manifest some degree of openness, for, as the open system theory suggests, an “organization’s survival is dependent upon its relationship with the environment” (Bastedo, 2004, p. 1).

In addition to providing answers to the research question, the study can pave the way for future research that addresses the existing situation and local circumstances related to CSP efforts in developing countries.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework chosen for this study was based on the open system theory, which conceives human systems as open, purposeful, and capable of producing

“the same functional type of outcome in different structural ways in the same structural environment and which can produce functionally different outcomes in the same and in different structural environments, displaying as it were a will” (Ackoff & Emery, 1972, p. 31, as cited in Emery, 2004, pp. 43).

The open systems theory was introduced by Bertalanffy and applied to a wide range of phenomena, especially in biology (Bertalanffy, 1968). In his work, Bertalanffy (1968) described the open system and stable state model of biological systems along with the “four models which are rather fundamental in the field of quantitative metabolism, (which) are those of the organism as open system and steady state, of homeostasis, of allometry, and the so-called Bertalanffy model of growth” (Bertalanffy, 1968, p. 156).

Bertalanffy based the open system theory on the fact that living organisms are open system by nature. That means systems that maintain themselves in a constant state by continual exchange of matter with their environment. In the thought of Bertalanffy, system theories can be useful to provide models applicable in the same or across fields, provided that vain analogies are avoided. According to the open system theory, people change and learn from their environment. In this sense, this theoretical framework views closed systems as ignoring or disregarding purposefulness-which other theories, such as the theory of the business (Drucker, 1994) and the theory of hybrid arrangements (Boryst & Jemison, 1989), consider characteristic of human behavior. Likewise, the open system theory also describes human systems as featuring “reasonable balance of autonomy, self-governance, homonomy, and interdependence” (Emery, 2004. p. 48).

The open system theory conforms to the realists' tradition (see Mead, 1932 as cited in Emery, 2004; Aquinas, as cited in Pegis, 1944; Aristotle, as cited in McKeon, 1941) whereby reality is regarded as existent and human systems as open, especially to the environment from which people extract meaningful knowledge. Consequently, people shape their environment purposefully such that sufficient conditions for human conduct can be found within the "system-in-environment." The theory affirms also that universal and species-specific laws govern human behavior (Emery, 2004). Open systems theory converges on and shares the perspective that an "organization's survival is dependent upon its relationship with the environment" (Bastedo, 2004, p. 1).

Most failures of strategic plans could be attributed to the use of a closed system framework (Emery, 2004), whereby planners ignore the external environmental influences such as the expectations of stakeholders as well as other economic and technical factors outside the organization. Thus, if organizational change could be considered a subclass of human adaptation, it is critical to understand the changing nature of the social field within which organizations and people transact (Emery, 2004).

Factors of the external environment that influence nonprofit organizations include other organizations within and outside the sector, which are capable of inducing any form of change in an organization's mission and operations. For instance, environmental forces affecting a nonprofit could cause its leaders to consider entering into CSP activities. Such adaptations, facilitated by the open nature of organizational boundaries in an open system, permit growth and organizational maturity processes (Drucker, 1994; Njuguna-

Kinyua et al., 2014; Sowa, 2009) although this has not always been so in all cases (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995).

Nature of the Study

This was a qualitative study using a case method approach to answer the research question: What are the key elements in CSPs that support nonprofit social service delivery in Nigeria? This method was appropriate considering the characteristics of the subject matter, the object, and nature of data required for the research. The margin of data required spans beyond the limits of empirical measurement to the realms of qualitative experience and within the domain of individual psych, opinion, and experience of particular species of organizational relationships. I sought to discover part of the essence of experience inhering in organizational stakeholders. The research relied more on the qualitative data from interviews and other data drawn from organizational records. The approach also emphasized the participants' experience more than my views (see Creswell, 2013).

Furthermore, this study is a case study of a CSP involving five agents from multiple sectors. The complex typifies a CSP, which can offer a clear view of most factors at play in multisectorial or CSPs. However, the study was bounded and limited to a set of corporate organizations and involved multiple sources of information. Consequently, the research questions and the investigation were geared towards exploring key elements that constitute success factors for CSPs and how such key elements play out to support sustainability of social service provision in Nigeria.

The narrative approach of a qualitative method was also considered as an alternative methodological option for the study. This should have been the approach of choice if there had been a need to take advantage of the researcher's narrative skills as a storyteller. On the contrary, a case method approach is useful when the objective is to elicit more knowledge from research participants, beyond what would ordinarily be obtained through a quantitative methodology.

Definition of Terms

CSP and social alliance: Terms commonly encountered in the social sector literature. The term *social alliance* is applied to partnerships involving for-profit and at least one nonprofit organization. It implies corporate social responsibility and cause marketing for the profit-oriented partner and funding or access to resources and skills for the nonprofit (Berger et al., 2004). Sometimes the term social alliance is applied to CSP unequivocally (Frumkin, 2002; William, Werther, & Berman, 2001). When similar partnerships between businesses involve the sharing of resources, knowledge, and capacities, they are referred to as *strategic alliances* (Berger, et al., 2004). Although the term alliance is considered rather loose and open-ended, it is often interchanged with the term *partnership*, which is considered formal and legal, with partnership conditions spelt out (William et al., 2001). On the other hand, an alliance involving more than two organizations may be considered a coalition (William et al., 2001, p. 168). However, coalitions are often larger networks of organization with loose bonds between members. Corporate partnership activities of any kind presuppose that the partner organizations operate on an open system and that the resulting partnership is also open to the influence

of its internal and external environment for development. This takes for granted that organizational development is a change process, or succession of change events over time, in the life cycle of an organization. Change in this case could be defined as an event representing movement or difference in form (quality or state) over time in an organizational entity (Van de Ven & Poole, 1995).

Nonprofit: Designates voluntary-sector organizations that have tax-exempt status. However, since the 1970s, the term *NGO* has also been applied to nonprofits, marking them out, as it were, from government, and as alternatives to government. It defined nonprofits from what they are not (Frumkin, 2002). *Independent sector*, as a term, has also been used, but it is considered a contradiction in terms when applied to nonprofits since these organizations in the social sector are, in reality, dependent on government and industry (Frumkin, 2002, p. 12). *Third sector organizations* as a term has also been employed to represent organizations with social goals. The latter term is more elastic in its representation and has been used recently to designate organizations that mobilize groups and individuals towards “shared interests, values, and commitments” (Frumkin, 2002, p. 13). The *charitable sector* is another term used to refer to the social sector in some contexts, which tends to emphasize the philanthropic aspect of the objective of organizations in the sector and draws from their common activity of empowering people for self-help. The term *voluntary sector* is also applied to the organizations in the nonprofit sector, but often in a wide-sense to include both formal and informal organizations, registered and not registered organizations (Frumkin, 2002).

Organizational culture: A complex of values, beliefs, and practices that in a way determine function or the way of doing things in an institution (Mott, 2008). There seems to be no all-embracing definition of organization culture in literature, and this causes a bit of confusion and a gap in knowledge about its content (Mott, 2008). However, a connection has been made between an organization's culture and its strategic management (Mott, 2008). For the purposes of this study, an organization's disposition towards collaboration with other organizations or with governments will be considered a part of its organizational culture.

Organizational mission: An organization's common belief and reason for being, which pervades all aspects of the organization and to which boards should agree (Hudson, 1995). Mission is central to the management of organizations, such that strategic management of institutions involves creating a clear view of the mission, and the key role of a chief executive officer is to provide a sense of mission within an organization. When considered in the order of an organization's priority, the mission is first, and money is considered a "close second" (Brinckerhoff, 2009, pp. 195-199). Thus, mission is central and all-important in any organization even though the mandate of an organization may precede its mission in the sense that every entity tends to have a term of reference that enables it to articulate the reason for which it exists (Bryson, 2011, p. 121). Mission responds to the questions about the personality of organizations and their reasons for being (Bryson, 2011, pp.139-153). It is susceptible to an external environment of organizations, depending on their stage within the organizational life cycle. It has been shown that organizations adapt to changes that accompany organizational growth by

adjusting their mission statements to reflect broader views and constituency (Werther & Berman, 2001).

Social sector: As employed in this study, social sector designates a sector of the economy geared towards nonprofit, social, or charitable ends. It is also defined as the “segment of the economy, which is devoted to enhancing the qualitative aspect of man” (Eboreime & Iyoko, 2009 P 2).

Social service: A general term for activities directed at meeting basic needs and serving the common good of a human population. Such services are considered public services or social infrastructures which serve the welfare of individuals or communities, and are usually provided by the government or the private sector (Erundu, & Oladejo, 2015).

Social service delivery: The competence of nonprofits and other voluntary agencies. It is also a common ground where multiple sectors, government, profit-making companies and nonprofits converge to provide for the basic needs of society. Such convergence on service delivery and on common objectives give grounds for collaboration and partnerships among entities, from the different sectors, in the form of CSPs. Some scholars consider CSPs effective vehicles for social service delivery. But the extent to which CSPs serve the purpose and the features of CSPs, which make this possible, are worth exploring and enhancing.

Assumptions

Given the nature of this study, there are important assumptions and limitations that must be taken into account. For instance, I assumed that research data were available

and accessible at the government departments, the companies, offices of the relevant multinational corporations, and the nonprofits. The assumption was correct and challenges noted in a field note for accurate representation of data context. I also assumed that participants from for-profit companies and nonprofit sector professionals would be willing to cooperate in the study and express their informed opinion or experience in CSPs.

Scope and Delimitations

In this study, I addressed the gaps in knowledge of CSPs specifically, knowledge about factors intrinsic or extrinsic to CSPs, which advanced social service provision in Nigeria. The study was bounded and limited to study of a CSP in Nigeria constituted by a nonprofit foundation and four profit-making companies, albeit multinational in nature. The targeted partnership typifies organizational CSPs in general and has been targeted in a purposeful single case study. Participant selection was also purposeful and limited to persons who had relevant knowledge of the partnership under study. This included the staff of companies and students of the technical training institute who were direct beneficiaries of the CSP in question.

The open system theoretical framework for the study alluded to the openness of organizations to external and internal influences. This applies to corporate bodies, whether single or in partnership. Findings in the study were limited and could not be readily generalized. However, according to Maxwell (2013), “The value of a qualitative study may depend on its lack of external generalizability in the sense of being representative of a larger population” (p. 137). This is because what is studied could

present rich description and insight into a “setting or population that is illuminating as an extreme case or ideal type” (Maxwell, 2013, p. 137). Nonetheless, transferability of findings and participants; experience of a phenomenon could be achieved through a detailed description of what was experienced (Apori-Nkansah, 2008). For that reason, I dedicate a good proportion of the discussion to a detailed description of the findings. The measures taken to ensure the validity of the findings also indirectly contribute to the transferability of such findings.

Limitations

In a case study method of qualitative research, the researcher is an instrument for data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2013). However, the researcher could be subjective and biased, and because of this, the researcher could call such danger to mind and struggle to remain neutral in the course of the study (Apori-Nkansah, 2008).

Another limitation to the research is due to the scope of investigation that is limited to Nigeria. Further, the sample method and size appear limited to participants who had sufficient knowledge of the phenomenon under study. This was a study of a cross-partnership case in Nigeria, and even though some of the findings may be applicable to nonprofits beyond Nigeria, the possibility of generalizing the research conclusions is limited.

Significance of the Study

The study could be relevant given that some applicable organizational theories seem to fall short of fully explaining the why and when of the social service provision roles of nonprofits as well as the levels of competition and collaboration across

government, business, and nonprofit sectors (see Frumkin, 2002). It seems reasonable to assume that additional information from research on CSPs related to social service delivery could provide more information to fill knowledge gaps and encourage support for social service delivery efforts (see Cernea, 1998; Melendez, 1998; Shirley, 2001).

Although the amount of research on CSPs has increased in the past 25 years (Selsky et al., 2005), a qualitative case study of CSP dynamics in Nigeria could provide academic and practical knowledge that might otherwise remain hidden from empirical learning processes (see Creswell, 2013; Willis, 2004). This is especially so because not much research has been carried out on the social impacts of CSPs in developing countries (Selsky et al., 2005). Furthermore, little empirical research has been done, for instance, on how nonprofits or NGOs themselves construe partnership or CSPs, just as little research has been carried out on how nonprofits implement CSPs in practice or the challenges they face in developing and managing such partnerships effectively (Brehm, 2001).

Thus, an exploratory study on CSPs involving nonprofits may give insight into how such organizational superstructures have functioned in Nigeria and how they have supported social service delivery, especially within the local Nigerian cultural and business milieu. Such a restricted study may offer a covert perspective that previous researchers in this field may have ignored. Berger et al. (2004) suggested that future studies on social alliances should “continue to develop concepts, theories, and frameworks that capture the challenges and opportunities presented by social alliances” (p. 88). The current study may contribute to knowledge in this area and indicate further

challenges from the perspective of nonprofit managers in Nigeria. The social sector literature can be richer and add more value when it integrates theories of organizational behavior with theories of human behavior (Gazley, 2010), especially where there is need to offer further explanation of how CSPs are managed to promote nonprofit missions and services.

Furthermore, this study presents opportunities to support the Nigerian social sector, which has been described as a segment of the economy concerned with developing the quality of life and social welfare of people (Eboreime & Iyoko, 2009). The sector has witnessed declining government investment in the past especially in the areas of education and health, which has attracted about 80% of expenditure in the social sector (Eboreime & Iyoko, 2009). For instance, public expenditure on health and education as a percentage of the gross domestic product declined from 1.9% to 1.4% and from 1.4% to 0.9%, respectively, from 1980 to 2003 (African Development Bank, 2008, as cited in Eboreime & Iyoko, 2009). This declining trend has continued unchecked and will probably persist given the present economic outlook in the country, which is marked by a reduction in revenue to the federal government. Some development experts have suggested the CSP among different tiers of government, the organized private sector, and nonprofits as a way to effectively tackle the social problem. However, this type of alliance can only work where there is less government resistance to the involvement of NGOs in the field of international development assistance (Quamina, 2009; Yaansah, 1995)—a situation that is gradually evolving with the increasing acknowledgment of the development roles of NGOs (Salamon, 2002).

Lastly, it is worth noting that in its poverty reduction strategy document, the Nigerian government prioritized social service provision in a development agenda for the next decade, positioning the CSP as a key vehicle for achieving social service delivery objectives (National Planning Commission, 2004). In this sense, lessons from this case study could provide relevant insight into the implementation of such tripartite partnerships and add to ongoing efforts to strengthen civil society and its initiatives in Nigeria.

Summary

In this chapter, I introduced the research theme, which is about CSPs involving nonprofits, and the advantages of the phenomenon to social service promotion. Given the context of weak civil society and proliferation of nonprofits within the past 2 decades in Nigeria, coupled with an increasing demand for social services in the country, there has been a growing attention drawn to CSPs as a way to promote social service delivery. The purpose of the research was thus to explore a case of CSP in Nigeria in order to identify key elements in the partnership that support social service delivery.

The research was designed as an exploratory study, within the qualitative tradition, to provide answers to the research question: What are the key elements of CSPs that promote social service delivery of nonprofits in Nigeria? The selected CSP was studied from the perspective of the open system theoretical framework (see Bertalanffy, 1968), which suggests an intrinsic openness of human organizational systems that account, in some way, for partnership and sustenance of services in a given corporate environment.

The significance of the study may stem from its potential contribution to explain social service delivery by nonprofits and through CSPs. Such knowledge would not only increase support to nonprofit social service delivery and improve policy administration in the social sector (Frumkin, 2002) but also contribute to the successful implementation of the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) by federal government in Nigeria (National Planning Commission, 2004). In the next chapter, I focus on reviews of relevant literature on the research theme.

Organization of the Subsequent Chapters

The remaining chapters of the dissertation follow a general layout. Chapter 2 outlines findings from a review of the relevant literature about the social sector and nonprofit organizations. It also extends literature to reveal the context of Nigerian CSPs in line with social sector literature. In Chapter 3, I focus on methodology. I outline methods employed in data collection and analysis, indicating the proofs for validity and risks. In Chapter 4, I present the qualitative data and analysis of data obtained from the research field. I present the results from the analysis. Chapter 5 contains the conclusions drawn from the data analysis and suggestions for future research. I also highlight possible social impacts consequent on the research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The social context of Nigeria shows a militarized and weak civil society, and in the past 2 decades, a proliferation of nonprofits, coupled with an increasing demand for social services. This has led to a general demand for CSPs as a way of fostering social service delivery. However, lack of skills and capacity for organizational partnerships, as well as inadequate understanding of the nonprofit sector, seem to be contributing to problems associated with social service delivery in the country.

The purpose of the research was thus to explore a CSP in Nigeria, in order to identify key elements of the partnership that support social service delivery.

Summary of Current Literature Relevant to the Problem

The provision of social services by nonprofits has been praised and commended by many (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012a; Eboreime & Iyoko, 2009; Njuguna-Kinyua et al., 2014; Salamon, 2002). However, the scale and effectiveness of delivery, and consequently the social impact of the services, have varied remarkably across regions of the world, depending often on local contexts. For instance, the extent of social services provided by nonprofits has depended on such diverse factors as organizational size, access to funding, government legal or policy frameworks, and, to some extent, activities of organizations within the same or different sectors of the economy (Quamina, 2009; Yaansah, 1995).

Some scholars have advanced organizational CSP activities not only as an effective measure to overcome limits imposed on social service delivery by the small size

of most nonprofits, but also as conferring some capacity on the partnering organizations for effective service delivery (Berger et al., 2004; Daines et al., 1990; Foster & Meinhard, 2002). However, there is a need for a deeper understanding of the mechanism by which partnership activities confer such advantages (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012b) within specific circumstances of nonprofits in developing countries such as Nigeria, given that, in spite of the great preference for organizational partnerships, such initiatives are limited and not well understood in Nigeria.

Organizational partnership activities increasingly engaged the attention of researchers, especially in the past 2 decades when the number of organizations in the social-sector space and the demand for social services increased rapidly. The term organizational partnership is generally used by organizational scholars to refer to formal arrangements for collaborations amongst corporate bodies, for specific or general purposes of interest to the partners. The term has also been employed in literature to imply various forms of organizational and business relationships involving two or more organizations (Austin & Seitanidi, 2012b; Wilson, 2001). In this study, however, I used the term to refer to various types of formal and informal networks, collaborations, coalitions, and cooperation among nonprofits or between nonprofit organizations and for-profit companies, governments, or foreign missions. These forms of partnerships that have essentially social and charitable goals were more appropriately termed social alliances, as opposed to strategic partnerships (Berger et al., 2004). Strategic partnership seems to be more designed for profit-oriented corporate relationships and geared solely towards partner advantages (Berger et al., 2004). An increased demand for social services

following demographic changes in developing countries within the past decade has drawn attention to CSPs as vehicles for delivery of social services (Amadi & Abdullah, 2011).

In Nigeria, as in many other developing countries, demands for social service provision have also continued to increase all through the past decade and so did the number of nonprofits and nonprofit activities, which increased exponentially in the period. There are approximately 69,729 registered nonprofits in Nigeria (CAC, 2014), and comparatively 350,000 in Kenya (1997-2005), and 150 in Mozambique (USAID, 2010). Nonetheless, there seems to be insufficient descriptive information on nonprofits and nonprofit partnership activities geared towards social services provision. According to Salamon & Anheier, (1998), rich philanthropic traditions abound in the bosom of the religious culture, which exists in most African countries, but most of this is unknown to nonprofit literature. In fact, the prevailing organizational theories tend to reinforce an old myth, which considered the phenomenon of nonprofit and charity Western or alien to the developing world (Salamon & Anheier, 1998). Some scholars, such as Kourula & Laasonen. (2010), considered literature on CSPs as nonexhaustive and concluded that social movement literature and institutional theories are not prominently utilized in NGO literature. A recent survey of the third sector in some African countries showed that “most African countries governments are yet unfamiliar with the practice of contracting to NGOs” (USAID, 2010, p. 2). What is more, the prevailing organizational theories tend to reinforce an old myth, which considered the phenomenon of nonprofit and charity Western or alien to the developing world (Salamon & Anheier, 1998). This could explain,

in part, the poor understanding of social service delivery through CSPs in developing countries.

Knowledge about nonprofits should ordinarily extend to all aspects of the organizations, including their formation, composition, services and service delivery methods as well as partnership activities with other-sector organizations. Some researchers have successfully helped to advance knowledge on nonprofits and social services in developing countries, but only few of such studies, as the work by Salamon & Anheier, (1998), focused on a nonprofit sector in sub-Saharan Africa (Salamon & Anheier, 1998). Thus, it appears that researchers have not yet sufficiently explored partnerships built around social-service delivery, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. Indeed, social-service delivery by nonprofits in developing countries tends to be grossly underestimated and is considered less complex than it really is. According to Salamon & Anheier,(1998), rich philanthropic traditions abound in the bosom of the religious culture, which exists in most African countries. For instance, voluntary actions and community self-help initiatives are common activities of most traditional communities in Nigeria.

In a review of nonprofit, business and corporate social responsibility literature Austin and Seitanidi (2012b) showed some of the dynamics intrinsic to selection, formation, building, and implementation of organizational partnerships. In the same vane, also, Kourula and Laasonen (2010) reviewed 88 works selected from 11 journals in an attempt to understand the state of research on the NGO–business relationship as expressed in the literature of business and society, management, and international business journals. The search revealed a shift in the focus of NGO services from

government towards businesses, such that what was once an adverse relationship between NGOs and businesses began to be a relationship of cooperation and partnership. The researchers also concluded that literature on CSPs has not been exhausted, and that both social movement literature and organizational theories yet to feature prominently in NGO literature (Kourula & Laasonen, 2010).

Literature, nonetheless, has addressed many factors at play in the initiation and operation of CSPs. One such factor is the motivation of organizational agents in partnership, which influences decisions to partner by board members across the profit divide (Chen & Graddy, 2010). Another is the positive or negative experience of board members (Gazley, 2010), and related to this as a core influence in partnership initiation and sustenance is knowledge about the workings of CSPs. Although institutional and economic theories of organizational collaboration over the years seemed to focus more on mutual benefits and incentives as driving forces for collaborative actions, competition between partners and partnerships for available resources had negative effects, which ought to also be taken into account (Gazley, 2010). On the other hand, the demand for delivery and maintenance of humanitarian and social service has also been a major cause for CSPs (Amadi & Abdullah, 2011).

Of the different types of partnerships and networks built around social service delivery, the CSP is more complex, involving one or more non-profit organizations and a government agency or a profit-making company. This type of partnership stands out not only because it is a vehicle for social service delivery, but also for the benefits the partnership arrangement confers on the partnering organizations (Le Ber & Branzei,

2010; MacCormack, 2003; Weinstein & Cook, 2011). For instance, when Non Governmental Organizations (NGO) activities involved for-profit businesses, behavioral changes ensued at individual and corporate levels, especially where such changes resulted in corporate social responsibility initiatives (Kourula & Laasonen, 2010). There is no doubt that some learning experience is associated with partnership activities across the profit divide (Anand & Khanna, 2000), and as Gazley, (2010) concluded, direct experience and background of non-profit executives are key factors in decisions about organizational collaboration, even though experience and socio-cultural backgrounds, rest on a fulcrum formed by morality and ethics as principles of action (Cooper, 2012).

Besides learning, other benefits accrue on CSP activities. For instance, in a study of organizational collaboration, Suarez (2010) showed that nonprofits, which relied on paid staff for service delivery and those that partner with multiple agencies were more likely to receive government funding. Using collaboration theory as a lens he found a positive correlation between non-profit collaboration and government funding, premised on the belief that the advantages outweigh the setbacks there may be in collaborative activities (Suarez, 2010). A further inference from the finding points to professionalism in management of nonprofits, as an important factor in CSPs and in service delivery by nonprofits.

Social alliance, which is a CSP with purely social objectives, According to Berger et al., (2004) evolved through three-phases namely, the traditional philanthropic phase, the transactional stage, and the integrative stage, when there is more collective action and

organizational integration of partners' missions, people, and activities, and when such begin to be experienced. The latter phase, referred to as the collaboration frontier in cross-sector alliances was the object of study by Berger et al. (2004), in which they sort to understand the characteristics, factors, and circumstances that enabled or impeded such alliances, their evolution over time, the greatest challenges they faced, and the greatest opportunities or benefits they presented (Berger et al, 2004). Data collection for the study was by a purposeful elitist interview, and the findings pointed to cultural differences between sectors as key problem in partnerships (Berger et al., 2004). Other identified obstacles to CSPs include misunderstanding and misconceptions about partner objectives, perceptions of unfair distribution of costs and benefits among partners, too little initiative on the part of nonprofit partner, which translates into too few benefits for the profit-making company, and mismatch of partners, especially where there is an absence of complementary skills (Berger et al, 2004). Trust, also played a role in behavior pattern of staff and directors (Berger et al, 2004).

In the same vane, Le Ber & Branzei (2010) also examined similar phase in CSP and explained how the duality of success and failure in strategic collaborations can be managed. However the study stopped short of showing how constituent organizations in partnership adjusted roles and business assumptions, in order to forge successful collaboration and create values for each partner. Although creation and sustenance of CSPs demand effort and constraints abound on the path to creating a CSP, some institutions have successfully constituted and used CSPs to create social change in consistent ways. Some scholars seemed to explain such successful performance by the

openness of organizational boundaries to the evolving external environments of the organizations and to changing sector policy frameworks (Drucker, 1994; Le Ber & Branzei, 2010). What remains unclear however, is the reason for corporate reluctance towards partnerships, in spite of the rapidly changing external operating environment, technology and regulatory policies. For instance, there is no clear explanation for the aversion to partnership observed among many Nigerians, corporate organizations, and nonprofits.

Chapter Overview

The objective for this literature review was to analyze and synthesis the existing literature on social service delivery and CSP involving nonprofits. The review also extended to literature on corporate social responsibility practices, social sector policies, and a more detailed overview of the theoretical frameworks for the study. Finally, the chapter highlighted some gaps identified in literature.

Literature Sources

Relevant literature on the research theme and on the theoretical background was drawn from some local libraries, EBSCO Academic search premier and Business search premier and ProQuest. Other sources were the Dissertations and theses databases, the Google search engine, and the Walden University e-library. A subject-based technique was used in the search too (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008) as well as random net search for academic journals using search engines other than the Google. The National Bureau of Statistics database, albeit virtual, was also been a useful source of literature and warrants for some of the local contexts.

Literature Key Search Terms

Search terms used include *social sector development, social service delivery, CSPs, nonprofits, nongovernmental organization, social-sector policy development, and CSR.*

The Iterative Search Process

The search process was also iterative and some search terms were used in several databases of the various sources of literature with varying degree of success. Many of the journal articles on social services and social sector development were sourced at the business and management section of the virtual library at Walden University, and were supplemented also by an iterative search at the Google scholar database. Often references cited on some journal articles and books served as further pointers to relevant articles, which led to more purposeful search to identify germane scholarship.

Theoretical Foundation

Organizational scholars over the years have offered various theories in a bid to proffer some framework for understanding human organizations and the complexes arising from combination of organizations (Berger, et al., 2004; Bertalanffy, 1968; Drucker, 1994; Takahashi & Smutny, 2002;). CSP is one such organizational complex that can be viewed through different theoretical frameworks (Sowa, 2009), such as the *Open System Theory*, which refers to the openness and boundary permeability of human organizations.

As a build up to his systems theory, Bertalanffy (1968) had observed what anthropomorphic and zoomorphic fallacies plagued early psychology. The former

(anthropomorphic fallacy) tends to input to animals traits that are essentially human, while the latter attempts to obliterate any difference between animals and man (Bertalanffy, 1968. P10). The Origin of such fallacies, or errors in analogical attribution, could be traced to similarities observed in social and biological systems of animals and human beings. Such similarities also moved Bertalanffy (1968) to closer observation of systems and to come by the seed of his system theories, which postulate that systems of various fields of study can and in reality have some things in common.

Thus, according to Bertalanffy (1968), systems in science share things in common such that some principles apply to all in a general way, irrespective of the field. Such generalized principles or “general system properties” seem to indicate some “structural similarities or isomorphisms” there are in different fields (Bertalanffy, 1968, P. 33). This also means that certain laws and principles can apply to divergent fields of science and bodies, because the entities involved are considered to be “systems,” defined as “complexes of elements standing in interaction” (Bertalanffy, 1968, P. 33). For instance, some isomorphic features can be found between biological systems, animal communities, and human societies (Bertalanffy, 1968. P 34), Thus, barring vain analogies, Bertalanffy observes that system theories can provide models applicable in the same or across fields. This fact seemed to pose a challenge for science, because certain concepts applicable to “organized complexities” such as “organization, wholeness, directiveness, teleology, and differentiation” which apply to “biological, behavioral and social sciences” appear to be indispensable when dealing with living organisms or social groups (Bertalanffy, 1968. P 34):

These considerations lead to the postulate of a new scientific discipline, which we call general system theory. Its subject matter is formulation of principles that are valid for "systems" in general, whatever the nature of their component elements and the relations or "forces" between them.

(Bertalanffy, 1968, p. 37)

Ludwig Bertalanffy, (1968) thus unified varied principles already found in science into conceptual models of systems. One of such models is the *Open Systems Theory*, which he proposed and applied to a wide range of phenomena and to biological systems. He describes the open system and stable state model of biological systems in “four models which are rather fundamental in the field of quantitative metabolism, (which) are those of the organism as open system and steady state, of homeostasis, of allometry, and the so-called Bertalanffy model of growth.” (Bertalanffy, 1968. P156).

The open system theory is based on the conceptual frame that living organisms are open systems by nature. As such, they are systems that maintain themselves in a constant state by continual exchange of matter with their environment. Consequently, open systems can be distinguished from closed systems by such attributes as; attainment of a steady state that is time-independent “under certain conditions” while “closed systems must eventually attain a time-independent state of chemical and thermodynamic equilibrium”. Also the “Steady states” of open systems are “equifinal” meaning that the same time-independent state may be reached from different initial conditions and in different ways” (Bertalanffy, 1968. P159). He noted however that “classical thermodynamics, by definition, is only concerned with closed systems” (Bertalanffy,

1968. P159). The theory hence affirms that social and human organizations, like living organisms, are “hierarchical order of open systems” that have spatial or dynamic boundaries” (Bertalanffy, 1968. Pp160-215). The open system theory had a wide range of impact in social sciences, and has been used extensively by organizational scholars to explain the phenomenon of organizational changes and management.

Drucker (1994) for instance, propounded *The theory of the business* in which he affirmed that some foundational assumptions by organizations about mission, organizational environment and core competence, served to mold organizational behavior and influenced decisions about what to do and what is considered meaningful results (Drucker, 1994. P96). Such basic assumptions are contingent by nature and should be reviewed with time to match ruling operational environment and technological changes, and according to Drucker (1994), failure to review the said assumptions would not only make them obsolete but also endanger the organization. This theory helps understanding of organizational changes that lead to formation of CSPs, for social service delivery, especially when considering discontinuous type of organizational change referent to transformational factors such as the external environment, mission, and strategy.

Although organizations go into social alliances for various reasons, there is doubt that the origin of CSPs in Nigeria is found in the foundational assumptions of organizations, as envisaged by Drucker, (1994); not even when CSPs are seen as good means to deliver social good and create values for nonprofits, because they draw on the core competences of partners in alliance to address market failure (Brehm, 2001; Suarez, 2010).

Emery, (2004) affirmed that resistance to and failure of organizational change processes are due to failure in the understanding of social and human behavior, because the various theories about human organizational behavior and group behavior seem to be conceived from either of the two perspectives of reality, namely, realism and idealism. Realism posits that reality exists and human systems are open to their environment, from where people extract meaningful knowledge. Consequently people shape their environment purposefully, such that sufficient conditions for human conduct can be found within the “system-in-environment”. It affirmed also that universal and specie specific laws govern human behavior (Aquinas, as cited in Pegis, 1944; Aristotle, as cited in McKeon, 1941; Bertalanffy, 1968; Emery, 2004, pp. 43-69; Mead, 1932 as cited in Emery, 2004).

The open system theory, which is the theoretical lens for this study, conceived human systems as open and purposeful, capable of producing the same functional type of outcome in different structural ways within the same structural environment. By the same token, they can also produce functionally different outcomes in the same and different structural environments, displaying as it were a will (Ackoff & Emery, 1972; as cited in Emery, 2004; Bertalanffy, 1968). Acting as active agents therefore, people can change their environment and also learn from their environment. Consequently, the theory considered all systems that ignore the purposefulness of human behavior as destined to failure. Other characteristics ascribed to human systems by the theory include “reasonable balance of autonomy, self-governance, homonomy, and interdependence” (Emery, 2004 P. 48).

Consequently, failures of some strategic plans have been attributed to the use of closed system frameworks that ignored the influence of the external environment such as stakeholder expectations, and economic or technical factors outside the organization. Thus, considering organizational change as a subclass of human adaptation, Emery (2004) deemed it critical to understand the changing nature of the social field within which organizations and people transact. Indeed it was thought that behavior is more influenced by past experience than by what is in the future (Greiner, 1998).

The open system theory of organizational change could also be linked to and viewed alongside other theories that highlight development processes. Specifically the theories, which consider that differentiation precedes integration necessarily, implying that individuals or groups within organizations must operate as open system before the whole organization can operate as an open system (Corlett, 2010).

In a related set of theories regarding the open nature of organizational changes, Greiner (1998) observed that organizations in processes of growth passed through stages of evolution, which stabilized at a point until some crises within or outside the organizations led to revolution, resulting in a new phase of growth, followed by stagnation, or death (Greiner, 1998). Five factors were implicated in the said organizational growth pattern namely, organizational age, size, stage in the process of evolution or revolution, and the rate of growth of the economic sector (Greiner, 1998).

Age of an organization was a key factor because, some organizational practices were limited to some periods in the life cycle of an organization, just as some management crises were usually set in time. Also, with time some practices in an

organization became rooted as tradition. Size of an organization on other hand, tended to bring with it some problems that required new solutions as an organization increased. This might imply more staff, more coordination, and more adjustments in the organization. The stage of growth in the evolution process was a period, or another factor, which was marked by quiet steady growth lasting for some years, and usually requiring few management adjustments to maintain growth. Revolutionary stage instead, was characterized by organizational turmoil over organizational practices and disgruntled management, an indication that growth had a limit. Finally the growth rate of the economic sector was a factor, which basically determined the rate at which an organization experienced evolution and revolution within its sector of the economy. This in turn is closely related to the business environment (Greiner, 1998; Van de Ven and Poole, 1995).

A critical review of an organizational life cycle, as a unified open systems model for explaining organizational change, also showed a similarity between organizational life cycle and the life-cycle pattern of changes in living beings, with respect to growth, maturity, decline, and death (Sundarasaradula, & Hasan, 2003). However, such comparison is essentially analogical, granting that organizational systems are more complex than biological systems, being composed of both social and biological elements. Thus, analogically the ontogenic development in living beings may be comparable to the growth of social organizations, albeit with their basic constituents and mechanisms, which are socio-technical (Bertalanffy, 1968). However the growth model by Greiner

(1998) seemed deterministic, bereft of much explanation of the basic reasons behind the growth process and its mechanics (Sundarasaradula, & Hasan, 2003).

An attempt to equate changes in living organisms to changes in human organizations could also be problematic because biological systems can be explained almost completely in terms of physical and chemical changes, while organizations are more complex socio-technical systems involving groups of people and technology that work together in an organized manner, which can only be fully explained in different terms. Thus, although organizations, in general, may experience decline and death, the entropic process in organizations seem less definite and more complicated than it is in organisms. The dissimilarity can also be ascribed to differences in boundary permeability and the capacity to reorganize as a result of external environmental or contextual factors of influence (Kiel, 1991, as cited in Sundarasaradula, & Hasan, 2003; Njuguna-Kinyua, Munyoki, & Kibera, 2014). Comparatively therefore, biological systems may be considered less resilient than social systems with respect to natural decline. Life expectancy for instance would be relatively definite for a particular type of organism, while it is difficult to specify for organizations (Scott, 1998, as cited in Sundarasaradula, & Hasan, 2003).

To remain in a homeokinetic state, both biological and social systems require adequate control of boundary permeability, and the presence of sustainable living systems for proper functioning. Reduced control would lead to poor integration and chaos, while excessive control brings poor adaptation and inflexibility (Corlett, 2010; Sundarasaradula, & Hasan, 2003)

In a related study, Borys & Jemison (1989) worked on organizational hybrids forged by combination of corporate entities. The study centered more on strategic alliance and broached the issue of boundary permeability and value creation, which are central to both strategic and social alliances. The study implicitly took for granted that organizational systems were open and purposeful. “Purpose” was found to play an important role in hybrids, offering institutional guiding and legitimizing functions, but also presenting a paradox about breadth of purpose (Borys & Jemison, 1989). In whichever case, a commitment to hybrid purpose aids management legitimization of partner actions on the basis of the hybrid purpose.

Borys & Jemison, (1989) also made various valid propositions that showed the importance of purpose in organizational combination as follows; where purpose is broader than activities, hybrid resources are likely to be depleted by undue claims on hybrid, and when “stated purpose is narrower than the scope of actual activities” there will be less cooperation from employees of the hybrid (Borys & Jemison, 1989). Propositions with respect to value creation highlighted the need for partners in a hybrid to have clear understanding of expected value and the process of its creation, in order to ensure cooperation of all. In general, performance of hybrids is influenced by the precision of agreements about hybrid boundary (Borys & Jemison, 1989).

Literature Review

Cross-Sector Organizational Partnerships and Social Service Delivery in Nigeria

Social service provision is very important for the development of nations (See Erundu, 2015) and CSPs have been acclaimed as good means for delivering such services

in developing countries (Gordon & Daniels, 2009; Selsky & Parker, 2005). Necessarily, CSP involves organizations from two or more sectors such as the public (government), the private (for-profit companies), and the social sector (nonprofits). Governments and nonprofits are usually involved in social service provision driven by their constitutional mandates. Thus, very often, social service delivery is a motive for CSPs involving government and the social sector agents (Selsky & Parker, 2005).

There could be a secondary motive for partnering by nonprofits, which is to scale up their operations. Usually nonprofits in Nigeria tend to be small in size and limited in their operational scope (Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Monfort 1997). Such limitations also translate into limited impact of their services (Cernea, 1988; Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Ulleberg, 2009). This is because most of the organizations have limited financial resources, and are often dependent on grants and donations to sustain their operations (Morse & McNamara, 2006). In fact, financial viability is a problem for nonprofits in Nigeria. Local giving is weak and Nigerian governments do not fund NGOs officially. The crude oil drilling and marketing companies do not support nonprofits much either. They would rather deal with community leaders and make interventions in community development initiatives. This latter practice is slightly changing, because some of the companies tend to partner with CBOs. Such interventions and other company CSR actions do not often serve majority of NGOs (Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Eweje, 2006; Muthuri, Moon & Idemudia, 2012). Thus, with a rapid growth in number of nonprofits and an unmatched increase in funding there could be "a rise in nonprofit bankruptcies" (Frumkin 2002 P. 77).

Staff number and skills are also limited in the social sector, and in some cases one staff carries on several functions. Operating in this fashion compromises the reach and impact of social services that nonprofits provide. Staff strength and turnover of organizations are factors that can determine sustainability of mission and operations of nonprofits (See Brinckerhoff, 2009 P 99). This is especially so where there is lack of institutional support and resources to train or retain skilled staff.

But contrary to expectations however, the limitations associated with small corporate size have not led to increase in CSPs activities by nonprofits. Indeed, most nonprofits in Nigeria still design and implement programs in isolation (Ehigiamusoe, 1998). On the other hand, the political, legal and policy environment in the country has not been too enabling for nonprofit organizations to operate and partner effectively (Quamina, 2009). These limitations and challenges also exposed non-profit organizations and CSPs to suspicious antagonism, which sometimes, call their legitimacy to question or compromise their social service delivery efforts (Ehigiamusoe, 1998, pp59-61).

For instance, the multi-ethnic nature of the Nigerian population and the cultural diversity are elements in the social fabric that could have predisposed persons of a region to avoid partnerships involving people from other regions. Thus, tribalism, which is an excessive concern for tribal division, has been a destabilizing element in the political life of the country. In fact, tribalism was one of the root causes of the civil war, which lasted for three years in Nigeria, from 1967 to 1970 (See White, 1981). This civil crisis and its antecedent pogrom left in its wake ethnic antipathy, which later generations of Nigerians are yet to be rid of.

The multicultural and ethnic differences notwithstanding, the legal frameworks that nurture corporate entities are not fashioned to encourage corporate partnerships, particularly CSPs, within the country. At least, there seems to be no provision for registration of such partnership formations at the corporate affairs commission of Nigeria.

Further, in 2016 and 2017 the legislative house in Nigeria deliberated on a draft bill, formulated and proposed by Senator Jubril (2016), a member of the legislative assembly, to regulate registration and activities of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the country. *The non-governmental regulatory commission of Nigeria bill 2016*, which was proposed and passed initial reading or deliberations for enactment at the National Assembly, showed a legislative mind that had very little understanding of nonprofits and the social sector activities. It was also an evidence, albeit poor one, that the regulatory framework for nonprofit sector in Nigeria requires amendments to encourage functional partnerships in the sector.

The proposed bill, which had already passed two readings on the floor of the legislative assembly, recommended fresh registration of all operating NGOs under a new regulatory commission. This was in spite of all earlier incorporations of nonprofits at the Corporate Affairs Commission (CAC) by virtue of which the organizations were juridical persons. If the bill were passed, it would lead to double registration for NGOs, and an additional administrative burden, as well as an extra cost for nonprofits. Also, the registration as recommended by the bill was discriminatory, because it does not apply to NGOs promoted by the state or group of states. Such discrimination would only introduce disparity in standards and governance of NGOs.

Further, the proposed bill makes it mandatory for operating NGOs to seek collaboration and approval from government ministries in order to propose or carry out social services. This requirement would have entailed an administrative bottleneck that could stymie social sector spontaneity in project execution, especially with the attendant corruption associated with the public sector bureaucracy in Nigeria. This is to be expected because government ministry officials, by training or orientation, have an approach to social service provision, which is different from the social-sector approach. Such misalignment of skills and mentality would constitute an obstacle to social service delivery. In the circumstance, nonprofits would be forced to wait for official government approvals before implementing any social projects. Or, as Jubril (2016) proposed, institutional support to nonprofits will be channeled through government departments for purposes of regulation and monitoring of such assistance to nonprofits.

In the same vane, a certification by the proposed regulatory commission is required for a nonprofit to operate in the country. The said certification is temporary, lasting for two years at most, and subject to renewal at the expiration of the period. This entails an extra-ordinary administrative or bureaucratic burden for nonprofits. It also places NGOs under the unbridled control of government officials, especially by making NGOs absolutely subject to the decision of a Minister, without any provisions for recourse to a court of law against government ministries, to redress wrong decisions. The proposed bill ignores the fact that registered nonprofits are, de facto, juridical persons.

In the case of demised nonprofit organizations, the bill provided for the redistribution of the assets of such organizations by an arbitrary board, on behalf of the

government, but failed to take due account of the provisions in the registered organizational memoranda and articles of association.

Although CSPs and alliances appear to be welcome initiatives in social services delivery (Selsky et al., 2005), they are difficult to create and manage, and their sustainability is often not guaranteed (Ehigiamusoe, 1998; Berger, et al, 2004). On the other hand, nonprofit literature does not seem to offer full explanation for the slow establishment rate of CSPs in the face of growing demand for social services in Nigeria, nor does literature offer full explanation for the seemingly prevalent aversion towards partnerships in the country. However some social researchers have offered cultural and historical perspectives, which could remotely explain the contemporary societal disposition in the country. Perspectives from the history of colonial administration of Nigeria, for instance, alluded to years of administrative and governance crisis, which set stage for unitary, less participatory and less democratic institutions, prone to abuse and corruption (White, 1981).

This historical view provides an insight into the current disposition towards cross-sector organizational partnerships for social service provision in the country. According to this perspective by White (1981), there were two major forms of governance practices, which prevailed in Nigeria from 1848 to 1914 namely, a democratic parliamentary system in the South, and a feudal indirect rule in the North. These governance dispositions continued without much change, even after amalgamation of the Northern and Southern Nigeria in 1914, until Nigerian independence from the British colonial administration in 1960. This meant that governance was basically by indirect rule,

through the traditional native administration of Muslim Emirates in the Northern Nigeria, and quasi-democratic parliamentary governance in the South. The divergent forms of governance systems, one tending towards modern democratic dispensation and the other deriving from native theocracy, tending towards autocracy, constituted an early seed of discord and resentment, buried within the national social contract (White, 1981). The effect of this was manifested in the civil society, and political relations in later years (Falola, 2001; White, 1981).

The amalgamation of the two “Nigerias” to constitute a single entity brought together diverse ethnic, cultural and religious groupings (White, 1981). There are about 250 ethnic groups in Nigeria and three dominant religions (Christianity, Islam and Traditional religion). Although the struggle for independence from British colonization brought leaders from the various ethnic groups together under a common front, such primordial political alliance was not long lasting and strong enough to break the ethnic barriers to unity and communal social alliance (Achebe, 2012). It is only natural that soon after independence, ethnicity or tribalism became a major socio-political influence in the country. Mutual suspicion underpinned and fostered local social groups, which emerged in attempts to preserve socio-cultural identities within the nation (Achebe, 2012; Soyinka 2006).

A post-independence civil crisis and subsequent long military rule in the country during the periods 1966 to 1999 further aggravated the divisions and tended to militarize, and muzzle the civil society (Soyinka, 2006). This situation also helped to move civil society groups to join forces in local networks and in alliance with some international

agents, to defend human rights against gross violations, and to press for democratic governance (Soyinka, 2006).

On the other hand, the quest for basic social amenities and reduction in the level of poverty coupled with flawed governance practices, helped to increase civil-society activism. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) sprang up to close the gaps in welfare and social services (Ehigiamusoe, 1998). Initially most of the nonprofits worked on their own accord, and sort funding from local communities, private sector and foreign sources. The dependence on international grants in aid, tended to dictate the type of NGOs formed and the type of activities carried out by some nonprofits. Thus, for instance, in the 1990s, the environmentally focused NGOs abounded in Nigeria (Ehigiamusoe, 1998). Also some community-based organizations (CBOs) carried on community self-help projects and actions jointly, with their communities especially in the Eastern Nigeria, where post-civil-war reconstruction in the 1970s was needed. Some United Nations agencies like UNICEF were closely involved in the reconstruction and restocking activities in the educational sector, jointly with the government and CBOs.

The Provision of social services is very important for development of nations even though some governments often seem to ignore it (Erondu, 2015). In the case of Nigeria, the long period of military dictatorship and unguarded lurch on market economy by subsequent civilian administrations have led to negligence of vital social services. The damage caused by such long period of negligence requires a concerted effort by agents on both sides of the profit divide to remedy (Erondu, 2015). The importance of CSPs for social service provision in such cases could not be more emphasized; as the poor gets fair

shares in most of such interventions by third-sector organizations in various fields of assistance, such as health, education, and housing (Gordon et al., 2009; Salamon, 2002).

In terms of corporate social responsibility, there have been fledging attempts by businesses to promote CSPs and delivery of social service in Nigeria. Businesses in the country are not spared by the wave of corporate social responsibility sweeping across the civilized world (Berger, et al., 2004). The concern for CSR makes companies to seek some sort of social alliance with nonprofits and community based organizations (CBOs), in order to deliver social goods at community levels (Alos 2013; Gordon, et al., 2009; Monfort 1997; Nwagha 1995).

The Shell Petroleum Developing Company (SPDC), for instance, attempted a form of CSR by way of community development (CD) initiatives within their local host communities in Nigeria, as early as 1958 (Eweje, 2006). Although it served as a form of joint collaborative action with the host communities (Eweje, 2006; Kiikpoye, 2012), some researchers considered it a selfish business strategy, which sort to link ethical behavior to company profit (Eweje, 2006, P. 96; Gordon et al., 2009). In spite of such initiatives, Eweje (2006) thinks that multinational companies in Nigeria are not doing enough in the provision of social services to local communities, especially in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The Ogoni communities of that region have also complained about this.

However, the multinational companies seem to be making direct delivery of some social amenities, which can be considered useful for local communities, albeit without the participation of community stakeholders in the conception, planning and implementation

of such actions. CSR carried out on such terms would be mere community activism and not a CSP. Also such procedure would encapsulate a risk of community rejection of interventions, which could void any guarantee for long-term sustainability. Nonetheless, the social import of such interventions and other social services provided by multinationals, alone or in partnership with civil society actors, could not be ignored (Gordon et al., 2009). For instance, Shell Petroleum Development Corporation built 75 community schools, and awarded 489 student scholarships at university level. It dedicated approximately 37 percent of its profit amounting to approximately \$43,000,000 in 1978 to community spending (Ewege, 2006).

From literature and practice, multi-sector partnership (MSP), which is a dimension of CSPs, is gradually becoming accepted as an effective means for social service provision and community development. In Nigeria, such corporate community development efforts have transformed to partnerships, which are considered more sustainable. Amadi et al., (2011) evaluated one of such attempts at community partnership by Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC) in Nigeria, using a qualitative research approach, and a stakeholder theoretical lens. They upheld a hypothesis that multi-sector partnerships have empowered community people and impacted positively on their wellbeing. MSP approach, according to Amadi et al, (2011) was a better approach than community development (CD) approach earlier used by the company.

A key factor that induced formation of the MSP was governance failure on the part of governments in Nigeria. An instance of such failure in governance oversight could

be gleaned from the administration of the federal government revenue from crude oil sale. The extraction of this natural resource in the Niger Delta contributes substantially to the economy of Nigeria. Crude oil exports alone account for “approximately 95% of export earnings and 80% of government revenue” (SPDC, 2009; as cited in Amadi et al., 2011), however the poverty level in the Delta region appears higher than the national average (Clark et al., 1999; NDDC, 2004: as cited in Amadi et al., 2011). According to an earlier survey by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), the Nigerian population increased exponentially from 15.9 Million in 1911 to 163 million in 2010; and so did the population living in poverty increase with time. For instance, the population living in poverty increased from approximately 19 Million in 1980 to about 119 Million in 2010 (NBS, 2012).

At the instance of the World Bank, the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) carried out a National Consumer Expenditure Surveys (NCS) and produced the first document on the Poverty Profile for Nigeria 1980-1996. Subsequently it issued another of such document in the period ending 2010, with an enlarged demographic scope, making use of “The Harmonized Nigeria Living Standard Survey (HNLSS) 2009/2010” (NBS, 2012, P. 5). The survey covered all 36 States and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). It included both urban and rural areas in all the 774 Local Government Areas (LGAs) of the country. The welfare approach component involved 77,400 households, although “the consumption approach covered 50 households in each Local Government Area.” (NBS, 2012, P7). Thus, monitoring of poverty was also through “household expenditure analysis (known as) money metric analysis, the National Consumer Survey,

and the Nigeria Living Standard Survey” (NBS, 2012, P7Table 1 shows the relative poverty indices from the survey.

Table 1

Relative Poverty Headcount From 1980-2010

Year	Poverty incidence (%)	Estimated population (million)	Population in poverty (million)
1980	27.2	65	17.1
1985	46.3	75	34.7
1992	42.7	91.5	39.2
1996	65.6	102.3	67.1
2004	54.4	126.3	68.7
2010	69.0	163	112.47

Note. Source: (National Bureau of Statistics, HNLSS, 2010)

Also, Table 2 outlines the incidence of poverty in the six geo-political zones of the country (NBS, 2012, P 16).

Table 2

Zonal Incidence of Poverty by Different Poverty Measures

Zone	Food poor	Absolute poor	Relative poor	Dollar per day
North Central	38.6	59.5	67.5	59.7
North East	51.5	69.0	76.3	69.1
North West	51.8	70.0	77.7	70.4
South East	41.0	58.7	67.0	59.2
South-South	35.5	55.9	63.8	56.1
South west	25.4	49.8	59.1	50.1

Note. (Source: NBS, 2012, P 16).

In the table of zonal incidence of poverty, it would appear that the population of the South-South zone where the crude oil production is highest is below the country mean of the absolute poor, which is at 60.48.

Although the government, mandated by the Constitution of Nigeria to administer social amenities to the citizenry, collected taxes from the multinational oil companies operating in the region, but failed to deliver commensurate social services and infrastructure in the area. This failure in administrative governance produced a phenomenon of dependence, where communities in the region relied on the oil companies to meet their needs (Ite, 2005; as cited by Amadi et al., 2011). The multinational companies tried to address the problem through partnership with local NGOs. Thus, in 2004 SPDC began to form and implement a new social development strategy termed the Sustainable Community Development strategy (SCD). This involved managing community interphase from within Shell through area teams that deal with communities.

This initiative involved three forms of partnerships namely strategic alliance, project implementation partnerships, and program partnership. It was managed through community development boards CDB, which are supervised through steering committees. SPDC managed the process and the internal controls, and funded it by means of joint venture fund. Through the incorporation of the CDB as NGOs, the CDBs were able to attract external funding to run independently.

Achievements recorded by this initiative included the establishment of a functional interphase with communities, extension of micro credits to community groups, and easier engagement of other stakeholders such as USAID, government agencies,

NGOs, and some Banks. By 2010, approximately 24 community clusters involving 244 communities have entered into agreements with SPDC, and through Group Memorandum of Understanding (GMoUs) a set of “community projects totaling 490 in number had been successfully completed” (SPDC, 2011, as cited in Amadi et al., 2011).

A key success element of the GMoU partnership model is that it offered a facility for international donor agencies to directly fund social services and developments in the delta region through the CDBs. Also, the "collaboration of business, government, nonprofit, and local community in dealing with the complexities of development problems underscores multi-sector partnerships as a preferred approach to sustainable community development" (Amadi et al., 2011). This is in contrast with Shell's earlier community development (CD) method, which did not engage community folks enough, but generated dependence, and made host communities more antagonistic to companies.

Another driver of CSP from the 1990s in Nigeria has been some government policies directed at growing small and medium-scale enterprises (SMEs), which indirectly promoted nonprofits and opened avenues for CSPs in the country. An instance was the policy that made it mandatory for banks to set aside 10% of their profit before tax for investment in SMEs (Onugu, 2005). This directive by government prompted some companies in the oil and gas sector, as well as some commercial Banks to set up non-profit foundations to serve mainly as receptacle for such funds. Secondly, such foundations related to NGOs in order to channel company CSR in line with mission.

Thus, within the past two decades, several of such foundations were incorporated and became operational namely, the Faith Foundation (inspired by Guaranty Trust Bank),

the Growing Businesses Foundation (inspired by the United Bank for Africa), the MTN Foundation (by the MTN Telecommunication Network), the OANDO Foundation, by Ocean and Oil Plc, the Dangote Foundation, by the Dangote Group of Companies, and the T Y Danjuma Foundation initiated by the South Atlantic Petroleum Limited. By their nature and objectives, such foundations not only served as “holding companies” but also as grant-making entities. The latter activity necessarily led to collaboration with civil society and community-based organizations, for social services delivery.

The MTN Foundation for instance set its vision “to be a leader in the area of corporate social responsibility in Nigeria” (MTN Foundation, 2013). It considers itself a “vehicle for MTN Nigeria’s corporate social responsibility initiatives” that gives an avenue for the company’s strategic goal of contributing to development of communities in which it operates. The mission of the foundation is “to improve the quality of life in communities all over Nigeria, to set standards in the area of corporate social responsibility, and project the MTN Nigeria brand in a positive manner” (MTN Foundation, 2013. P5). Founded as it were in response to the desire by the MTN Nigeria “to focus effort in terms of its CSR initiatives to reduce poverty, and foster sustainable development in Nigeria,” (MTN Foundation, 2013. P5) it was incorporated in the Corporate Affairs Commission as a company limited by guarantee.

MTN Nigeria provides the funding for the foundation with a voluntary contribution of one percent of its profit after tax. In 2013 alone this contribution summed up to 2.1 Billion Naira or \$14.05 Million Dollars, besides an interest income of 404.5 Million Naira, and in-kind contributions to the tune of 159.9 Million Naira. This makes a

total annual income of 2.7 Billion Naira, equivalent to 17.8 Million Dollars, which was invested in the social sector, specifically in the fields of education, health, and economic empowerment. As at 2013 the foundation executed 338 projects within 36 states of the country in social services to enhance lives of individuals and communities. To carry out these social service projects, the foundation worked in partnership with the government, civil society and other institutions (MTN Nigeria, 2013).

A summary of the investment on social services by the foundation from its inception is shown in Table 3..

Table 3

MTN Nigeria Foundation Expenditure From Inception to July 2015

Expenditure	Health (N'000)	Education (N'000)	Economic empowerment (N'000)	Others (N'000)	Total (N'000)
2004 – 2005	101,056	191,609	23,034	20,710	336,409
2006	199,468	244,004	130,524	36,244	610,240
2007	255,854	145,762	152,479	82,358	636,452
2008	240,645	90,047	64,415	174,102	569,209
2009	199,559	408,106	281,879	25,727	915,271
2010	798,650	396,992	302,101	148,189	1,646,022
2011	219,283	293,461	216,078	160,973	889,795
2012	553,109	793,422	414,354	438,566	2,589,867
2013	473,253	1,249,775	388,812	478,027	2,589,867
2014	470,837	609,641	258,717	821,218	2,160,413
2015	214,399	358,870	79,853	177,981	831,104
Total	3,726,112	4,781,690	2,312,337	2,564,095	13,384,234

Note. Source (MTN Nigeria Foundation, 2015 P 150).

In the same vein, OANDO Foundation, with its vision “to create a sustainable and successful educational system in Nigeria that educates and empowers children” (OANDO Foundation, 2016), is an initiative of an oil and gas company, the Ocean and Oil Public

Liability Company (OANDO). The foundation is also a CSR instrument of the oil company and has a mission “to improve the learning environment in primary schools by holistically creating world-class basic education systems in communities” (OANDO foundation, 2016). The mission is informed by the social need created by the presence of 10.5 million children who are out of school in Nigerian, and the fact that 6 million out of 36 million girls who are out of school in the world are Nigerians. The impact of the investment by the foundation in education till 2015 led to the adoption of 58 schools in 23 states, training of 600 teachers, and award of 870 scholarships to students. In all, approximately 120,000 children benefited from the activities of the foundation. However, the foundation plans to invest up to 4 million pounds (=N= 1,440,000,000.00) in the next 3 years from 2016. The major partners to the foundation are the British Council, Nigerian government, state institutions and the Clinton Global Initiative (OANDO Foundation, 2016)

The above is indicative of the contributions to social service provision through CSP in the country over the past decade, and the need to foster more initiatives in this line. Public policy, no doubt, played a major role in the evolution of the cross-sector vehicles, especially those with CSR components. The cases also manifest the openness of human organizational systems, which permits reactions and adaptations to changes in the business environment of organizations.

Therefore, in the same way that the policy on mandatory contributions to promote SMEs opened a collaborative window (Takahashi & Smutny 2002) for organizations, the decision by the world nations on education for all (EFA), has been of influence in the

CSP initiatives implied in the activities of the Civil Society Action Coalition on EFA (CSACEFA). This is a Coalition formed in the year 2000 to increase impact of civil society advocacy efforts, and amplify civil-society voice on educational issues. It comprised initially of more than 200 nonprofits in coalition to advocate on educational policy and related issues in Nigeria (CSACEFA, 2014)

The coalition, CSACEFA, was facilitated through the Commonwealth Education Fund (CEF), which is a civil society initiative managed by three United Kingdom organizations, the Actionaid, Oxfam UK and Save the Children. The coalition made a considerable contribution to educational policy in Nigeria. For instance, it facilitated civil society input into the national EFA framework and piloted the School Based Management Committees (SBMC) initiative, which became a nation-wide scheme that has over 100,000 SBMCs. It also facilitated education-budget tracking by communities and civil society organizations CSOs (ActionAid Nigeria, 2008, P7). Most of the achievements of CSACEFA and the CEF fall within the millennium development goals (MDG) two and three, which aimed at giving basic education to all boys and girls, and eliminating gender disparity in education by 2015. In the year 2000 when the UN General Assembly called on the MDGs, 100 million primary-aged children were out of school globally. But by 2008 this figure had been reduced to 72 million children out of school and 33 million of them were in Africa (ActionAid Nigeria, 2008). In Nigeria school enrolment rose from 17.8 million in 1999 to 20 million in 2005. In 2015 when the MDG targets fell due, there were still approximately nine million children who are out of basic education school in Nigeria. However, CSACEFA remains a platform for nonprofits and

its international development partners to deliver social good, by advocating for civil society and helping to shape national policy on EFA.

The coalition began with 40 organizations in 2000 and by 2008 the organizational membership increased to 400. The coalition is governed by a board and managed by an elected facilitating committee, headed by a Moderator. CSACEFA works in partnership with the government education boards such as the Universal Basic Education Commission UBEC, the Local Government Authorities (LGAs) and some international development agencies such as the UNESCO and the British Department for International Development (DFID). It also worked in partnership with some international NGOs such as the ActionAid, the Oxfam and Save the Children. Through the CEF, CSACEFA trained over 120 organizations in policy influencing and public budget tracking.

The facilitation of such networks as CSACEFA and other partnerships between nonprofits and government, by the UN agencies, and the International Development Partners (IDPs), was, mainly motivated by the need to strengthen civil society and scale up social service delivery through CSPs (Nwagha, 1995). Consequently, there have been some considerable degrees of partnership activities between some IDPs, the government, and civil society actors (Ehigiamusoe 1998). Some foreign agents that worked to forge organizational partnerships in the social sector of Nigeria include, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the British Department for International Development (DFID), the ActionAid, the Oxfam, and the Ford Foundation, to mention a few. Besides partnering with some organizations, these agencies also tried to foster and

work with network of organizations in order to grow partnership initiatives within the country.

The Nigerian government also enacted some enabling policies to foster cross-sector collaborative efforts. For instance, over the years the government initiated some integrated rural development programs with the aim of developing rural areas and curbing migration to urban areas, empower women and alleviate poverty. In line with these objectives, the government initiated some social development departments and programs namely, the Operation Feed the Nation (OFN), the Green Revolution program in the 1970s, Directorate of Food Road and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI), National Agricultural Land Development Authority (NALDA), Better Life for Rural Women Programs, Family Support Programs (FSP), Family Economic Advancement Programs (FEAP), Adult and Mass Literacy Schemes, Grassroots Banking Schemes, and Directorate for Mass Mobilization for Self-Reliance, Social Justice and Economic Recovery (MAMSER).

The OFN and DFFRI worked to elevate farming to a prestigious height, to reverse urban drift and mobilize rural population towards sustainable rural development activities (Federal Ministry of Finance, 2000). These efforts, some of which were during the military era, could be seen also as attempts to collaborate with civil society. However little was achieved in this direction because the nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and CBOs, which were the entities in direct contact with communities, did not benefit from these government intervention programs. In a survey of government-NGOs

collaboration, only 13.9 percent of study sample NGOs received government funding, an indication of inadequate funding partnership with government (FMoF, 2000. P194).

In a joint national capacity assessment by the World Bank and the Federal Ministry of Finance (FMoF), collaboration activities between Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) and the various tiers of government in Nigeria was assessed. It was shown that NGOs found it difficult to retrieve information from government agencies and communication of government policy to NGOs was mainly by public media (70% by radio, Television and Newspapers), 47% by official gazette and 25.5% by television adverts and programs (FMoF, 2000. P. 191). Government interacted with NGOs mainly for “advisory, consultations and dispute resolutions” purposes (FMoF, 2000. P190). These interactions with governments were predominantly at the state and Local Government Authority (LGA) levels (63%) and with federal ministries (27%). The government in Nigeria is divided into three tiers as follows, the Federal government, the state governments, and the Local government authorities (LGAs). There are 36 states and a Federal Capital Territory in the country, while the LGAs are 774 in number. On the part of the NGOs, a major method of influencing government policy was by workshops/seminars and group interactions (FMoF, 2000).

The relationship between the government and civil society actors has therefore not always been a steady progression, even though the government has shown a relative openness following the current wave of globalization. Globalization has led to some openness towards civil society and enhanced some democratic procedures. An instance is the decision by government to encourage private and non-profit sector participation in

tertiary education in 2001. Following this, some nonprofits and religious groups established universities with the approval of the government. However some activities of these universities have tax implications, which posed a challenge to the tax-exempt status of the nonprofit owners, and probably elicited a subsequent counter reaction from the government. Thus, in spite of an earlier policy openness, the government enacted a restrictive fiscal regulatory policy, enabling the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) to register and monitor inflows, above one thousand dollars (\$1,000), to nonprofits, (EFCC, 2005). This policy and others of same style tended to contradict the openness and stymied efforts to partner with government. Policy inconsistency by governments is thus an element, which influences both CSPs and service delivery considerably. Other factors identified in literature include historical antecedence, experience of managers, social need, activities of IDPs in the country, and the degree of openness of corporate systems to external influence.

Cross-sectorial initiatives have been employed effectively to meet demands for social services, and this can be deduced from the literature narrated so far. There has also been concerted effort to build such partnership in Nigeria and other developing countries with various degrees of success. To further such cross-sectorial approach to development would require sufficient knowledge of CSPs in the social sector, particularly the key elements responsible for successful implementation of CSP, which nonprofit literature is yet to completely proffer. However, studies of existing CSPs involved in social service delivery could be a useful source of information in this respect. Knowledge from such

study would have both practical and theoretical implications for social changes, which will potential impact on social service delivery and policy formulation.

Gaps Identified in Literature

From the literature outlined above as well as other works reviewed, the argument proposed by Kourula et al (2010), that “social movement literature and institutional theory” are yet to be fully employed in NGO literature, seems plausible. Although several factors incident on CSP operations have been highlighted in literature, there appears to be a deficiency in studies on CSPs (CSPs) in Nigeria to identify the key elements of CSPs, which support social service delivery by non-profit organizations in Nigeria.

Available nonprofit literature also alluded that attitudes towards collaboration were influenced by direct, negative or positive, experiences, but it could not sufficiently explain mechanism of action by which this is obtained (Gazley, 2010). Also, it seems that nonprofit literature is yet to integrate fully, the theories of organizational behavior with theories of human behavior, to address the dimension of openness about human organizational systems, and the potential implications for CSPs in social service delivery.

Summary

In the preceding paragraphs of this chapter, there is an attempt at a concise synopsis of the current literature that point to the relevance of the research problem. The chapter recalled the context and purpose of study and offered a brief synopsis of current literature relevant to the problem. A review of the literature documented in this study shows that provision of social services is a development tool for nations, and CSPs is one method for promoting social service delivery. The open system theory by Bertalanffy

(1968) provides an appropriate theoretical framework. The theory suggests an openness of human systems to dynamic, albeit transformative, exchange with their environments. It provides a lens to explore the factors incident on organizational partnerships and the key features that support social service delivery in CSPs.

A CSP is presented in the literature as useful organizational complex, which is scarce in Nigeria due to lack of sufficient knowledge and legal framework, and the socio-political context of the country. Attempts to promote CSPs and CSR initiatives in the country met with various degrees of success, but suggest a possibility for deeper knowledge about CSPs in the promotion of social service delivery. Gaps identified from the reviewed literature include an apparent lack of studies of CSPs in Nigeria, aimed to identify the key elements of CSPs, which support social service delivery by non-profit organizations in Nigeria. Also, it seems that nonprofit literature is yet to fully integrate the theories of organizational behavior with theories of human behavior, in order to address the dimension of openness about human organizational systems, and the potential implications for CSPs in social service delivery.

The next chapter contains detailed outline of the research design envisaged for use in the research, including the theoretical tradition of inquiry, sampling procedure, data collection and management procedure. The chapter also describes the data analysis method chosen and the ethical considerations in the study.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore CSPs in Nigeria, especially partnerships involving nonprofits and for-profit companies or government agencies, in order to identify the key elements of such partnerships that support social service delivery. In Chapter 3, I outline the research design and rationale for the design, as well as the research tradition, method of data collection, data analysis, and the procedure for participant selection. The chapter ends with a brief description on issues of trustworthiness and ethical procedures used for the entire research.

Research Design and Rationale

The main research question that guides the study, as posed earlier in Chapter 1, is restated as follows: What are the key elements of CSPs that support social service delivery by nonprofit organizations in Nigeria? The question follows from the social service and corporate organizational contexts prevalent in Nigeria, where such partnerships are few and social challenges are complex, requiring a multisectorial approach for a meaningful social change. It also derives from the nature of CSPs, which presuppose openness of organizational systems and permissiveness of organizational boundaries.

The open system theory suggests that human organizational systems are open and tangible realities made of people who can adapt to or change their external, individual, and social environments purposefully, and in such a way that sufficient conditions for their conduct can be found within the “system-in-environment” (Bertalanffy, 1968;

Emery, 2004). A central concept in the study, which accords to the open nature of human organizations, is the concept of CSP.

A CSP, as the name suggests, is a social alliance, involving corporate organizations from different sectors of an economy. Specifically, and in the context of this study, a CSP is a partnership that involves profit-making company(s) or government (public sector) agents, and at least a nonprofit (social-sector) organization. Depending on the focus and style, a CSP could be taken for a CSR or cause marketing initiative for the profit oriented partner and funding or skills-sharing initiative for the nonprofit (Berger et al., 2004). The nature of commitments forged between partners in CSPs is often loose, open-ended, and formal or legal (William et al., 2001). In this study, I focused on CSPs that lead to social service delivery.

The Theoretical Method of Inquiry

The open system theory framework and the organizational forms like CSP conform to the realists' tradition, which view reality as existent, albeit contingent, and human systems as open, especially to the environment from which people extract meaningful knowledge. (Aquinas, as cited in Pegis, 1944; Aristotle, as cited in McKeon, 1941; Bertalanffy, 1968; Emery, 2004; Mead, 1932 as cited in Emery, 2004). Realism offers a perspective on reality that furthers understanding of the openness of organizational change processes and human behavior (Emery 2004). Nonetheless, the logic used in qualitative research is inductive "from ground up, rather than handed down entirely from a theory or from perspective of the inquirer" (Creswell, 2013, p. 22).

A qualitative research design is a form of theoretical method of inquiry, which provides perspectives of reality often different from what quantitative investigation could offer. Creswell (2013) defined qualitative research as “an approach to inquiry that begins with assumptions, an interpretative/theoretical framework that inform the study of research problems addressing the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 44). Further, qualitative research is “based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem” (Apori-Nkansah, 2008, p. 84).

A research method adopted for this study, and which is grounded within the qualitative tradition, is the case study method of inquiry. Research methodological traditions are conditioned by philosophical and theoretical assumptions, which could be either ontological or epistemological. The qualitative tradition leans more towards ontological realism and takes into consideration the context of the phenomenon under study, and the participants’ perspectives. It therefore embraces both the subjective and diverse nature of realities studied. This is in contrast to the quantitative research tradition, which adopts a positivistic approach to epistemological procedures (Apori-Nkansah, 2008; Creswell, 2013).

The Rationale for Choosing the Research Tradition

This was a qualitative study, using a case method approach. The choice of method followed from the goal of the study, which was to explore for a deeper understanding of the key elements in CSPs that support social service delivery and to contribute to social change. Thus, the research was designed to obtain an in-depth understanding of a case of

a CSP, using an open system theoretical lens. The qualitative research tradition also incorporates some elements from the naturalistic inquiry designs, which takes into account the natural disposition of things or events, observing them as they are found in reality, without any form of treatment that twists the natural conditions, in order to understand such events (Patton, 2002). The case method was considered appropriate for this study because it has been used more frequently to investigate specific social phenomena or situations (see Creswell, 2013). It is also a research design that is more documented than others (Patton, 2002).

The qualitative research method allows for some degree of flexibility in design and makes use of open-ended forms of inquiry, which gives room for practical considerations (Patton, 2002). The research design is also desirable for its field-orientation and manageable sample size, which is small where the case for study is purposefully chosen and typifies the group. My experience of cross sector activities also played a major role in the study, and this was contrasted with those of the participants in the research.

The Role of The Researcher and Research Relationships

Participants in the study were busy executives who did not expect any obvious benefits from the research. For this reason, some may have found it difficult to participate in the research. However, they shared a common concern for the social sector of the economy and were willing to talk about it and seek solutions that could promote social service delivery by the sector agents.

I have more than 2 decades of working experience in the social sector and have built relationships with some social sector organizations in the country. Although the chief executive officers of some companies have been changed and continue to change, the relationships established with the organizations remained as vital links for my use. This made for a positive “reflexivity” (see Maxwell, 2013). My experience in the field also led to numerous interactions with leadership and staff of many nonprofits and some networks of nonprofits in Nigeria. I also participated in a management team of a coalition of nonprofits and am familiar with the challenges faced by nonprofits in Nigeria.

I was directly involved in the data collection and the interviews carried out in this research. I undertook all necessary trips and made the needed telephone and email contacts involved in the data collection and verification. Thus, I served as an agent for data collection in the qualitative study (see Creswell, 1998 & Goulding, 2002, as cited by Apori-Nkansah, 2008). I also obtained the necessary permissions to use corporate documents and conduct any sensitive interviews. Finally, I was responsible for the data collection, storage, analysis, transcription of recorded interviews, and subsequent reports on the research and research data.

Dealing With Researcher’s Bias

I was aware of my close contact with data since I was instrumental to data collection. I was also aware of the possibility of personal bias and subjectivity that may be associated with the research context.

I therefore have put some measures in place to check subjectivity and biases. For instance, I planed to remain highly conscious of the possibility of bias throughout the

study. There was a resolve to maintain objectivity to check biases, and report major discrepancies encountered in the course of the study (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008). There was also a plan to subject the findings to member checking and peer review or opinion of selected participants. The process of developing categories and data analysis in the study has also been documented and made open such that findings are made trustworthy (Constas, 1995, as cited in Apori-Nkansah, 2008)

Methodology

Participant Selection

Participants in the study were selected from profit and non-profit companies. They were persons who were involved in the CSP activity under study. In other words, the individuals selected for interviews were directors and managers of organizations that were engaged in the partnership to promote a *Nonprofit Technical and Vocational Training Institute* (TVIIT) in Lagos Nigeria. The said participants were executive officers of their organizations. They have been selected based on their experience of cross-sector organizational partnership activities, and their ability to proffer informed opinion on the CSP under study. The selected interviewees are persons who could narrate their experience in such ways that facilitated better understanding of the case under study.

The study, thus, uses a purposeful sampling technique, which ensured that the researcher chose participants and documents that contributed to an understanding of the phenomenon under study. Apori-Nkansah (2008) noted that qualitative study was more concerned about understanding and clarifying a human experience rather than the meaning that experience ascribed to phenomenon. In that case, experience rather than

representativeness became a criterion of choice in selection of participants. In such situations too, experience was considered a unit of analysis over individuals or group (See Polkinghorne, 2005 P139 as cited in Apori-Nkansah, 2008).

The research method and approach adopted for a study influenced the choice of sample unit, and the choice of what could constitute a unit of analysis in the study. According to Patton (2002. P 447), cases can be units of analysis. Thus, the case of the partnership under study, and which we required to describe “in-depth and detail, holistically, and in context” (Patton, 2002. P 55) was a unit of analysis in the study. That constituted the basis for purposeful sampling in this qualitative inquiry. The goal is to “gather comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information” (Patton, 2002, p. 447) about the case under study, for the purpose of analyzing the data, and to arrive at a case study. In other words, there was sampling or data collection at the level of the individual staff of organizations, and at a mid-level or at organizational and partnership levels. This led to building a case record from which the case study was to be developed (See Patton, 2002)

The participants and documents used in this study have also been limited to those that are relevant to the study. The focus is on a CSP involving a nonprofit institution, the Nonprofit Vocational Technical Institute for Industrial Technology (TVIIT), and the Schneider Electrical Company, the CFAO, the IECD, and Cummins West Africa. Two executive officers from the named organizations, or 10 persons altogether were interviewed. Also, corporate documents from the organizational archives of the said companies formed part of the data source.

Data Collection

According to Creswell (2013), qualitative research is a method of choice when there is need to explore a phenomenon for more details or for complex knowledge of the situation, or to empower individuals to share their circumstance. Characterized by situated activities, it studies things in their natural settings, with the intent of making sense of them (Creswell, 2013. Pp.43-44). However, a researcher is required to state the techniques for his or her data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2013. P.69).

Data collation in this study refers to several activities ranging from choosing location, gaining access to it and sampling, actual collection of data, recording data, to data storage. According to Creswell (2013), sources of qualitative research data have been increasing and making room for innovations. For instance, data collection in the study was carried out simultaneously from more than one source, and included electronic sources. However, this procedure was associated with varied field issues and challenges (See Creswell, 2013).

The sites for the data collection in this study included the premises of TVIIT, the offices of selected participants for interviews, and organizational web sites. However, data collected were mainly data considered relevant on the CSP and the partnering organizations, granting that participants' knowledge relevant to the study was more a major factor of validity for this type of inquiry than the number of participants.

Access to research sites and to the individuals did not require permissions from authorized boards. However, I sought the permission of the human subject review board (See Creswell, 2013 P152). Following this, personalized letters were written to the

participants and relevant Directors in the firms to introduce the study and enclose a human subject consent form for their study and endorsement. A written consent did not seem strictly necessary in this case because the phenomenon in question, an organizational partnership, would not involve delicate personal or highly classified information. There was no need to engage the services of a “gate keeper” or intermediaries (See Creswell, 2013, Pp153-154) to facilitate access to sites and participants because participants were few and directly accessible.

A data collection or sampling strategy proposed for the research was the purposeful sampling approach (See Creswell, 2013. Pp. 154 -156). Although Creswell, (2013) recommended a “maximum variation sampling” as a strategy, there was doubt about the appropriateness in this case. However, the individual CEOs or managers in the respective organizations varied from each other in various ways. Also, criterion-sampling technique and a stratified purposeful sampling could have been used just to capture enough variations there may be (See Patton, 2002, Pp. 230-246). The types of data collected included observational data, information from oral interviews (using open-ended questions and phrases), documentations, audio-visual materials, and virtual data (Creswell, 2013). The instruments used in data collection included interview protocols, oral interviews using a voice recorder, electronic mails, corporate archives, field notes, and company websites. A sample size of 10 participant persons from companies served the purpose (See Creswell, 2013, Pp. 156 – 157). The duration for data collection for this research depended on the availability of the participants but it did not exceed one year.

Sample size also depended on the purpose, the objective of research, and what had credibility (See Patton, 2002). Thus, the sample size for this study was as small as a case study method of inquiry permitted. The small sample size made for convenience of study and narrow range of strategies, especially where all participants “have experience of the phenomenon being studied” (Creswell, 2013, P. 155). According to Patton (2002), qualitative studies do not need to have fixed rules for the sample size. Also because “the validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from a qualitative study are due more to the information richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than to the sample size” (Patton, 2002. P245). Thus, the sample size of 10 participants was considered sufficient for the case under study (See also Creswell, 2013, Pp. 156 – 157)

Further, the combination of a small sample size and a purposeful elitist sampling technique was possible, and convenient in a qualitative research design (Berger et al., 2004; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña 2013, Pp 31-32). It has also been shown that when research case is unique enough to deserve a purposeful sampling, the sampling size can be small precisely because the sampling technique and quality of data will not depend on the number of cases or on the largeness of the sample size (Maxwell, 2013; Miles et al., 2013). This study was centered on a cross sector partnership in Nigeria and there was no need for multiple-cases or large sample sizes. The purpose of study was also specific and clear to permit the sampling technique to be purposeful and the data collection interview system elitist.

Data storage and handling strategy depended on the different types of data obtained from field. I stored the data in the primary form in which they were recorded namely, in field notes (See Patton, 2002), video clips, camera pictures, audiotapes and direct mental impressions of the researcher. The data was organized and transferred to a data storage device, in a computer hard disk, and backed up in an external hard drive. In this way, copies of data remained safely backed up to forestall data loss or corruption (See Creswell, 2013). Logically data can be copied from such storage devices into data management software for ease of data arrangement, ordering, management and analysis. Some software of choice for the purpose included Excel spread sheet, or the Nvivo (Ihenacho, 2013).

In a nutshell, the data collection was carried out at different levels, for instance, at individual level, in the school, the TVIIT, at the organizational level, and at the partnership level. It involved the staff of the companies, in the partnership, and the two nonprofit organizations. These altogether added up to 10 participants, purposefully selected for their experience and relevance to the research. Data was also drawn from the various organizational archives and such data were in form of corporate documents that were relevant to the study. The analysis of the collected data showed a good picture of local experience with respect to CSPs and the mechanism by which they support social service delivery.

Data Analysis

Data analysis under this study started with description of the case and themes of the case, including any cross-case themes. (See Creswell, 2013). Data types included

recorded interviews and transcriptions, written expressions of personal experience or perception, and corporate documents containing corporate transactions on the case. An assessment of context of the research case and participant circumstance in the field preceded and accompanied data collection (See Miles et al, 2013).

To analyze research data was, in essence, to “transform data into findings” (Patton, 2002, P. 432). But there seemed to be no set and strict formula for analysis of research data, just as there was no straight formula to determine significance of research findings or of replicating researchers “analytical thought process” (Patton, 2002 P 432-433).

Data analysis began at the data collection stage. Thus, according to Patton (2002), the I took note of analytical ideas while at the stage of data collection without an obsessive drive for analysis, which could have been detrimental or interfered with an openness of the naturalistic inquiry (See Patton, 2002 P 436). For instance, inspirations for organizing data were drawn from the conceptual and design phases of the study, and from the analytical insights and interpretations encountered during data collection (See Patton, 2002 P 437).

The research is a qualitative study with a case study approach. It was designed to obtain information from personal or focused group interviews, institutional documents, physical observations and electronic mail communication. The purpose was to explore organizational CSPs in Nigeria and find key elements of such partnerships that furthered social service delivery by nonprofits involved in the CSPs. The project design was not so

much a product of an extensive research into literature on this field, as it was a consequence of social needs within the region in context.

In this study data analysis proceeded firstly, by taking inventory of data collected and attempt to make sense of the data. This was followed by discernment of some patterns in order to have a glimpse of or make sense of the whole (See Patton, 2002, p 440). Ultimately, there was a detailed description, which is at the base of qualitative analysis and reporting.

A structured method of analysis envisaged for this study was patterned after that suggested by Creswell (2013), which consisted of a detailed description of the case under study and the context about it. According to Creswell (2013) four types of data analysis have been recommended for case studies namely, categorical analysis, by which the researcher focuses on various instances found in data in order to obtain “issue-relevant meanings” about the case (Stake, 1995, as cited by Creswell, 2013, P 199). The other type is the direct interpretation, where the focus is on a single instance from data, from where the researcher draws meaning without further recourse to other instances, in a process that entails “pulling the data apart and putting them back together in more meaningful ways” (Stake, 1995, as cited by Creswell, 2013, P 199). Another form is to go by way of establishing patterns and categories in search of “correspondence between two or more categories” (Creswell, 2013, P 199). Yet another form is that proposed by Yin (2009), which uses “cross-case synthesis as analytic technique” (Yin, 2009, as cited in Creswell, 2013, p 199).

Data management was necessary because the various forms and the volume of data collected required careful management to avoid data loss. The data were also stored in categories that helped me fashion out patterns and make sense of the data.

The analysis followed on careful reading, and careful note taking or memoing of the important facts, figures, and themes, encountered in the reading. This procedure met the need to read through all data collected for this purpose. Extracting themes that stand out and grouping ideas that were similar, in order to form categories, constituted the initial data coding. This procedure continued to a saturation point at which categories could be “applied to the research question in order to understand it” (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008. P 103).

The analysis proper followed on and involves description of what had been adduced from data summary, classification, and interpretation, and conclusions. Procedures used to describe, classify, and interpret data differed in different qualitative paradigms, although the procedures have some features in common. For instance, procedure for data analysis I used for stages one (data collection) and two (data coding) were common to all qualitative traditions (See Creswell, 1998). However, as a qualitative case study, data analysis was grounded in “detailed description” (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008, p 103).

By “Categorical aggregation” (Apori-Nkansah, 2008, p104) ideas were gathered and categorized from different sources. This helped to make meaning of each group of ideas albeit from different sources. Also, from individual comments of participants or facts drawn from a single corporate document or by isolated single observations, I made

out meaning by way of direct interpretations. Once data was coded and meaningful categories were matched, patterns appeared that allowed for interpretation of the complex field data. Based on the interpretation of data it was possible to draw conclusions; make assertions, and descriptions that lead to better understanding of the CSP under study. To make analysis more accessible, tables, figures, and some forms of matrix have been used. There was need also to show how the coded data have been merged to categories and applied to the research question (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008, P 104).

The software tool for the research data analysis was a Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS), which has been strongly recommended for management of qualitative data (See Miles, et al., 2013). For instance, the Atlas TS and Microsoft Excel software were used in the study for data analysis. The choice for such software was informed by the robustness and compatibility with other data analysis tools. Besides, the software was readily handy and offered secure data storage. It was also easier to use, and combined the features found in other software packages. It was capable of storing the database and files in a single folder and admitted the use of multiple languages, and “merge” function for terms. It could also display codes graphically. Besides, the software used was more familiar to the me.

Issues of Trustworthiness

The aim of this study is to answer the research questions set above through analysis of credible data collected from the field. Accessibility of data was a major factor considered in the selection of the research case and in the development of the interview protocols. The context of persons and the organizations have also been considered so as

to obtain every detail about each data, and stand a chance to offer rich descriptions that was apt for credibility and validity of data (See Maxwell, 2013). The respondents were informed about the context of the questions on the interview protocol, in order to elicit appropriate reply from them. On collecting and sieving the responses, there were clarifications of data from amongst participants, colleagues, and from other sources. This had a quasi-triangulation effect that could have enhanced credibility of data (See Miles et al., 2013; Patton, 2002). The method used for data collection and the choice of tools were kept as conventional to qualitative study as possible in order to overcome foreseen threats to credibility (Patton, 2002). In the research conclusions, I remained open to reality and to results from findings in the field. In this way the preconceived conclusions were kept from bias. Also, measures taken to ensure credibility were such that exposed the process by which categories were developed, thereby bringing it into public domain, to enhance security (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008. P105).

There seems to be different ways of validating qualitative study, but these are essentially different from procedures that validate quantitative studies. Also, “reliability” and “validity” within the context of the qualitative tradition do not have the same meaning as they do in quantitative research. And terms like “credibility”, “trustworthiness” and “authenticity” are used instead of reliability and validity (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008. P107).

A study advocated that “qualitative findings should be validated through the processes of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability” (Guba & Lincoln as cited in Apori-Nkansah, 2008, P 107). Also, the conformity of findings in a

qualitative study with participants' views is a measure of validity. But while transferability of participant's experience of a phenomenon required detailed description of what was experienced (Apori-Nkasnsah, 2008, P 108). Dependability required awareness and reporting of changing context of the research and its consequence on the study. Confirmability on the other hand demanded that I report the measures taken to confirm findings (See Trochim, 2001, as cited in Apori-Nkansah, 2008).

Some measures used to ensure reliability and credibility in the qualitative study included also field notes, memos, and multiple sources of data. Others were clarification of researcher bias, crosschecking members' views, and peer review (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008). For the purposes of this study the use of multiple sources of data, peer review, and rich description were relied on. Also, structured and detailed narrative report was used to further enhance credibility and security of findings from the study.

A structured narrative report in a realist tradition as recommended (See Creswell, 1998 as cited in Apori-Nkansah, 2008, P. 106), was used in the study. This meant a report with details that described, with quotes from participants and my interpretation that gave away my peculiar insights with respect to CSPs. Though there seemed to be "no standard format for reporting a case study research" (Apori-Nkansah, 2008, Pp. 106-107), I determined the structure of the research narration in accord with the objective of the case study. Thus, I used a balanced case study narrative structure that favored substantial analysis, interpretation and conclusions. (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008).

Ethical Procedures

I sort for and obtain approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB Certification Number: 1994789) in order to carry on the study.

The participants in the study also needed to be protected in some ways for the study to be successful. For instance, some participants are employees of organizations and as such, were bound by contracts to certain ethical conducts in their relationship with their various companies and the general public. Thus I anticipated a general unwillingness on the part of some of the participants to give opinion on classified organizational decisions, strategy, and policies, without assurance of some protection and authorization to participate in the research. However, most participants were persons that enjoyed some level of authority in their firms and by virtue of their office, were able to opt relevant information without further recourse to higher authorities. Nonetheless, all necessary authorizations needed to address any fears of each individual participant were obtained for the comfort of participants in the study.

Summary

In this chapter, the purpose of study was reiterated, and a justification made for choosing case study method of inquiry, because it offered deep and contextual perspective on the subject under study. Interviews, corporate documents, field notes, and telephone calls as well as electronic mails were used for data collection. The Interview protocol was semi-structured with open-ended questions. Interviewees or participants were purposefully selected based on the criterion of their relevance to the study.

Data was coded and analyzed by means of detailed description, and aggregation of categories to obtain patterns. There was direct interpretation of findings and some sort of naturalistic generalizations. Through the use of multiple data sources and elaborate descriptions, and crosschecking of information by peer review system, and cross-matching data with participants' views, I validated findings (See Apori-Nkansah, 2008). I also adopted a realist approach in the narrative report.

There were 10 participants in the study and some measures were put in place to protect participants and guarantee their privacy, in spite of the freedom of information law in Nigeria. The methodology was expected to effectively contribute to knowledge of CSPs in social service delivery. The next chapter, Chapter 4 will focus on the analysis of data obtained, and on the findings obtained in the process of analysis, in answer to the research question.

Chapter 4: Results

Data Analysis and Findings

The purpose of this study was to identify key elements of CSPs that support social service delivery by nonprofits involved in such partnerships in Nigeria. In this study, I examined a case of CSP involving nonprofit institutions namely, the TVIIT, the IECD, nonprofit foundations incorporated by companies, and profit-oriented companies. Through a detailed search and description of the various structural and operational features of the CSP, I aimed to elucidate the distinct elements that supported social services through the partnership.

The Research Question

Considering the CSP and contexts of social service in Nigeria, against the backdrop of the open systems theory framework, the principal research question asked: the following, what are the key elements of CSPs that support social service delivery by nonprofit organizations in Nigeria? To answer the principal research question, I asked the the following secondary questions:

1. What key elements of CSPs help to develop skills for social service delivery among staff of nonprofits?
2. What key features of CSPs promote growth in organizational size and assets of nonprofits in support of social service delivery?
3. What key elements of CSPs show the openness of nonprofit organizational systems in Nigeria?

The Organization of the Chapter

The organization of this chapter follows a logical pattern of a sequence of activities at the data collection and analysis phases of the research. I begin the chapter with an introduction, which gives an overview of the purpose of research, the research questions, and the layout of the chapter. I also present the research settings and demographic changes that influenced the study at the period of data collection.

Description of the data collection exercise follows the introduction with an explanation of the activities undertaken to collect data from the field. Subsequently, the I present the data collection strategies, limitations to study, and conformity of study method with what I proposed in Chapter 3. Data analysis follows, accompanied by evidence of trustworthiness and results from the analysis of research data. I end the chapter with a brief summary of the entire section.

The Setting

The method of study adopted for this research was appropriate because the qualitative research approach has been found to be useful where there is need for in-depth information on a subject matter of research. In August 2017, recruiting and interviewing of participants began in Lagos, Nigeria. There was no need to go beyond Lagos because the unit of analysis was experience, and the sampling method was elitist in nature. In such a sampling method, the emphasis is more on experience than on representativeness (Polkinghorne, 2005, as cited by Apori-Nkansah, 2008) as selection criterion.

Demographics

Participants selected were persons who experienced the CSP under study. Most of them worked for the partner organizations that made up the partnership. Some details about participants that would lead to their identification were considered inappropriate here. However, two participants were drawn from IECD, one from Cummins, West Africa and five from the TVIIT, one from Lagos Business School, and another from Pan-Atlantic University.

In effect, the participants were selected from profit and nonprofit companies, and they were persons who have been involved in the CSP activity under study. In other words, the individuals selected for interviews were directors and managers of organizations who were engaged in the partnership to promote the TVIIT in Lagos, Nigeria. The selected participants also had local experience, which was considered very relevant to the CSP and also understood the local factors that influenced social services in Nigeria. For instance, a participant pointed out,

When the last project manager of IECD left, they wanted to bring in another French project manager but Cummins said no, but (preferred) a local project manager that understands the local environment. And this did help the project.

Thus, some participants brought experience from representing their organizations on the partnership under study, while others were selected based on their experience of CSP activities and their ability to offer an informed opinion on the CSP under study. Nonetheless, all selected interviewees were persons who could narrate their experience in such ways that facilitated a better understanding of the case under study. The participants

were of various ages ranging from 28 to 75 and were a source of varied continuum of experience on partnerships relevant to the study. Some of them were persons involved in the various aspects of the CSP, including teaching staff charged with delivery of the technical training (TVET). Others were those directly involved in the partnership management or implementation as well as industry heads who had knowledge of social sector operations.

I live in Lagos and am familiar with the city. However, some demographic changes in Nigeria such as a huge youth population, low access and quality of education, and low esteem for technical vocational education seemed to be a source of concern for some interviewees. Also, the prevailing economic regression experienced by the country along with difficult civil crisis in the period influenced the thinking of some participants in some ways. However, the participants were aware of the uniqueness of this specific partnership in Nigeria.

Data Collection

Data collection was by means of interviews, partnership documents, field observation, and notes. The interviews involved 10 persons in line with the sample size proposed. Data seemed to saturate by the 10th interview, and no new facts were emerging from the interviews. The data collection or sampling strategy used was the purposeful sampling approach (see Creswell, 2013). In order to develop the list of participants, a desk search, which relied on personal contacts, was carried out to assemble names of prospective participants. The search resulted in a list of purposely-selected research participants following the criterion of experience and a purposeful sampling strategy.

Contact with participants was through telephone and emails in order to send consent forms and arrange appointments for the interviews.

Some letters in the form of abbreviations have been used to represent participants in order to avoid immediate identification of the individuals. For instance, the following abbreviations were used: AL, AY, DA, DC, EA, ME, OA, TM, UO, and Psg.

After participant selection, there was further communication with participants through telephone and email to seek their consent and arrange for an oral interview with each one. Communication by telephone in Lagos has become easier with the introduction of the mobile telephones, but road networks are still poor, and circulation by road is relatively difficult.

Thus, the participants communicated their consent to participate in the study by telephone and in writing. Subsequently, there was an interview with each one at locations chosen by participants and at the convenience of each interviewee. A participant was away from Nigeria at the period of the interview but requested for and responded electronically. The participants cooperated throughout the process of interview and obliged as much information as they could. Each one spoke freely, confidently, and effortlessly because it seemed they spoke from experience, which they were very familiar with and for a purpose they considered worthwhile. Each participant was interviewed once and the duration varied from 45 minutes to an hour. Some of the participants gave impression of persons who were immersed into the partnership because they had much information about the partnership readily in memory. Data collection spanned through a period of three months approximately, between July and October 2017.

Questions at the interview were semi-structured and open-ended. The interviews were guided by an interview protocol, which was also shown to each interviewee. However, most participants often followed their own trend of thought and rather spoke through the interview without any restrictions by pre-set protocols. A mobile recorder put the interviews on record for further transcription afterwards. The only exception was the participant who sent the narration through email in addition to an earlier brief interview. Documents used in the study were the Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) endorsed for the partnership, an inventory of equipment ordered for the school, and the statement of financial affairs of TVIIT.

The CSP under study is still on going and the target social service provided is still in demand. This circumstance helped participants to talk with the reality in view. For instance, at the time of the interviews, the CSP had already run its first implementation phase of 3 years and was grappling with early issues of sustainability. The demographic changes in Nigeria such as a huge youth population, low access and quality of education, and low esteem for technical vocational education, seemed to be a source of concern for some interviewees. Also, the prevailing economic regression experienced by the country along with difficult civil crisis in the period, influenced the thinking of some participants in some ways. However, the participants were aware of the uniqueness of this specific partnership in Nigeria. The uniqueness was due to diversity of the partnership units or organizations, which was made up of nonprofit organizations, nonprofit Foundations, for-profit companies and in part, government agencies. According to EA,

The lesson IECD learned was that Nigerian situation is different because it is the only country in which the seeds of hope project involved for profit companies. In other countries it involved only foundations, which funded projects, period. But companies, they followed you through and through. Nigeria is a different case study for Seeds of Hope project. We came up with managing the project the way we did in other countries, but it was different here and we learnt a lot.

Coding, discovery of patterns and detailed description, were used in this study in order to make meanings and facts encoded in data understandable. In other words, the data was analyzed by personally transcribing recorded interviews, coding similar ideas or impressions, and identification of meaning from single instances of individual utterances or single documents. On transcribing the interviews, an extra care was taken to capture the appropriate terms used by the interviewees. Table 4 shows some expressions and comments by participants, which are excerpts from interview transcripts, and how these gave root to the codes. Subsequently, there was sorting and aggregation of codes, observing the frequency of occurrence of the various ideas coded, as well as the forms in which such ideas appeared. This analytic procedure led to some formulation of categories and patterns. The codes and the frequencies of coded ideas are represented in tables and represented graphically in order to further clarify findings.

By way of naturalistic generalization, the analysis led to some statements about the categories and some conclusions based on ideas from data. This procedure ensured that findings and conclusions from the analysis have their foundation in reality and as

such, are products of facts from data and interpretation of the researcher, aimed at making the case intelligible (Apori-Nkansah 2008 P 122)

Data Analysis

Data analysis under this study was by means of coding, detailed description, aggregation of categories, and direct interpretation. By proceeding in this way, I was able to make out some patterns in the collection of data and make some interpretations.

The phrases and words of participants were primary data used to induce some data codes. Thus, the codes derived from key words occurring in participants' comments and corresponded to the context or theme found during content analysis, and within the expressions by participants. There was also use of iterative code mapping, which was displayed on tables to give further ideas about the initial codes drawn from data (see Table 4). Such tables also showed how the derived codes were aggregated into categories, which were further matched to research questions at the iterative levels, in an attempt to reveal key elements or factors that support social service delivery by nonprofits.

The analysis procedure produced a list of 41 codes, which were obtained through content analysis of the interview transcripts and by using an open coding in an inductive process of data analysis (see Patton, 2002). A list of the codes is shown in Table 5. The choice of codes was also influenced by the research question proposed, which sort to discover success factors, as expressed by participants, in order to make categorical statements about the elements, considered as key, in the support of social service delivery by nonprofits within the partnership context. There was an initial coding followed by a

second round of coding and an agglomeration of codes that contain similar ideas. The outcome of such groupings of ideas from the field data made it possible to observe patterns in data and subsequently categorize the coded data into 12 main categories as shown in Figure 1.

To make analysis more accessible, there was data representation in form of tables, figures, and some forms of matrixes. In the course of analysis also it was possible to show how the coded data were merged to categories and applied to the research question (see Apori-Nkansah, 2008, P 104). It is thought, that measures envisaged for ensuring credibility should expose the process by which categories were developed, in ways that such measures would be brought into public domain, to enhance security. (see Apori-Nkansah, 2008. P105). The process used to move inductively from coded units to larger representations, including categories and themes, is as outlined in Table 4. For instance, the code 'AO' (Alignment of objectives) was derived from comments of some interviewees, which conveyed an idea that was reiterated during an interview. For instance, such expression as "the partners in the CSP had to adjust some of their mandates and expectations in order to drive the common partnership objective", was implied in the following expression by AY: "Everyone signed up on the goals and objectives of the partnership. We had an MOU for all partners to sign."

Coding

On the analysis of transcripts from the interviews, various phrases, ideas, and meanings conveyed by participants stood out. The researcher coded such ideas and phrases, some of which were iterated. Some of the codes appeared to convey similar

ideas and were therefore homogeneously grouped together for convenience or ease of analysis. The groups were then tagged with different color codes as shown in table 5. The codes have been drawn making use of words or phrases from the participants. A list of the codes is as shown in Table 5 below. On the whole, I drew up a list of 41 codes, through open coding, in an inductive process of data analysis (see Patton, 2002). Thus, the analysis led to a total of 41 Codes from two rounds of coding, before patterns appeared in the data and subsequent categorizations.

On further analysis of the codes, nine of the codes stand out as shown in figure 1, namely, Demand, WW, Prof. Policy, PG, PO, PC, EVP, AO/CO. The ideas coded under “*Demand*”, for instance, are those that refer to need and demand for the social service offered by nonprofits in the partnership. Other ideas that refer to need for the partnership and demand for technical schools or technicians were also coded under Demand.

Elements encoded under “*WW*” are those that refer to mutual benefits to partners in the CSP. For instance, such benefits as expressed by participants to show learning across the profit divide. A further instance is the acknowledgment of scholarships to students, who in turn become available for service to industries on graduation. Also, the assistance rendered to nonprofit partners by companies during curriculum development, which in turn made the curriculum of technical education suitable to industry needs.

“*Prof*” as a code signifies all that is implied by professionalism of partner organizational systems, actions and procedures. The code “*Policy*” represents comments, expressions and description of actions, pronouncements and procedures in government or companies, which are considered policy statements or actions, or effects of such statements and

pronouncements. For instance, the following narration below by OA was encoded under policy:

There have been challenges always because policies are trailing behind what is current trend. So, often government response is slow and in my opinion such policies should have come earlier. The Minister of Education realized (that) vocational sector needed to open up more, so she instituted two types of vocational institutions, which we were really going for. But since she left there has not been continuity and people have lost focus on what those institutions were meant to be.

Also, some other expressions of government policy inconsistencies were grouped within this code.

Table 4

Details of Data Coding and Categorization

Selected comments	Key words	Code 1	Code 2	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4
It is part of our CR code; anywhere we work we try to improve that community	CSR	CSR	CST	CST	SF	KE	OS
Most companies use electricity, so it cuts across all industries. The NBT curriculum in use in Nigeria does not meet the needs of the industries	Electricity, NBT Curriculum	AO	BBB	Demand	SF	KE	OS
One thing we all agreed on was that there is need to enhance technical education	Need, technical education	AO	TVET	Demand	SF	KE	OS
Our research from our CR, found out that a lot of industries were struggling to get technicians globally	Struggling to get technicians	Demand	Technicians	Demand	SF	KE	Coy
Most of the worries for most organizations were about getting quality technicians that have the basic training of technicians.	Quality technicians	Demand	Technicians	Demand	SF	KE	OS
Nigeria came up as one of the countries with huge potential and need for technical education	Need for technicians	Demand	Technicians	Demand	SF		
By 1997 there were few vocational training Centers in Nigeria and mostly the government owned them	Vocational Training Centers	Demand	Technical school	Demand	SF		Need
Thus here you have a mismatch, between the education system and the employment sector.	Mismatch	Demand	CD	Demand	SF	KE	OS
There are many young boys without job and roaming about the streets and can cause social vices in society	Many young boys out of school and without jobs	Demand	Jobs	Demand	SF	KE	OS
There was demand for technical training in Nigeria. Each company that desired it had to carry the training privately, on their own.	Demand	Demand	Need	Demand	SF		IF

(Table continues)

Selected comments	Key words	Code 1	Code 2	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4
Yes there were conflict but conflict resolution is one of things you learn on a project (like this) You have to allow everybody to experience what was going on.	Conflict Resolution	CR	Opportunity	Diversity	SF	KE	OS
A common challenge all faced, which is a critical factor for them is gender integration	Female Technicians	DG	Challenge	Diversity	LF		OF
Managing such complex with different policies, ways of working and following projects was challenge for IECD and TVIIT.	Different sectors & management styles	Diversity	Challenge	Diversity	LF	KE	OS
All the partners brought their own interest.	Interests	Diversity	Challenge	Diversity	LF		
Nigeria is the only country where you have other industries coming into the system.	Nigeria	Diversity	Uniqueness of CSP	Diversity	SF		OS
The lesson IECD learned is that Nigerian situation is different because it is the only country in which the seeds of hope project involved for-profit companies. Nigeria is a different case study for Seeds of Hope project.	Partnership	Diversity	Challenge	Diversity	LF		OS
We got equipment and funding to purchase engines and eventually we had scholarships.	Equipment & Funding	DEF	Assets	Finance	SF	KE	PG
I was amazed at the equipment donated by groups like Cummins, and Schneider.	Equipment	DEF	PG	Finance	SF		OS
The last one that really impressed me was the donation of a computer center with four computers with everything in them mechanical, electrical and electronics and everything together into one unit.	Computers Center	DEF	PG	Finance	SF	KE	OS
Now you have a Curriculum that TVIIT began to use. Subsequently we had to source the equipment for use and train the teachers in such equipment because they also needed transversal skills to teach students, especially on soft skills.	Curriculum, Equipment soft skills	DET	PG	Finance	SF	KE	

(Table continues)

Selected comments	Key words	Code 1	Code 2	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4
Cummins is now giving more scholarships so that it can help people to participate. They are also developing endowment but that takes time to build.	Scholarships	FS	Scholarship	Finance	SF	KE	OS
TVHT charged reasonable fees and the companies received more than they paid for.	Fees	WW	PG	Finance	SF		
Nigeria's electrical sector was under reform and a high demand of technicians was expected. Schneider was interested in the country		Demand	Policy	Govt Policy	SF	KE	OS
There was a lot of resistance from government, a lot of requests, such as wanting to participate in the program. We all perceived that their participation could slow us down because of their processes ...	Resistance	GB	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF		
But we still had a problem of certification, how do we certify the boys?	Certification	GB	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF		
The Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) sent us youths for training in two batches. We had an MOU with them, but they defaulted several times.	MOU	GB	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF	KE	OS
We wanted to work with government (schools) first, but the reception was not cordial, so we could not continue. There was much bureaucracy	Government bureaucracy	GB	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF		
No (there was no government policy impact on the project partnership). On the side of government, even IECD asked for a government agency we could bring on board for this project to go ahead, and I suggested that we do a pilot and we see what good comes out of it so that we may have a better bargaining chip when talking to government agency.		GB	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF		OS
The other challenge we had with government was that government policy changes were fast and quick, and policies in government can sometimes contradict each other.	Government policy	Gpinc	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF	KE	OS

(Table continues)

Selected comments	Key words	Code 1	Code 2	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4
There was the case of Schneider, which had invested much into power equipment in anticipation of the power reform... but government went for equipment from India instead. "That really changed the dynamics of things."	Anticipation, power reform	Gpinc	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF		OS
The inconsistency of government was a limiting factor	Policy inconsistency	Gpinc	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF		OF
There have always been challenges because policies are trailing behind what is current trend, so often government response is slow. And in my opinion such policies should have come earlier.	Government policy	Policy	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF	KE	OF
As for funding the government policy did not enhance our funding in any way.	Government policy	Policy	Challenge	Govt Policy	LF	KE	APG
Take for example the sale of the distribution arm of the National Electrical Power Authority (NEPA), to the private sector, which can run it effectively.	NEPA	Policy		Govt Policy	SF		
We have done training for them. A lot of TVIIT trainers went through our technical training, the launch and learn program I spoke about. They had exposure to our engine courses, basic soft skills courses, basic HSC (health and safety) courses	Equipment	DET	PG	HR	SF	KE	OS
YES. It (the partnership) did (help me and my organization). I learnt a lot of management of people. I also learnt a lot of technical things.	Learnt management of people	EVP	PG	HR	SF	KE	
I had first to learn to speak the language of each sector. This is something I could only learn on the field.		HRD	Learning	HR	SF	KE	OS
I had no prior experience of cross sector partnership	Personal experience	Nexp	Challenge	HR	LF		Nexp

(Table continues)

Selected comments	Key words	Code 1	Code 2	Category 1	Category 2	Category 3	Category 4
I knew nothing of CSP, it is not my focus or area of specialty, I have worked in TVIIT for 17 years and partnerships I have engaged in have been about 10 years plus. But the CSP really on type done on this project, I think this is the first time we find ourselves at the center of it.	Nexp	Challenge	HR	LF			
I have learned a lot "A lot". I have learned to manage partners' expectations. I leveraged on my experience of the environment, on how things work in Nigeria, to bring partners together to advance the goal of the project	Learned	PG	Learning	HR	SF	KE	Staff
This idea of working across borders helped staff of TVIIT to develop greater level of confidence and to know that everything they are doing here could easily benchmark with standards internationally. It opened them up with the experts	Staff develop	SL	PG	HR	SF	KE	OS
We received training on several engines from Cummins and I can dismantle and assemble several machines in front of the students to teach. IECD itself helped in training delivery.		ST	PG	HR	SF	KE	
That experience in managing other organizations and people! Yes, it helped. And also, when it comes to training, even though we could not get local expertise, we took them to Lebanon and Dubai.	Experience, Training,	TOT	PG	HR	SF	KE	OS
So, it was a mutual benefit in the area of HR.	Mutual benefits in HR	WW	PG	HR	SF	KE	
We brought out our statement of accounts and they could go through and see. Although it was not the audited account, from it one could at least (see our state of affairs...	Transparency	Cacct	Transparency	Institutional Capacity	SF	KE	OS
We look at their curriculum to see if it was relevant to the industry or if it was obsolete. And we were not going to change the curriculum but build in that curriculum.	Enrichment of curriculum	CD	PG	Institutional Capacity	SF	KE	OS
I was amazed at the equipment donated by groups like Cummins, and Schneider	Equipment	DE	PG	Institutional Capacity	SF	KE	DE

Table 5

Lists of Codes

S/N	Code description	Code
1	Alignment of Objectives/Common Objective	AO & CO
2	Catalyst	Catalyst
3	Curriculum Development	CD
4	Company Policy to Participate	CPP
5	Conflict Resolution	CR
6	CSR & CSRD	CSR
7	Donation of Equipment & Funding	DE & DEF
8	Demand	Demand
9	Donation of Equipment & Training	DET
10	Disparity in Gender	DG
11	Diversity of sectors, Cultures, & business Ethos	Diversity
12	Positive evaluation of Partnership	EVP
13	Individual & Corporate experience of industry & partnership	Experience
14	Financial Constraint & support	FC & FS
15	Government Bureaucracy	GB
16	Government policy inconsistency	Gpinc
17	Human Resource Development	HRD
18	Limited Infrastructure	LiF
19	Memorandum of Understanding	MOU
20	No Partnership experience	Nexp
21	Organizational integrity	Orgint
22	Open system/Open system regulation	OS/OSR
23	Organizational Track record	OTR
24	Partner Communication	PC
25	Partnership Experience	Pex
26	Partner Growth	PG
27	Partnership Management	PM
28	Partner Objective	PO
29	Government Policy	Policy
30	Partner Preference	PP
31	Partnership Role	PR
32	Professionalism	Prof
33	Partner Satisfaction	PS
34	Partner Understanding	PU
35	Staff Learning	SL
36	Sustainability of Operations	SO
37	Social Stigma	SS
38	Staff Turnover	ST
39	Transparency	Tcy
40	Trust	Trust
41	Win-Win Situation	WW

On the other hand, *Partnership Growth (PG)* covers all expressions, which signified or gave any indications of partner growth in asset, human resources and corporate experience. Similarly, the code *Partner Objective (PO)* captured all that made reference or dwelt on objectives of the organizational units in the partnership, while *Partner Communication (PC)* refers to all ideas on communication among partners as expressed by participants. The latter is one of the codes with high rate of iteration on the transcripts analyzed. Although PC was given prominence by participants it was not the most reiterated code.

The code '*EVP*' is an abbreviated code for participant perception or evaluation of the CSP as successful or not successful. Most participants felt the CSP was successful. They also gave the impression that satisfaction over the partnership influenced partner commitment to the sustainability of CSP. The codes, *Common Objective (CO)* and *Alignment of Objectives (AO)* were merged because the ideas they connoted appeared to be similar. According to participants, organizational objectives posed a challenge that partners grappled with during the life cycle of the CSP. AO also tended to influence policies and company strategy with respect to corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities.

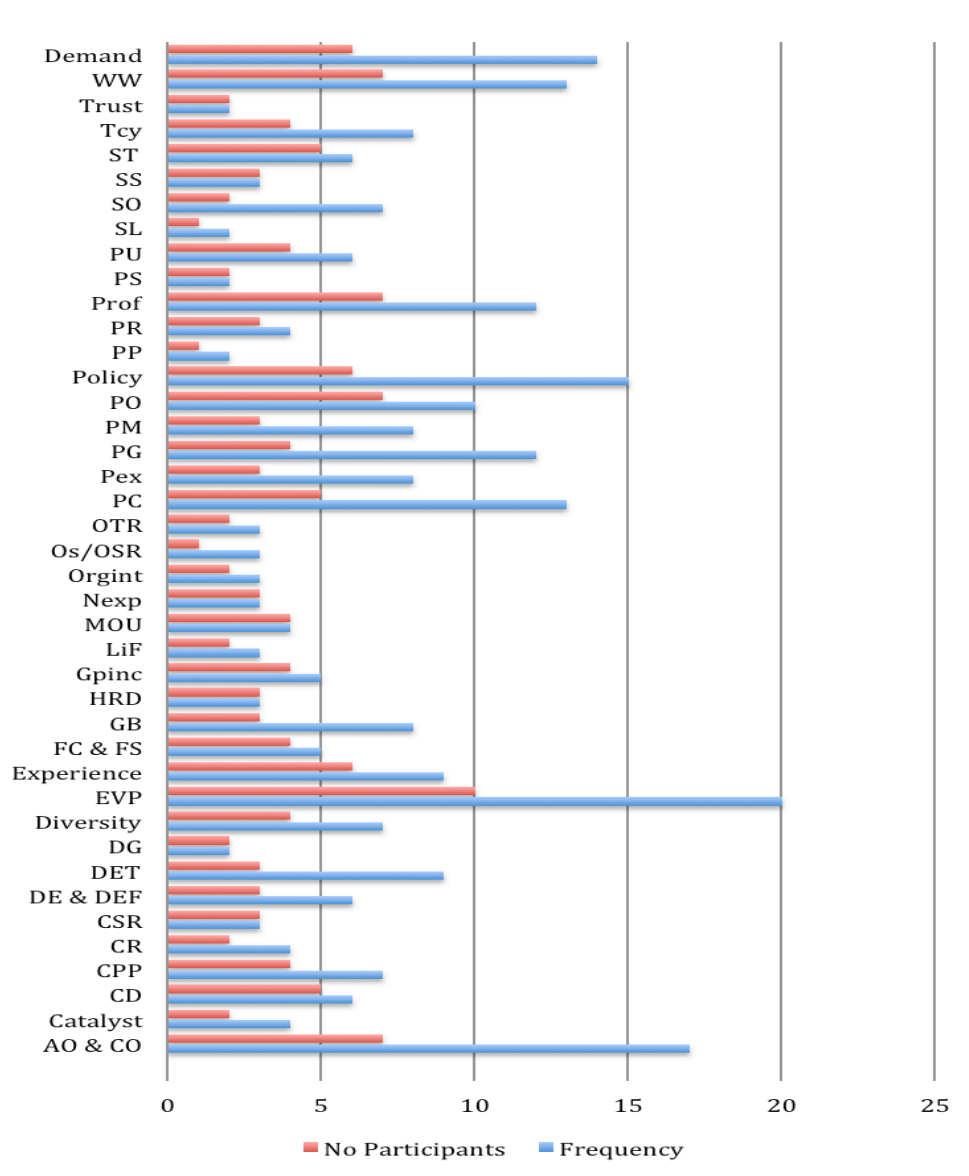


Figure 1. Codes versus iterations.

Patton (2002) considered coding and classifying data as an appropriate mechanism for generating "frameworks, for organizing and describing" (Patton, 2002 P465) field data in a descriptive phase of an analysis. In the process of this qualitative data analysis, I carried out convergence of data and respective codes, proceeding along the lines of reiteration, or "recurring regularities" (see Patton, 2002 P465) of such data codes. The merging of codes following such reiterations revealed some patterns or categories, which in turn appeared to have some "internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity" (Patton, 2002 P465). In other words, analysis of field data in this study was carried out through the coding and classifying of facts and ideas contained in interview transcripts and documents of partnership.

The coded data was then transformed into categories to generate patterns that permitted description and understanding of data, in order to answer the research question as in figure 2. However, the analysis was guided and directed towards a search for ideas that were relevant to the research question. For this reason, relevant codes were drawn from terms and ideas contained in transcripts, which were considered relevant to the search for success factors. In the same vein the researcher induced categories or groupings of data based on data relevance to the research question. The abbreviated labels designating categories are as shown in table 6 for ease of reference in subsequent sections

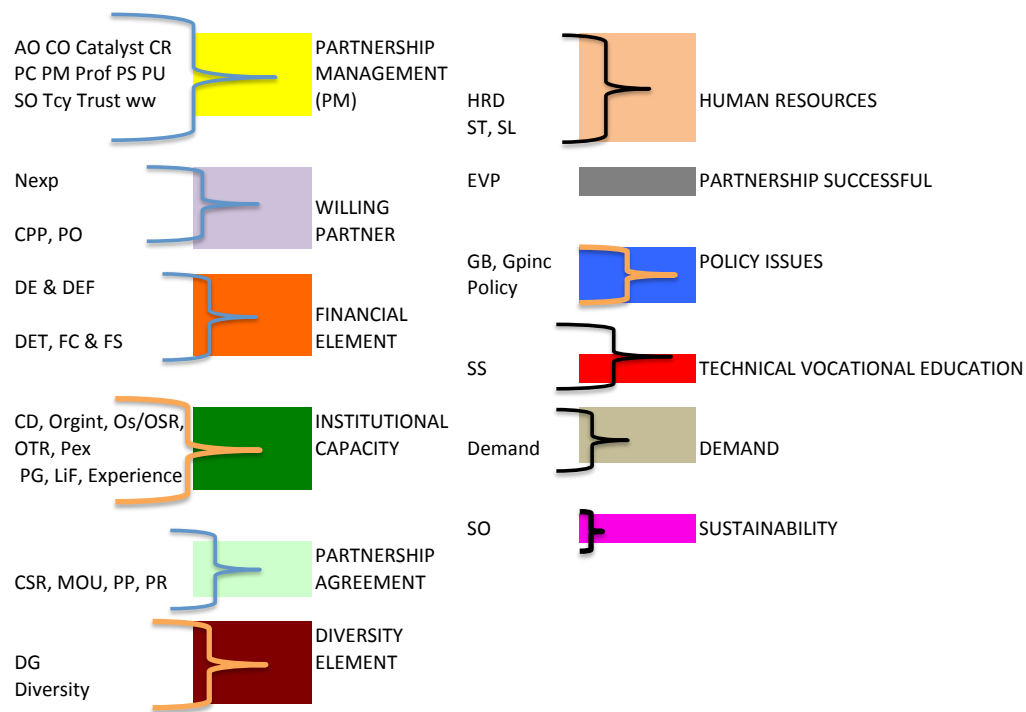


Figure 2. Codes and derived categories.

Table 6

Categorical Labels and Iteration

Categories	Labels	Iteration	Participants
Demand element	DE	15	TM, OA, EA, DA, DC, AL, AY, Psg
Diversity element	DV	14	Psg, OA, EA, DC, AL.
Financial element	FE	11	AL, DC, EA, Psg, TM.
Policy issues	PI	29	TM, Psg, OA, EA, DC, AY AL.
Human resources	HR	23	TM, Psg, OA, ME, EA, DC, DA, AY,
Institutional capacity	IC	66	UO, TM, Psg, OA, ME, EA, DC, DA, AY, AL,
Partnership agreement	PA	3	EA,
Partnership successful	PSP	17	TM, Psg, OA, EA, DA, AY
Partnership management	PM	72	UO, TM, Psg, OA, EA, ME, DC, DA, AY, AL.
Sustainability	SY	11	OA, EA, AL
Technical vocational education	TVET	6	OA, EA, DA.
Willing partner	WP	13	TM, EA, OA, DC, DA, AY

Evidence of Trustworthiness

Credibility

In the study, effort was made to guard credibility of data as base for a credible study. Accordingly, there was attention towards access to credible data, in the sense that participants were purposely selected using an elitist sampling procedure. Also, there was diversification of data source to include interviews, partnership documents and organizational virtual sources.

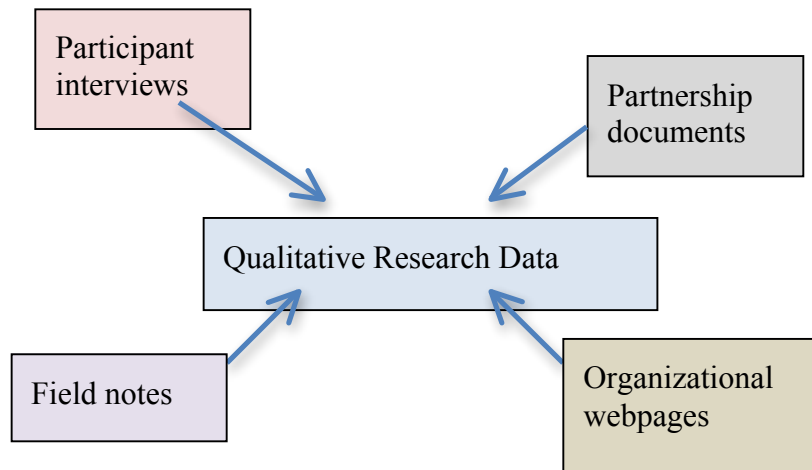


Figure 3. Multiple source and verification of data.

Design of the interview protocol also facilitated access to credible data because it comprised of open-ended questions that offered limitless opportunity for participants to narrate experience.

Also, for credibility of the study with respect to method or procedures, data analysis, and results the process by which categories were developed, was exposed to bring it into public domain (Table 4, Table 7, Appendix G). This was considered a measure to enhance security and credibility of data analysis (see Apori-Nkansah, 2008. P105). The originating sources of categorization were participants and partnership document, such that the authority for creating the categories derived mainly from the participants on interview and in the transcripts of such interviews. Also, the level of iteration of similar ideas from codes made it necessary to decide on some designation for categories. Such categories as PA, IC, TVET, WP, and HR were obtained through such authorization. In the same vein, the category PA was drawn by iterations from

participants and from partnership documents. There was no conscious attempt to draw categories from literature and from the program.

Verification and justification of some of the categories could be carried out empirically through the interview transcripts and partnership documents. However, nominally the names used to describe the categories were derived from participants and the transcripts of their interview as direct words or connotations of the key words in the chains of ideas as iterated by participants. This is the case with categories designated by *DE* (donation of equipment), which is a direct expression from several participants to explain inputs received as counterpart funding or support for the CSP. On the other hand, *IC* designating Institutional Capacity derived from the idea implied in codes such as staff training, donation of fund and equipment, experience, as grouped in Figure 2. Also, few categorical names were drawn from partnership documents in a temporally *aposteriori* way (see Table 7). In all these, there was an effort to show that codes and subsequent categorization of ideas on analysis have not been purely arbitrary but based on participants' experience and objective documentations in partnership agreements. Accordingly, the credibility of data, analysis, procedure, as well as the study could be guaranteed to a large extent.

It could be argued thus, that codes in the study derived from key words occurring in participants' comments, which corresponded to the context or theme found during content analysis, and within the expressions uttered by participants. Subsequently, the use of iterative code mapping, displayed on tables, gave further ideas about the initial codes drawn from data (Table 4). In this way also, it showed how the derived codes were

aggregated into categories in order to make the process public and enhance credibility.

Some scholars are of the opinion that when the process of developing categories and data analysis in a study is documented and made open, such findings are made trustworthy (see Constas, 1995, as cited in Apori-Nkansah, 2008).

Table 7.

Component of Categorization and Temporal Designation of Categories

Component of Categorization	Temporal Designation		
	Apriori	Aposteriori	Iterative
Origin of Categories (Where does the authority for creating the categories lie)			
Participants			DE, DV, FE, PI, HR, IC, PA, PSP, PM, SY, TVET, WP
Partnership Documents		PA	
Literature			
Programs			
Verification: On what grounds can one justify a given category?			
Rational			
Empirical			DE, DV, FE, PI, HR, IC, PA, PSP, PM, SY, TVET, WP
Referential			
External			
Technical			
Participative			
Nomination: What is the source of the name used to describe the category?			
Participants			DE, DV, FE, PI, HR, IC, PA, PSP, PM, SY, TVET, WP
Program			
Partnership documents		PA, DE, FF, HR, IC, PSP, TVET, WP	

(See Constas, 1995 as cited by Apori-Nkansah, 2008)

Further, I served as an agent for data collection in the study and was responsible for data storage, analysis, and transcription of the interviews. This guaranteed some sort

of integrity of data and fidelity to data source. By this means too, credibility is served (see Goulding, 2002, as cited by Apori-Nkansah, 2008). Also, there was a check on subjectivity and biases aided by a general awareness of this possibility and a resolve to keep from bias throughout the study.

Confirmability

Confirmability of this study could be potentially supported by the conformity that exists, between the findings and participants' views. Also, some of the findings have been subjected to member checking and opinion of some other selected participants in the study. Thus, on collecting and sieving the responses there was attempt at clarification of data from amongst participants, and from other sources, which potentially enhanced credibility as well as confirmability of data (see Miles et al., 2013; Patton, 2002).

The context of persons and the organizations have also been considered so as to obtain every detail about each data. By this, it was possible to produce rich descriptions of the research context and findings. According to Maxwell, (2013), this procedure is capable of enhancing confirmability and validity of data. Also, respondents in the study were informed about the context of the questions before they responded to such questions on the interview protocol. The participants were approached personally and reminded of the research to which they have given their consent earlier. Some clarifications were then offered where there were doubts or confusion about the questions. In this way, the interview elicited appropriate answers.

Findings from the study were also matched with conclusions from previous studies and to observations in the field. This procedure also revealed some conformity of

research findings to reality and to prior works in literature. Confirmability of research findings requires reports on the measures taken to confirm findings too (see Apori-Nkansah, 2008; Trochim, 2007)

Transferability

To ensure transferability, participants' experience of the partnership phenomenon was described with relevant details in order to explain what have been experienced. In this way, such experience and associated phenomena were made accessible to external viewers that would judge its transferability (Apori-Nkasnsah, 2008, P 108). Also, such phenomena and learning became potentially replicable, when adjudged to be so, and other persons who are not involved in the partnership could readily identify with the experience.

Thus, there has been a structuring of the narrative report within the context of a realist tradition. This included details and direct quotes from participants along with research interpretation, which give away peculiar insights from researcher, with respect to the CSPs under consideration.

Dependability

Analysis and conclusions from a study may be considered dependable, because there was an awareness and reporting of changes that occurred within the context of research, and consequences of such changes on the study. In the course of this current study, the circumstances of participants and organizations involved in the research have been noted during data collection and analysis. For instance, some demographic changes in Nigeria such as increased population of youth, low access to quality education, and

low esteem for technical vocational education, were part of the research contexts that affected the research. For instance, the low esteem for technical vocational education was so deeply entrenched in the mentality of people that a special public enlightenment activity had to be organized by TVIIT to counter the mentality and encourage eligible candidates to enroll for the TVET.

Among the changes experienced in the said contexts is the regression in the national economy. For instance, a fall in the price of oil in the international market caused a reduction in government revenue and a weakening of the national economy, which became quite pronounced in the year 2015. Consequently, the economy went into recession and contrasted by minus 1.5% in 2016 (Okonjo-Iweala, 2018). Thus, even with a growth of 1.9% expected in 2018, and a population growth rate of 2.6% per year, there would be a zero to negative per capita income growth, implying that more people would be driven into poverty, besides the 36.1% of national population who are already living below the absolute poverty line of \$1.90 per day. This situation affected the research context considerably because the corporate entities involved in the CSP were forced to adjust to the changing economic and business environment. For instance, Schneider Electric had cause to re-evaluate its involvement in the CSP and adjusted their planned contributions to the partnership. Also, the downturn in the economy affected many families causing reduction in number of applicants for TVET training. This lower enrolment in turn had adverse effects on the resources of the school.

Besides the above context, there was sustained civil and religious crises caused by the Boko Haram religious and political insurgency. The experience and imminent danger

of such attacks by the terror group affected and influenced the thinking of some participants in some ways. For instance, some interviewees were led to appreciate further the need to engage and offer technical and life skills to youth. Others seemed to feel the hopelessness of social interventions in the face of such daring insurgency. In fact, some Niger Delta youths sent over to TVIIT on sponsored training aborted their training halfway in preference to insurgency and welfare packages offered in amnesty by government.

Another challenge in the context was due to the particular feature of the CSP, which was composed of nonprofits and for-profit organizations with interventions from the government or public sector. This was not only a source of novel learning for the partners but also a constant challenge to governance and management of the CSP. Thus, there was a note of concern among participants and interviewees with respect to sustainability of the partnership and the social service delivery action.

Results

Success Factors

This study was focused to find out key factors or elements, which supported service delivery of nonprofits through the CSP under investigation. Analysis of the transcripts and partnership documents showed that although many elements and situations worked as success factors to promote social service by nonprofits in the CSP, only few categories of elements were key to the successful delivery of such services. It also showed that most of the success factors and indeed, all of the key elements that

promoted service delivery of the nonprofits derive from the open nature of the organizational systems.

Success factors, in the context of this study, are the various elements that contributed to the initiation, operation and sustenance of the CSP under study. These are elements considered to be contributory to the existence and success of the partnership, in so far as the partnership, albeit remotely, is the organic substrate on which social service delivery of the nonprofit partners inhered. Thus, it seems reasonable to assume that a subset of key factors that promoted social service delivery of nonprofits are included in the broader spectrum of success factors. Therefore, an analysis of success factors in general would, in this case, be a useful first step to understanding the key elements that supported service delivery by nonprofits within a CSP. For this purpose, the codes were examined in terms of participants' perception of such codes as success factors (SF) or Limiting Factors (LF) and afterwards, the frequency of iteration of same codes. The findings are as shown in Figure 4.

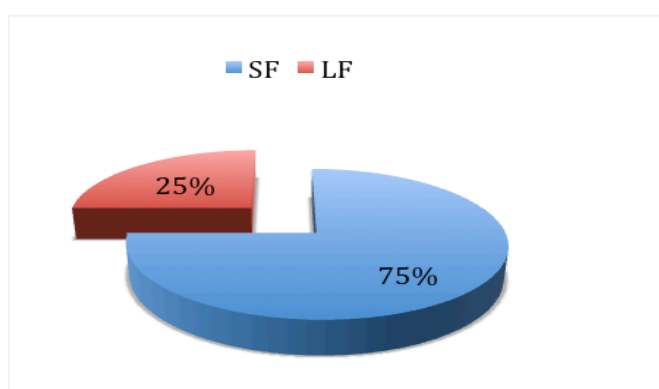


Figure 4. Proportions of success factors and limiting factors in the CSP.

Figure 4 shows that participants paid more attention to success factors during the interviews and highlighted it more than the limiting factors. This finding could have been due to a prior knowledge by participants of the research question, which might have biased participants in favor of success factors. Also, the interview protocol tended to emphasize the factors of success. The finding is also a logical phenomenon because an overwhelming percentage of limiting factors (LF) would have cast a doubt about the existence of any subsistent partnership in the first instance.

Subsequent analysis of the categories that fall within the broader theme of success factors showed further disaggregated patterns, and different levels of iteration. Thus, patterns at this level of iteration showed gradation of categories based on perception and iteration of such categories and elements, as factors of success, by participants (Figure 4 & Table 9). For instance, the categories of Institutional capacity (IC), Partnership management (PM), and Government policy (PI) were more iterated by participants and scored high on the scale of iteration. Also, some elements and categories within the theme of success factors were implicated at different stages of the CSP life cycle. For instance, the choice of partners at the inception of the CSP seemed to be based mainly on the institutional capacity (IC) of the organizations.

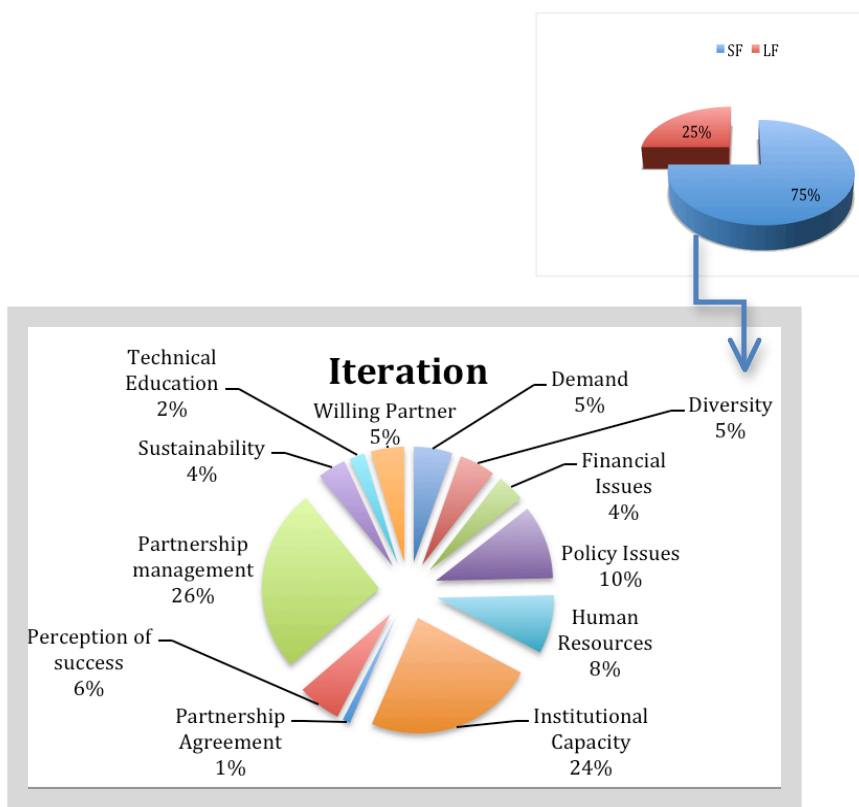


Figure 5. Elements within the theme of SF

Table 8

Perception of Categories as Success Factors

Categories	Frequency	SF
Demand	15	15
Diversity	14	1
Financial Issues	11	8
Government Policy	29	12
Human Resources	23	19
Institutional Capacity	66	58
Partnership Agreement	3	0
Perception of Success	17	15
Partnership Management	72	71
Sustainability	11	5
Technical & Vocational Education	6	6
Willingness to Partner	13	13

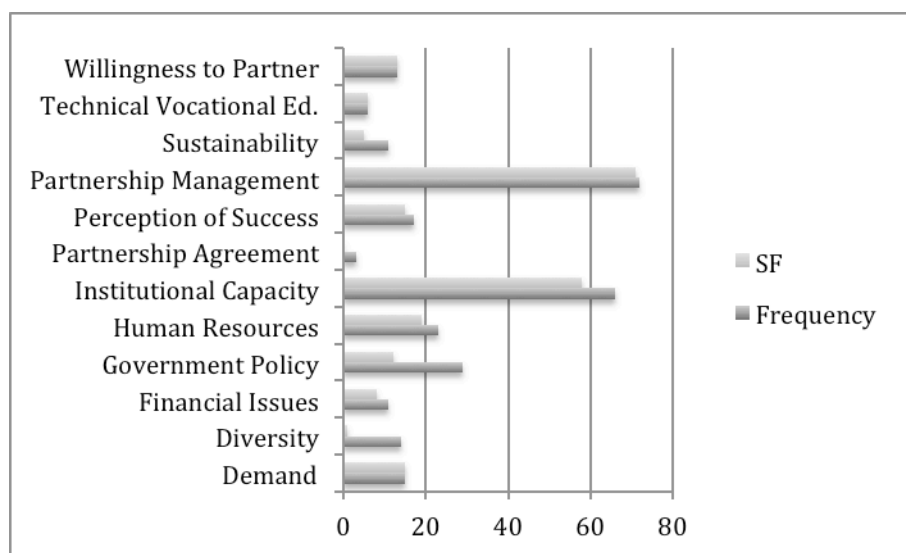


Figure 6. Perception of categories under the theme success factors.

Thus, on further categorical analysis, some categories seemed to rank significantly high on frequency of iteration as success factors (Figure 6). For instance, in table 8 the categories *Partnership management* (PM), *Institutional Capacity* (IC), and *Policy Issues* (PI) ranked high, as success factors, in social services delivery within the CSP.

In subsequent paragraphs the analysis will focus on those categories that appear prominent as success factors (figure 6) in order to find how they provide answers to the research question.

Institutional Capacity

Various elements stand out significantly on analysis of the category, institutional capacity (IC). The various elements of this category are outlined in table 9 as well as in

Figure 7, which show degrees of iteration of the elements as factors implicated in successful delivery of social services through the partnership. Of the 9 elements identified under the category, *PG*, *Prof*, and *Pex* ranked high. However, some of the findings from the analysis were unexpected namely, such as the less marked degree of iteration on elements such as *WW*, *OTR*, *DEFT*, and *Trust* (see Figure 7). In subsequent paragraphs, there is a description of the findings and major elements in relation to the research question.

Table 9

Elements in Category IC and Iteration as Factors of Success in Service Delivery

Element	Iteration
DEFT	9
PG	26
OTR	3
LiF	3
PC	2
Pex	11
Prof	14
Trust	3
WW	3

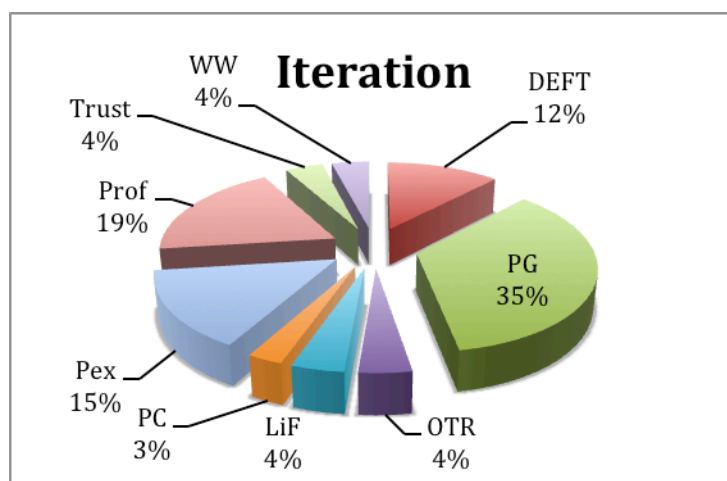


Figure 7. Degree of iteration of success elements under IC category.

The Institutions in Partnership

The institutions involved in the CSP were already operational in Nigeria before the action. Each organization already had history of playing in the local environment at various market segments and within various sectors of the economy. Thus, each organization seemed to possess certain requisite degree of institutional capacity (knowledge, aptitude and strengths) that permitted partnership across sectors. In the opinion of DC for instance, “Schneider came with DBs (Distribution boards) that was their major area of strength. CFAO came with major hydraulics training and IECD was coordinating.” A brief overview of the nature and operations of the constituent institutions in the CSP may provide relevant context about the organizational units in the CSP and their relevant capacities, which could have influenced partnership and service

delivery through the CSP. For instance, the TVIIT seemed to have been the school of choice for the partnership because of the competence and capacity found within it. On interview, several participants alluded to this fact in the following terms:

TVIIT was chosen because of our history and based on what we have done with some NGOs that helped us to set up like ACTEC. Because of that history we got quite a number of referrals from different people ... One other thing they (partners) liked about TVIIT was that we were very open and transparent, in the sense that, for one of our partners, issues of trust came up, especially when it was a question of money, expenses and financing (DC).

Further, OA commented,

They (partners) saw a certain capacity to move or rather to implement, to execute (the project) on ground, even though we still have lapses and the sort. ... We developed curriculum from industry end and based on the assessment of their need, which we also did in this project. This is another factor, which the partners saw as area of strength for us... I think that one thing that attracted the partners was that we already had a track record.

At a later stage of the partnership and in confirmation, as it were, of an earlier decision to partner with TVIIT based on capacity, AO informed of the following public acclaim of competence of the school in the following way:

Yes, at least we won an award from BusinessDay Newspaper, which is supposed to be a business and financial reporting Newspaper and I think people give some recognition to those awards. Then we submitted the process by which we

developed the curriculum and we were given the most innovative in the sector of education and this was as a consequence of (the partnership) and we told the partners about it and many were excited, and happy about the recognition.

TVIIT

TVIIT is a non-profit private sector initiative by the African Development Foundation (ADF). It has a mandate to address youth unemployment in Nigeria through technical education. The school was initiated in the year 2000, with the mission to give capacity to deserving out-of-school youths and adult workers with technical knowledge, vocational skills and ethical values. Part of the mission is also to produce morally upright and highly motivated persons who are able to help themselves, their families, industry, and the society as a whole. According to OA,

We try to empower young school leavers, so they can find employment as technicians or start small enterprises on their own...we already had a track record. The school was already operating for 14-15 years and based on our objective of integrating youth in the workplace, I think we were getting a high percentage of employment.

TVIIT started operations on March 27, 2000 at the premises of an existing factory in Ikeja, Lagos. During six years TVIIT operated from the temporary workshop. The school obtained an approval as an institution from the Lagos State Ministry of Education in May 2006 and in December 2006 it moved to its permanent site at Isheri North, Lagos State. Its permanent building has a total floor space of about 1,500 square meters on 3 floors. The school offers technical and vocational training as the main social service to

society. The partnership with IECD and companies was designed to boost the social service, by introducing a novel line of training on electro-technics, in addition to the dual-tech training already offered by TVIIT in electro-mechanics.

The Electro-technics Program is a two to three-year dual training program, designed to convert secondary school and technical college school leavers into technicians capable of working in the power supply systems and field services. The program is composed of a period of in-school training and in-plant or in-company training. The objective of the program is to develop field service technicians capable of installation, commissioning and maintenance of components of power generation and distribution systems, electrical installations, and building management systems. Table 10 shows some of the training modules outlined for the technical training. The introduction of electro-technics by TVIIT and partners was a key element that enhanced social service delivery of the school because it responded to a need in industries and also grew capacity of the school. According to ME, “The partnership also increased capacity of the school to incorporate electro-technic.”

An internship training within factories is a 9 months training for students, which offers practical experience to trainees. The school and participating companies jointly designed the training curriculum and monitored the in-company training component.

Table 10

Electro-technics Curriculum and Program Modules

General	Mechanical	Electrical	Automation
Technical Mathematics	Mechanical Measurements & Fitting	Electrical Fundamentals	Industrial Pneumatics and Controls
Computer Aided Communication	Mechanical Transmission and Drives	Cable Jointing	Data Acquisition and Control
Technical Communication	Welding (Electric Arc & Gas)	Power Generation, Transmission and Distribution	Fundamentals of Programmable Logic Control
Computer Aided Drafting	Electrical Solar Energy Systems	Building Wiring Electrical Panels, Protection and Control Devices	
Work Ethics Program		Electrical Motor Control & Maintenance	
Building/Engineering Drawing	Building Management System		
Industrial Safety	Variable Speed Drives		

(Source: TVIIT, 2016. Annual Report)

IECD

The IECD is an international nonprofit trust, which was constituted in 1988, with a broad vision of being “entrepreneurs in human and economic development in order to train the responsible stakeholders of the future” (IECD, 2017). The mission is to “create environments which allow everyone to build their future and a more equitable society”. In line with this mission, IECD promoted *Seeds of hope program* in various countries working in partnership with some foundations, which are affiliated to profit-making companies.

The purpose of the *Seeds of hope program* is to develop technical manpower in various countries. Accordingly, IECD carried out successful projects in Madagascar in 1989, in the Lebanon in 1989 and in Cameroon in 1992. The organization has also

extended its services to Latin America in 1994, and Southeast Asia in 2004. In order to successfully drive its programs, IECD partnered with 70 companies and 120 local partners. By 2016, 14,500 young people and adults have been trained and employed as a result of the program.

Youth employment is prioritized in interventions by the IECD. For instance, 34% of its activities are geared towards the implementation of vocational training and integration projects designed to strengthen the employability of young people in emerging or developing countries. The implementation strategy involves modernization of technical training, development of partnerships with companies and support for young people in professional integration. This logic of intervention often seeks out establishments that already exist in the field in order to partner and participate in improving the educational offerings and reinforcing the schools at an institutional level.

Accordingly, the Seeds of Hope program concentrates mainly on the sectors of high demand such as electricity, energy and maintenance of services. It was designed to offer high quality training to unqualified young people and meet the needs of these growing sectors. The three main thrust of the program, in line with the organization's priority, are the modernization of technical training, the creation of partnerships with enterprises and support for young people in their professional integration. Activities in IECD partnerships vary and may include updating of syllabuses to incorporate practical training that allow students to acquire key competences, renovation of facilities for new technologies, and training of trainers as well as guided employment services for young

people aged from 15 to 25 years. The partnership with enterprises, facilitate long-term integration of young people into the economic dynamics of their country.

Following a successful implementation of the Seeds of Hope program in Lebanon, the methodology was rolled out in Nigeria in 2013. Relying on survey data, which showed that 45% of young graduates in Lagos are unemployed and quality of education is generally low, IECD planned training in electricity of the type offered by the Seeds of Hope program, in partnership with the TVIIT and industrial companies from the sector (IECD, 2017). The targets were young people from poor backgrounds. The training was planned to enable youth to access gratifying jobs and, at the same time, supply a qualified workforce for the energy sector and stimulate the local economy. According to OA, IECD started its partnership activities in Nigeria in 2013 under its Seeds of Hope program. It initiated the partnership with TVIIT in 2013 because IECD needed to build partnership with industries and with TVIIT. As OA observed,

In 2013 IECD had developed a new model to bring industrial partners on board instead of funding foundations. They were willing to share with us. Well, IECD came up and was willing to do something in Nigeria and had no partner.

The successful experience at the TVIIT enabled IECD to duplicate the program at two other schools in Nigeria namely, the Don Bosco schools in Akure and in Onitsha. Thus, out of the 766 young people trained through IECD in 2016, 55 were from TVIIT. In principle, IECD considered the partnership with TVIIT a success. The success of the program seemed to be reconfirmed when the program earned an award in May 2017,

from the Business Day newspaper for the best innovation in the field of education (IECD, 2017).

On its part, IECD appears to a stable, with the requisite capacity to meet its organizational mandate. For instance, the organization posted a total asset and liabilities of €9,056,837 in 2016, and an organizational income of €16,574,335 and about same sum in total expenditure for the year ended December 2016. The major sources of funding for the projects of IECD in the same period were, grants from foundations (45%), public funding (31%) and corporate funding (18%). About 91% of its operational budget in 2016 was dedicated to development projects, of which vocational training and empowerment programs accounted for 34%.

Schneider Electric Nigeria Limited

Schneider is a French Firm with over 170 years of history. It started in 1836 when Brothers Adolphe and Joseph-Eugene Schneider took over an abandoned foundry in Le Creusot, France and, create Schneider & Cie, a couple of years later, which carried on primarily steel business. In 1975 the Schneider Group acquired an interest in Merlin Gerin, a top manufacturer of electrical distribution equipment in France, and then became involved in the electricity sector. However, from 1981 to 1997 Schneider Group refocused on the electrical industry by divesting its non-strategic assets, such as its public works, and in 1999 acquires Lexel, one of Europe's largest suppliers of installation systems and control solutions. In this period the Group changed name to Schneider Electric, a name that marked their predominant market segment.

At the turn of the 2000s, Schneider Electric radically reconsidered its growth strategy, and set for itself key goals such as: creation of a Sustainable Development Department, defining Schneider Electric's sustainable development strategy and roll out plan, and developing and managing Schneider Electric's innovative community projects. Later,

In 2010, the Sustainable Development Department was adapted to better meet the Company's present and future challenges as well as the requirements of its stakeholders. It is organized around four areas: 1 ethics, steering the Responsibility & Ethics Dynamics program; 2 social responsibility, specifically with the Schneider Electric Foundation as well as local economic and social development programs, access to energy, with responsibility for the Access to Energy program (Schneider, 2014. Pp 62-100).

The organizational web page with the following link, <http://www.schneider-electric.com> has been designed with abundant content to meet the need of its numerous stakeholders. In Nigeria, the company trades as Schneider Electric Nigeria Limited, a subsidiary, which is fully owned, and targets companies in the electrical energy sector, and residential estates.

Schneider Electric Foundation, which is charged with the corporate social responsibility action of the company, enters into partnership with other organizations and carries on electricity-related training projects, by way of CSR. Founded in 1998 under the auspices of "Fondation de France", the Foundation operates anywhere in the world where the parent company does business. It generally focuses on three key programmatic areas

of intervention namely; training and professional integration in the energy trades, tackling of energy poverty, and awareness creation about sustainable development (Schneider, 2014). In this way, “around the world, Schneider Electric and its team members are involved in electricity-related training projects” (Schneider, 2007). For instance,

From December 3-7, 2007, students at Yaba College of Technology applied the electrical engineering lessons given by Schneider Electric team members in a hands-on workshop. Participants were asked to verify and optimize the electrical installations at Child Life Line, a Centre for the disadvantaged supported by Schneider Electric Nigeria, its employees and the Foundation (Schneider, 2014. Pp 62-100).

Thus, through its foundation the company carries out social interventions in communities where it operates. It supported projects that built technical Centers in partnership with local agents and trained technical instructors in bid to prepare youth for gainful employment. The Foundation has in some cases provided equipment and human resources to develop training programs. As a result of this, 90% of localities where Schneider operates have a lasting commitment with the Schneider Electric Foundation in the area of youth opportunities” (Schneider, 2007). In all, about 183 associations benefited from such support from 68 countries. In subsequent years, the foundation carried out more articulated and elaborate programs through CSP, which had more sustainable impact in developing countries. According to the organization,

The Foundation is partnering with the European Institute for Cooperation and Development (IECD) to upgrade training capacity at six technical schools

specialized in electrical, electronic and electromechanical studies. Dubbed “Seeds of Hope”, the program is designed to renovate the sites, supply the necessary teaching equipment, provide educational and technical support for trainers and develop a program of internships. (Schneider, 2014. Pp 62-100)

In terms of sustainable development, Schneider considered the year 2014 as their innovative year in five years because through their access to energy program, the company equipped close to 2.4 million households with energy solutions, while training 70,000 people from underprivileged origins in energy trades. Specifically,

On February 4, 2014, Schneider Electric inaugurated the Isaac Boro Energy Training College to promote access to energy in Nigeria. The Isaac Boro Energy Training College is a joint initiative between the Nigerian government and Schneider Electric Nigeria, drawing on the expertise of both Schneider Electric France and the French Education Ministry. (Schneider, 2014, p. 12)

Schneider Electric appears to have done well financially over the years and has become a large multinational company of considerable capacity at the time it engaged in the CSP involving TVIIT. For instance, the company posted a consolidated revenue of €17.3 Million in 2007 with a total asset of €23,267.7 Million and a total current liability of €6,921 Million. Although, the cost of provision of technical training receded over time, from 33.3% in 2005, to 26% 2007, the company recorded a considerable growth up to 13.9%, in 2007 and the revenue from emerging countries, which was up to 20%, accounted for half of total growth. The trend changed slightly in 2014, with the revenue growth at 1.4% and a net income of €3.5bn for the year ended December 2014.

Nonetheless, with an annual budget of €4 million, the Schneider Electric Foundation works to support partnerships it establishes through Schneider Electric entities in which employees are also involved. As at 2014, a total of €10 million has been invested in this way by the Foundation to benefit local communities (Schneider, 2014 P95-118).

Cummins West Africa

The Cummins Engine Company was founded in 1919, by Clessie Cummins with an assistance from William G. Irwin. In 1934, J. Irwin Miller became the general manager, and lead the company to international prominence over the subsequent four decades, establishing the Cummins Foundation in 1954. By the 1960s, Cummins established presence in 98 countries. The company maintained its vision of “innovating for our customers to power their success” and a mission to make “people’s lives better by powering a more prosperous world” (Cummins, 2018)

Today, Cummins has become a multinational with 2017 Fortune 500 rank 159, and with a workforce of 58,600 employees, servicing customers worldwide in their need for engines, power generation, and distribution. It recorded total revenue of \$20.4 billion in 2017 and a total net income of \$1 billion in the period.

The *Cummins Foundation* was one of the earliest corporate foundations. It functioned as a registered 501(c)(3) charity, which operates independently of Cummins Inc. However, the Foundation served as a corporate social responsibility outfit of the company, providing grants around the world to nonprofit partners in support of communities where the company worked. Thus the Foundation provides Community

Development Grants (CDG), to fund and support projects developed and submitted by Community Involvement Teams (CITs). As a result,

CDG requests, in collaboration with community partners, allow employees to learn more about their communities, use their business skills to build the capacity of an organization and create a deeper understanding of critical community needs. CDGs also ensure the Foundation's resources are used to deliver the greatest impact around the world (CumminsIncorporated, 2018b)

In 2017 the annual returns filed by the Foundation showed a healthy and stable organization with capacity to meet its mandate. For instance, it received total contribution income of \$10,319,832, and 93.5% of this was received from Cummins Inc. Also, out of its total expenses of \$13,124,944 in 2017, about 97.4% (\$12,794,996) of the sum was paid out in grants from the Foundation for social development projects. According to the Foundation's balance sheet, the total asset of the organization was \$38,847,261 at the end 2017 and its total liability for the year was \$1,243,465 (Cummins, 2018).

Cummins West Africa is a subsidiary of Cummins Inc. in West Africa, which manufactures and distributes power-generating machineries as well as related technologies. In 2012, the power generation segment of the company accounted for 15% of its \$17.334 billion global sales. The company manufactures a range of diesel and gas powered engines, which also accounted for 50% of its global sales in 2012. Cummins had a manufacturing and a distribution facility in South Africa too, which is their primary base on the African continent. Thus, Cummins Inc. has a visible presence in Nigeria through this subsidiary, Cummins West Africa Limited, which used to be jointly owned

by Cummins Inc. and AG Leventis Public Liability Company. The joint venture was initiated by AG Leventis in the 1980s as a strategy to expand its power provision services as demand increased in Nigeria. (Alos et al., 2015, Cummins, 2017).

CFAO

CFAO is a French company that deals on diverse products and services. The company operated as a distributorship for international brands (automotive, pharmaceutical, consumer goods, and industrial equipment). CFAO has a long history of working in Africa from 1913 with its automobile distribution business, which in 2012 accounted for a 61% of the company revenue. The company also distributed electrical power generating machines and services for various consumer classes, ranging from residential estates to hotels and some industries. CFAO had maintained a regional market share and strategy in Nigeria. In 2012, an 80% of the group's revenue to the tune of €3.585 billion was generated from Africa (Alos et al., 2015). For instance, the group 53 world-renowned brands as well as a full range of new passenger and utility vehicles, trucks, two wheels, tires and handling equipment, fall under their portfolio. The company's automotive arm operates in 35 African countries, while the Equipment network initiated in 2011 is operational in eight African countries.

CFAO invests also in people especially on the employability of young people. For instance, the company creates and supports training structures that are adapted to the needs of the target groups. Thus, CFAO is convinced that education and training are two essential elements for development in Africa, hence its investment in people through various programs. For instance,

The Groups actively supports small sectors that generate jobs and revenues. In Cameroon, the "Transform" project in partnership with outreach organisation, IECD targets two goals. It aims to incubate smaller companies seeking to gain a foothold in the food-processing industry while developing a short supply chain for fresh produce. In Côte d'Ivoire, CFAO supports growth in the country's cattle industry. These initiatives bring added value to producers and ensure better living conditions for all. (CFAO, 2018b).

The training program in Nigeria has produced about 500 trained young people and there is plan to extend this to Ivory Coast, with a plan to train 570 young people by 2018.

Thus, CFAO Group prefers, as a strategy, to work in partnership with non-governmental organizations and associations, or other initiatives that promote the sustainable development of the African continent. In October 2002 CFAO created the Foundation, *CFAO Solidarite* as a non-profit association. The foundation co-finances community and social projects desired by the group after study. These projects funded through CFAO Solidarite are supported by the Group's subsidiaries and are usually projects led by NGOs or local associations and in four thematic areas of health, education for young people, training and professional integration, as well as social entrepreneurship (CFAO, 2018b):

The Group supports small, job-creating and income-generating sectors. In Cameroon, in partnership with IECD, the "Transform" project has two objectives. On the one hand, structuring and professionalizing a processing sector allowing

the emergence of small agro-food companies and, on the other hand, developing a short supply chain for fresh produce (CFAO, 2018b).

The success of businesses by CFAO in Africa may be attributed to its in-depth knowledge of the markets, its experience and the effective manpower of 15,200 employees. In fact, its unique knowledge of the African markets coupled to the total control the company has over its logistics of commercial and marketing chain from partners to clients, are the attributes that favored the market share of the company in Africa. Also the ability of the group to meet the needs of a continent with such geographical and sectorial diversity portray it as adapted to the context of the African continent, with the resultant sustainable and sustained growth. The company operates 140 subsidiaries, and made about € 4.2 billion in sales as at March 31, 2017. 80% of such sales were in Africa. (CFAO, 2018a).

From the foregone, it appears that the individual organizational units that made up the CSP have capacities and some level of corporate boundary permissivity or facility that permitted certain degree of inter-dependence amongst them. Consequent on analysis, the CSP complex formed by the entities also appeared to have equally veritable institutional capacity that supported delivery of social services through its nonprofit partners. The subsequent paragraphs show the results from analysis of other aspects of institutional capacity that were key also in the delivery of social services through the CSP.

Professionalism (Prof)

Professionalism and the accompanying traits such as accountability and transparency were categorized under *Institutional capacity*. Those elements were

instrumental to building trust and confidence at the inception of partnership building and during operational phase of the CSP. For instance, the financial statements of the nonprofit partner, TVIIT revealed organizational order and financial transparency, which endeared TVIIT to other partner organizations. Thus, Professionalism was a major element in CSP, which encouraged investment and support to the social service provided by TVIIT. As OA pointed out on interview,

We brought out our statement of accounts and they (partners) could go through and see. Although it was not the audited account, (but) from it one could at least (see our statement of affairs). Later they told us that of all the projects they worked with, all over the world, this one was the most transparent.

Transparency (Tsy), as part of accountability therefore, was considered a key factor for social service delivery (SSD) because it contributed to trust within the CSP. It is a form of financial openness that ultimately affected sustainability of action. According to OA,

We have been keeping our accounts before now but (in this CSP) we had to be extremely transparent because we had to give report, seek approval, and put systems in place for approvals ... Everybody wants ... a system that is transparent, organized, and (where) easily you can see where things are filled.

Thus, nonprofits in the partnership needed to be reliable, and accountable in order to attract industry and the willingness of other sector agents to partner. For instance, the organizational leadership of each unit within the CSP, especially the nonprofits, was

necessary in the professional management of activities and corporate affairs of the CSP.

Thus, a perception of good leadership in TVIIT made it appear trustworthy to other partner institutions. This perception also attracted more organizations to partner with TVIIT and IECD, during the life cycle of the CSP. As a matter of fact, some sector leaders seemed convinced that NGOs need to be reliable, and accountable in order to attract companies or encourage other sectors to partner. In the opinion of AL,

We need reliable NGOs, because many companies want to run (partner) but they need reliability and accountability of the NGO sector agents. We need training of NGO managers so that they are reliable (AL).

The perception of reliability of nonprofits seemed to be associated with the organizational history and track record (OTR) of successful implementation of programs too. This, perception of reliability based on OTR, is another organizational dimension that helped to propagate a good image of the nonprofits. It gave some assurance of some degree of reliability and efficiency of the organization at program implementation or resource management. In the case under study, the track record of TVIIT endeared it for further partnership with companies. For instance, DC observed that,

TVIIT was chosen because of our history and based on what we have done with some NGOs that helped us to set up, like ACTEC, (a Belgian NGO). Because of that history, we got quite a number of referrals from different people.

Organizational Track record seemed to be a factor therefore in resource mobilization, besides from the major role it played in partnership building. Thus, in the

CSP, experience in form of OTR was an advantage and a major support to social services provision.

In summary, nine coded elements accounted for the influence of IC on social service delivery (SSD), and the frequency of participants' iteration of each of the elements is represented in figure 6. Professionalism of the nonprofit parties in the partnership encouraged investment towards the social service provided by TVIIT. The professionalism was manifested essentially in transparency of operations, which made the nonprofits appear reliable, accountable, and worthy to attract industry and willing partners from other sectors. Another element under IC that influenced resource mobilization and aided partnership building for SSD was Organizational track record (OTR). However, OTR was closely linked to experience (PEX) through which it influenced SSD. Both elements accounted for 19% of iterations. Thus, OTR, PEX, and professionalism, which made up 38% of coded elements under institutional capacity, were considered major factors that endeared TVIIT to prospective partners and supported provision of TVET.

A closer analysis and description of PEX in the following paragraphs would shed more light on that partnership element and the link to social service delivery.

Partnership Experience (PEX)

The CSP created about TVIIT in Nigeria was unique and made so by the involvement of profit-making companies, corporate foundations, nonprofits and government agencies. Managing the corporate complex, not only required sufficient prior

experience but also constituted a rich source of experience for the managing partners. Psg alluded to this fact as follows:

Thanks to the experience gained in Nigeria, IECD has been able to extend (services) to other countries through development of cross sector partnerships.

It could be argued therefore that corporate experience on CSP was a factor that helped IECD to manage the CSP in Nigeria and by same token, influenced social service delivery of TVIIT. EA gave an idea of such corporate experience as follows,

IECD started the Seeds of Hope Project in Lebanon and extended it to Morocco and Egypt. Then to Nigeria and Ivory coast. We succeeded in working with schools, and we move in countries where we identify needs in power and energy. In Lebanon we worked with Schneider.

Also, the experience acquired by TVIIT from working with industries, prior to the CSP under study, and another experience that the school gain from developing earlier training curriculum, were initial factors that encouraged partners to build on a base of experience, as well as incorporate electro-technics into the curriculum. In the words of OA,

We developed curriculum from industry end and based on the assessment of their (industry) need, which we also did in this project. This is another factor, which the partners saw as area of strength for us.

DC corroborated this fact about experience on saying the following,

We had Cummins, Schneider, and CFAO become interested because they had strong collaboration with IECD in Paris. So (consequently) they became interested in the project.

Thus, past experience of collaboration of IECD with corporate foundations of Schneider, and CFAO in Paris and Lebanon was a strong enough influence, which prompted IECD to replicate such partnership for social service in Nigeria.

On the contrary however, the experience of cross sector partnership at TVIIT was limited. For instance, prior partnership experience of the school was limited to training services offered to company staff. Such limited experience reduced efficacy of partnership, and had limiting influence on service delivery by TVIIT. Nonetheless, there seemed to be no doubt that a good track record and professionalism, as outlined earlier, endeared the school to prospective partners and donors. Accordingly, it would be plausible to argue that experience was a notable element within the CSP that supported SSD. This fact was actually affirmed in a comment by Psg as follows,

IECD had already developed projects in Nigeria. IECD knew already TVIIT too, as this latter cooperated with another NGO partner of IECD, and the feedback was very positive.

Findings from the analysis also showed that experience, in form of prior knowledge from dealing with each other, guaranteed a basic knowledge for both NGOs involved in the partnership. Such experience facilitated the process of partner selection and subsequent partnership agreement in form of an MOU. For instance, the following remark by Psg confirmed the force of such experience and its guarantee of support for SSD.

We wanted to extend the partnership with Schneider to other geographical areas.

It was quite straightforward to think of Nigeria and TVIIT

Findings from the study suggest that experience, evidenced by an organizational track record, influenced funding to nonprofits in the CSP. And such experience also played a major role in partnership initiation and later development. Thus, at the heart of the CSP, experience helped to advance social service provision. For instance, experience advanced industry contributions and resolution of conflicts, which fed into the social service provided by the TVIIT. According to OA,

The school was already operating for 14 years and based our objective of integrating youth in the workplace; I think we were getting a high percentage of employment.

In summary, partnership experience, which recorded 15% on the IC categorical analysis (Figure 6), sufficiently guaranteed mutual knowledge of each other amongst the partnering units. This, in turn influenced partnership initiation and later development by encouraging funding to the nonprofits. Above all, sufficient prior partnership experience was required in order to manage, build, learn by, and deliver social services through the CSP complex.

The next section is a description of the elements coded under the category of PG and the relevance to social service delivery carried out within the CSP.

Partner Growth (PG)

Given the scarcity of electrical technicians and training institutes for such manpower in the country, the demand for technical manpower grew. This led to a need to increase the number and capacity of the existing training institutions within Nigeria. IECD not only identified but also articulated this need and thus, acted the catalyst to

promote a CSP to meet the need. Accordingly, partner growth (PG) became a desirable good for the CSP in order to meet the social service delivery target, to empower youth through TVET.

In this vein, some participants reiterated the concerted effort to build capacity of the nonprofit partners in the CSP as a success factor and a key element that supported delivery of Technical vocational education and training (TVET) at TVIIT. By growing the organizations, through the development of human resources and provision of training equipment, the CSP grew capacity of the nonprofits involved. This fact seemed to support the view in literature, which placed the strength of partnership in its capacity for crowd funding, or agglomeration of strengths to support each other. Thus, although the initial capacity of TVIIT for TVET was useful for partnership building and for an extension of service delivery, subsequent partner growth (PG), especially in TVIIT capacity to deliver training, was a useful element that further supported successful delivery of the social objective. According to some participants,

TVIIT benefited in the partnership from point of view of assets, considering the equipment received and the extent of training received by staff (UO). It is my opinion that it (partnership) is a better way of acquiring technology or to imbibe other people's culture... The partnership helped us achieve more than we could have achieved if we worked alone, in terms of equipment and e-learning facilities. We can now offer our courses on diesel engine more confidently (ME). Thus, everyone felt that in the area of TVET TVIIT has become an expert and gained a lot of capacity (DC).

The growth in capacity of TVIIT to deliver TVET also involved a review of the curriculum of training to meet industry need and to make it relevant to social need. This too, was a success factor that gave boost to the product, TVET in the marketplace. The revised curriculum was made richer by the introduction of training on electro-technics.

As was noted earlier in the research context, the power sector in Nigeria was under reform following purposeful deregulatory and privatization policies by the government (Makwe, Akinwale, & Atoyebi, 2012). This change triggered off chains of responses from industry players within the power sector, ranging from company policy changes to outright changes in investment strategies. Most of such adjustments were aimed at meeting the expected market demand and growing market shares of the companies. This in turn led to a demand for technicians and training of more technicians that would work in the electrical power sector.

Faced with demands for skilled technical labor, companies and nonprofits felt obliged to enter into CSP as a vehicle to meet the social need. This was partly the genesis of a CSP that involved TVIIT. According to AY,

We chose the course, electro-technics because we noted that the government was diversifying power sector, but government has not moved as fast as we expected. Nigeria came up as one of the countries with huge potential and need for technical education. ... Most of the worries for most organizations were about getting quality technicians that have the basic training of technicians.

Although the partnership counted on government participation, it was difficult to secure government sector participation at every stage of the CSP operation. However, every

partner in the CSP was assigned partnership roles and obligations that each had to meet in order to contribute to PG of the nonprofits and ensure delivery of the common social objectives. Such assistance, especially towards practical training on industrial machines and engines, made the TVIIT training curriculum more relevant and TVIIT trainees more sort-after. AY described such support to growth of the nonprofit partner in the following words,

As Cummins, we brought in Diesel engines. We also helped them with basic tooling such as the Amps meter and Micrometer that the school did not have. We made sure we supported them with these... Schneider came with DBs (Distribution Boards) that was their major area of strength. CFAO came with major hydraulics training and IECD was coordinating.

Thus, there was also administrative support by way of direct support to operations of the nonprofit partners, which furthered service delivery. Such support was not so much in terms of PG as in direct fulfillment of partnership roles, which was key in service delivery of nonprofits through CSP. According to DC,

CFAO supported on the administrative end, they provided a car for the project, paid part of the salaries for the drivers, and helped with accommodation of some partnership staff.

Staff Training (STG), which is a component of *Provision of equipment and training* (DET), improved the human resources of TVIIT especially through the various in-service training of TVIIT staff. Thus, the element of provision of equipment and training (DET) was also key to achieving the common objective in social service delivery

of the nonprofit school, TVIIT. In other words, staff training (STG) and donation of equipment with training (DET) played roles in setting stage for achievement of the CSP objective of youth empowerment through TVET. OA expressed this phenomenon in few phrases when he observed that,

We entered into partnership with the objective of building the capability of our institution. First thing you have to do is develop your people. Yes I think we derived a lot of benefit here because one of the things we also put on the table was training. Some partners were thinking of giving equipment and moving on, but we said no, "training must come with the equipment."...They (IECD) held training in Dubai and in Lebanon (Beirut) and in Paris, so people got trained. Other partners, at least one, incorporated the training into their own in-house staff training. So I would say that we derived benefits from this aspect of human resource development.

Partner growth (PG) in the CSP, as could be adjudged from the aforesaid, was achieved by growing the organizational assets of the nonprofit partners including their human capital. This was done mainly by donations of equipment and training on such equipment (DET). Donations of equipment for training was a key factor that innovated, in practical terms, the training offered to students. In addition, ownership of such donated machines was transferred to the school irrevocably, such that there was a veritable addition to fixed assets of the school, in direct furtherance of the social service delivery efforts of the school.

DET also helped to change the scale and image of the training institute in a way that impressed participants such as TM who exclaimed, “I was amazed at the equipment donated by groups like Cummins, and Schneider”. According to AL,

From the point of TVIIT, it has given them the opportunity to increase their personnel, they had to employ new people, new skills, equipment, and they are better prepared to go to the next level of expansion, production or training. ...As they run the program they get better in delivering it.

Further, by assisting the nonprofit partner, with donations and financial management, Cummings had also instituted a program for organizational sustainability for TVIIT. Cummins West Africa seemed convinced that financial management skills would be a preparatory ground for sustainability of operations. Thus, as noted by AY,

The lot of TVIIT has improved in terms of training. Also organizational asset; we used our finance team to help them look at their finances and fees.

From the above narration, it is deduced that other major elements, which furthered social service delivery of the nonprofits in the CSP have been, efforts to increase organizational capacity of the nonprofits to deliver on TVET, both in terms of fixed assets and human capital. However, a finding that came through, from common opinion of interviewees, was that a CSP should result in benefits and growth of nonprofits, if it is to support social service delivery. For instance, the total asset of TVIIT grew in the first phase period of partnership (2015 to 2017) from =N=274,228,354.69 or \$761,745.42 to =N=291,229,064.13 or \$808,969.62, while the training equipment (asset) alone in the

school grew by 148% from =N=8,761,015.30 or \$24,336.25 in 2015 to =N=21,700,758.12 or \$60,279.88 in 2017 (see Figure 8).

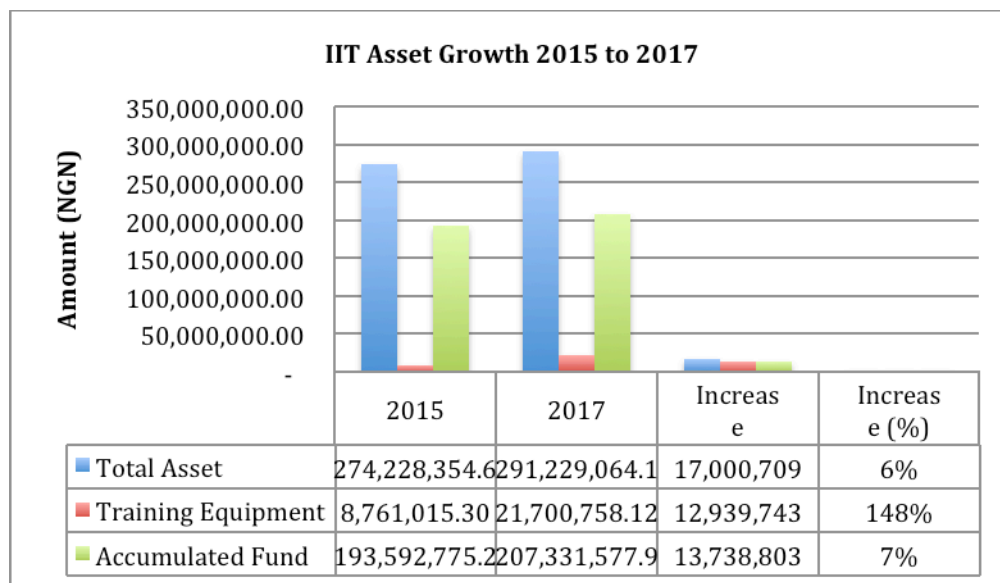


Figure 8. Asset growth in TVIIT from 2015 to 2017.

The facilitation and actual provision of company facilities for industrial practical training of students, within the factories, was also a major contribution from the industries, which gave boost to social service by TVIIT and met the need of the companies. In the views of ME,

The partnership helped us achieve more than we could have achieved, if we worked alone, in terms of equipment and e-learning facilities. We can now offer our courses on diesel engines more confidently.... The partnership with industries did help in terms of (practical) training (too).

In summary, efforts to increase organizational capacity of the nonprofits to deliver on TVET, both in terms of growth in fixed assets and human capital, have been key elements that furthered social service delivery by nonprofits in the CSP under study. Thus, besides from an initial organizational capacity of TVIIT prior to the partnership, subsequent partner growth (PG), especially in TVIIT capacity to deliver training, was a key element for a successful delivery of its social objective. Findings showed that the total asset of TVIIT grew in the period 2015 to 2017 by 6.2%, but the school's fixed asset for training (in terms of plants and machinery) grew by 148%. This represented a significant growth in organizational asset of TVIIT, which made an impact on quality of training and funding.

Accordingly, the element *Donation of equipment and training* (DET), which recorded 12% on the IC category analysis (figure 7), was key to achieving the set common objective in social service delivery of the nonprofits. In other words, staff training (STG) and donation of equipment with training (DET), played roles in setting stage for achievement of the CSP objective of youth empowerment through TVET.

In the next section there is a description of the findings with respect to elements of partnership management category. It explores participant experience, from the interview transcripts, to show the extent of support PM lent to the CSP towards an advancement of social services rendered by TVIIT.

Partnership Management

A participant, UO, observed that “there was much management of partner interests” in the partnership. This phenomenon was challenging for the coordinating

nonprofit within the partnership. However, it provided an opportunity for learning. Thus, in spite of the different interests in the partnership, there was a consensus on specific common objectives and goals. Such consensus was necessary in order to jointly deliver on some common social service goals, and as UO pointed out, the partnership entities did not always share a common goal “but there was a melting point”

Forging a “melting point” in such a CSP engagement was a pointer to the openness of the organizational systems involved; because it entailed adjustments and adaptations of processes, mandates, and structures in order to partner. However, such adaptations or openness required a complex of other actions and skills, which are here categorized under Partnership Management (PM), in order to merge them into a partnership-building tool. In this respect, Psg pointed out,

Since each organization has its own goals, the goal of the partnership considers all those goals, making them compatible.

It would be plausible to argue that management efforts, to achieve compatibility of goals and objectives of the various organizations in the CSP, was key to operating the CSP and by this fact, important to the delivery of social services based on the partnership. For instance, it entailed an alignment of various interests and objectives towards a common purpose, the empowerment of youth through TVET, which became the focus of the CSP. What is more, PM seemed to account for about 26% on the iteration chart of success factors in the CSP (figure 5).

Part of the PM and one that stood out on analysis of the category was the alignment of the organizational objectives. A further look at the element would elucidate the role its management played in support of the partnership goal.

Alignment of Objectives

Compatibility of goals and objectives of the different units in the partnership was key to the functioning of the CSP. But making goals compatible is to align partner objectives towards a common purpose. In the CSP under study, the common objective is the social service of providing Technical vocational education and training (TVET) towards the empowerment of youth. Although delivery of this social service corresponded to the nonprofits in the CSP, the presence of the common objective (CO) was an element in the CSP that fostered investment in the TVET. Such partnership management by common objectives accounted for 17% of iterated elements under PM (Figure 9). An interviewee, Psg, expressed this component in a graphic way when he said,

We were doing social service through use of TVET and the partners also wanted a social side, because they wanted young people who could be integrated into work life. So, a number of what TVIIT was doing coincided with what they (companies) had in mind. There was readiness, (on the part of companies), to change and adapt their processes, given that NGOs do not understand their (industry) constraints. ... Since each organization has its own goals. The goal of the partnership considers all those goals, making them compatible

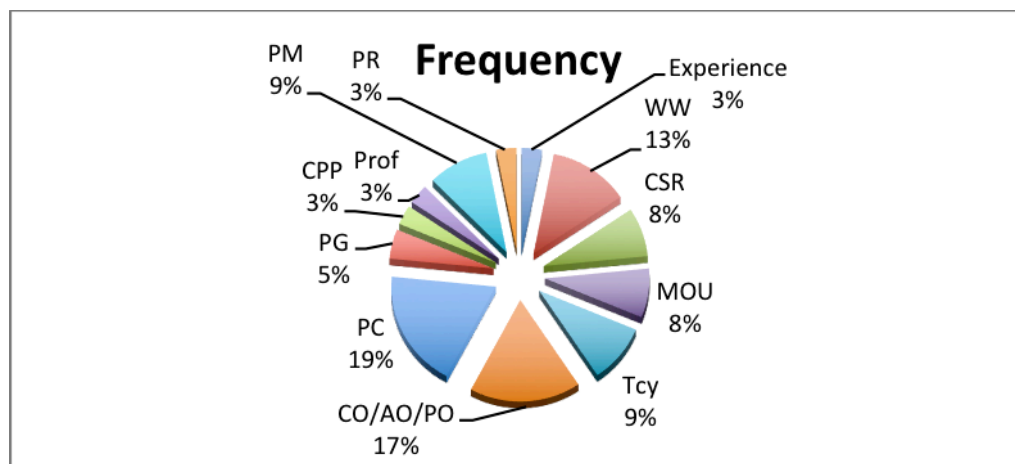


Figure 9: Some components of partnership management category.

Further, when similarity of organizational goals is reinforced by shared objectives among organizations, it influenced choice of partners and strengthened the resolve to partner with the other organizations in the CSP. However, managing such shared objectives during the life cycle of the partnership was one of the key elements that sustained the partnership and allowed for effective service delivery. For instance, the companies donated their branded machines for various reasons including marketing and training on soft skills. Such donated equipment in turn aided teaching and learning of electro-technics. According to AY, while Cummins sort for partners for its Technical Education in Communities (TEC) program, it alighted on the fact that “IECD was already in the field and had similar objectives as Cummins.” Or as OA put it;

IECD came up and was willing to do something in Nigeria and had no partner.

They proposed what they had in mind and among their series of activities there was an area where they were looking at investing in capacity building in technical

vocational education sector. They needed schools or operators in that sector. They were going to bring industry partners together and we (TVIIT) looked at it and felt that this was one of the things we needed... We talked to one of the partners here locally and they had a foundation in US, the Cummins Foundation, and they wanted to do CSR. They have a program called Technical Education in Communities, (TEC), and they were looking for where to implement such a program in Nigeria.

The social service objective of this partnership is to offer electro-technics training to youths in order to build their capacity to work in the electrical and technical industries. This objective required the development of a training curriculum, which was also designed to accommodate the objectives and expectations of industries and the training objectives of the nonprofits. An innovative procedure, devised by the CSP to achieve this purpose, was to work jointly with industries in the development of the curriculum and involve the companies in an industrial training scheme for students. Commenting on factors that facilitated work with nonprofits, AY had this to say,

One key factor was alignment of goals and objectives. Communication was key for us (too). Also a lot of Documentation was put in place for us to succeed in the partnership.

Besides management by objectives, IECD operated another management practice that accounted for efficiency of service delivery. It operated a lean-office strategy to manage the CSP and this turned out to be a useful sustainability strategy. By lean office

practice, IECD, which was saddled with the role of managing the project, maintained only the necessary number of staff and means, thereby keeping administrative costs low.

Part of the management strategy also, was the institution of a steering committee, which was a governance mechanism that ensured participatory approach to governance decisions and a contributory funding system for the partnership management secretariat. According to EA, this ensured that partnership staffs were paid. This management element fed directly into social service provision and provided funding mechanism, which was Key to fostering SSD. Although IECD had much experience in partnership management (PM) and carried it on as a corporate mandate in the current context, yet PM in the CSP led to much learning on the part of IECD. On interview, EA affirmed as follows,

We operated a lean office because we managed project through people. Partners paid their own staff and paid IECD some management fee ... We had a budget to which each partner contributed.

In sum therefore, potential partners identified similarity in objectives such that the recognition of similarities, followed alignment of corporate social objectives, and facilitated partnership for the purpose of delivering technical education to youth. TM had articulated the trend in practice of alignment of objectives at TVIIT when he observed that,

In my case (prior to the CSP), I want to sell something (training programs to companies) but today, (the management) will say I need to sign an MOU because the American is different from the French and from the English. And they have

their own ways. Therefore, the best thing is to create an MOU that captures all the interests.

Thus, effective management of the CSP by shared objectives was a key element that sustained the partnership and supported effective delivery of the TVET.

However, the partnership under consideration was operated in phases and the first phase was for duration of 3 years. This management practice of phasing allowed partners to freely participate in the partnership with an option of renewal at the end of term. Yet, the practice seemed to pose a challenge because partner renewal was not guaranteed in such a way as to mitigate any risks to sustainability of the CSP.

The next section describes yet another dimension of PM, which is communication amongst partners in the CSP in the context of the research question, in order to evaluate the extent of relevance of PC as practiced in the CSP, in the administration of social services from TVIIT.

Partner Communication (PC)

Effective communication among partnering units was an element in the CSP, which responded to the need for mutual understanding and support for the social service delivery (SSD). According to AL, “communication was key” in the CSP under review. It aided learning, specifically on systems of reporting and communication of social impact of activities by nonprofits. As Psg admitted,

It takes time to understand each other, (and) so it was a skill of communication we learnt over three years. Now I understand the development world, and I think many people of my organization did. ... Many people had to change their

reporting system on the project because we managed to understand what they (companies) wanted.

Partners also learned to communicate organizational core values, in such ways as to uphold and protect some partner core values, while promoting organizational openness in favor of CSP. A respondent, OA also noted that,

On the area of values, you have to protect the organization, because that is the core really... On some occasion we had to do this, (guard our values in the partnership) for instance, on issues of gender disparity and length of curriculum...

Communication with industries on the curriculum, quality of training, and industrial experience, contributed to success of electro-technic training.

A major activity in partnership meetings was often communicating on issues. Communication therefore, was a key element reiterated by most participants, as an influential factor in support of social service delivery. It is rated 19% on analysis of the categorical elements under PM (Figure 8). A strategy that ensured an effective partnership communication was the following reiterated by Psg.

We had the steering committee chaired by the IECD ... Every partner was represented, ... It was also a good avenue for educating themselves on the project. But towards the end as expectations kept varying, it became more difficult to coordinate.

Thus, to ensure success and sustainability of the CSP, partners felt a critical need to communicate their various expectations and how the CSP was meeting such expectations. For instance, the quest to meet industry need and partner mutual support,

helped partners to find benefit in partnership. Such perception of mutual support and benefit was also an element that aided support to SSD. However, management of such a perception required frequent and appropriate communication of information amongst partners in order to come to an understanding of the value added. As reiterated by OA,

We had a lot of meeting. It was a lot of distraction; we were running the school and we had to hold lots of meetings to help people understand the directions we were going, and why we should go that way. Sometimes, we looked back to ask if we needed to have those meetings, but, yes it was necessary.

Communication in this context of CSP required patience to repeat appeals and make clarifications, which are involved in partner communication, and building of trust. Skilled patience and trust were useful elements, which were needed for successful delivery of social services. For instance, communicating, required patiently investing staff time in a form of “partnership Trade-offs,” in order to apportion time to partnership communication tasks. OA observed that,

Another (factor we experienced in communicating) is patience to win confidence and explain (issues) until some, within the organization, buy into the idea.

Also, individual ability of staff of CSP to communicate, such as the ability to listen, helped in PC within the CSP. Just as EA noted in the course of managing the CSP,

We had to listen to them so that you (could) align your objective with theirs ...

Personal understanding and character of those around them were factors that can help ... (And) time was needed to win the trust, to break in and start with networking.

Thus, individual communication traits of managers in the CSP played a role in building the partnership and aided service delivery. For instance, some interpersonal communication skills were required in order to manage the disruptions of partnership activities that tended to ensue whenever companies replaced their managers or representatives in the CSP. This element could also be considered major factor in the management and delivery of social services through the CSP by nonprofits (Koschmann, Kuhn & Pfarrer 2012; Isbel, 2012).

Nonetheless, documentations of partnership agreements by means of Memorandum of understanding (MOU) facilitated partnership processes and made for clarity of roles, objectives, and legitimacy of CSP. According to Psg,

Business partners and companies always brought up their interests and so we decided to sign an MOU that is binding on partners. Everybody was to be committed to it and it specified roles and spelt out responsibility for each partner. The MOU also stipulated duration of the partnership and partnership objective as framed in a memorandum. The use of such MOU coupled with partnership communications through the steering committee, ensured that everyone was carried along and languages or other organizational idiosyncrasies were harmonized and channeled towards a common purpose. Also, a common experience of most partners in the CSP seemed to point to a fact, that partnership agreement (MOU) was necessary for efficient partner communication and operation of the CSP, as alluded to by some respondents in their following comments,

One key factor was alignment of goals and objectives, but Communication was key for us (too). Also a lot of documentation was put in place for us to succeed in the partnership. They, (partners) signed a contract. We also held statutory steering committee meetings. And there is a minimum standard that all partners must conform to... Yes that, (Steering committee) would be so, (would represent openness) because people would (otherwise) not talk to each other and the partnership would have closed down. (OA).

We had a lot of meetings. It was a lot of distraction; we were running the school and we had to hold lots of meetings to help people understand the directions we were going, and why we should go that way. Sometimes, we looked back to ask if we needed to have those meetings, but, yes it was necessary... The fact of having steering committee was a huge success factor (OA)

However, contrary to expectations research findings showed a low rating of 8% on the iteration chart (Figure 8) for partnership documents encoded under MOU.

In the next section, a further partnership management element, the win-win element, is described following the categorical analysis that further buttresses the role of PM in social service delivery of the CSP.

The Win-Win Element (WW)

A Win-win situation is a business objective of a management system, which considers some crosscutting issues that ensure mutual benefit to partners in a CSP. It is a situation in which partners in a CSP perceive the phenomenon of CSP as worthwhile for the partnering units besides the objective of the partnership. Respondents iterated and

reiterated the win-win element in the CSP to 13% iteration rate according to the categorical analysis chart (Figure 8). Most corporate collaborations have been built often on *win-win* foundation or agreements. However, such win-win phenomenon, as in this case, was possible due to the openness of corporate systems that made particular and common interests compatible, in order to address such interests in a partnership language. For instance, some companies appeared to be reluctant to deal with nonprofits due probably, to improper knowledge of NGO operations. Yet, when nonprofits made efforts to attend to company expectations, a win-win situation ensued and resulted in an effective CSP. In this vein, OA spoke of CSP partners who were “learning to make trade-offs.” He reiterated the win-win element in CSP as a factor, which made the partnership worthwhile for partners in the following terms,

In partnerships there are trade-offs, you want to achieve your objective, but you also want to help partners derive value (from the action). This was also part of the skills learnt from partnerships.

According to a respondent, DA,

When you talk about partnerships, you have to recognize that in partnerships the two parties are bringing something to the table, value added.

In the context of social service delivery, there was also need for a win-win situation in order to secure willingness of companies for the CSP. Findings showed that the companies were more willing to sustain their investment in social works when such actions also benefit them in some ways. For instance, TM informed that, “TVIIT charged reasonable fees and the companies received more than they paid for.” Also, in the area of

human resources, OA affirmed that CSP conferred mutual benefits on partners. For instance, learning by staff was a major activity across the profit divide within the CSP. This learning, which furthered the boundaries of openness, was necessary for incorporation of best practice by parties, to the advantage of social service delivery. Thus, it could be considered a key element of CSP that supported services delivery. AY put it in the following terms,

We learnt some skills. So in the end, the way we track timeliness and (evaluation) matrixes are not the same. Thus, we had to find some way of aligning with their ... (nonprofit) mode of working

The TVET offered by TVIIT appeared to satisfy the operational strategy of Cummins, which is to invest in developing people to make them employable. It also met the need for technical manpower of companies. Thus, the win-win element was key to the social service delivered. EA illustrated this in the following sentence,

The beauty of the electro-technic was that, it was a combination of electrical and mechanical, and any student trained on it becomes a medium level multi-skilled technician, with good understanding of mechanical, electrical, automation, and renewable energy systems.

The extent, to which the CSP was beneficial to companies or aligned to company strategic directions and CSR, was a win-win factor that influenced organizational willingness to partner, as well as a factor in the sustainability of the CSP formed. However, this fact could be considered a defect in corporate CSR because it ties business to CSR and less to Social responsibility. CSR practiced in this way created divergence

between NGO and company social actions and widened the profit divide. When CSR is strongly tied to company strategy or profit, the CSR appeared less sustainable because it would cease once there is a perceived loss of profit to shareholders. Thus, the measure of impact of actions becomes profit rather than social capital creation. According to AL,

From the CSR point of view, the companies are looking at integration of CSR with the strategies of the company. The trend now is to see how CSR projects benefit strategy of the company... It (CSP) has to be in things that the profit companies find beneficial to themselves and the country. But you need the leadership of NGOs to keep the people (industry partners) working with you and that is the main issue of sustainability.

Thus, it may be argued that companies are more willing to sustain their investment in social services when such services also benefit the companies in some way. This element of win-win was further exhibited also in the CSP under consideration, when for instance, the training offered by TVIIT, as earlier written, satisfied the operational purpose of manufacturing and electrical energy businesses, specifically, the need for technical manpower in industries. Hence the link, win-win element and support to nonprofit social service delivery.

In summary, this section presented partnership management by alignment of objectives, which accounted for 17% of iterations under PM, as a key element in support of SSD. The findings also showed partner communication (PC), which recorded 19% of iterations (figure 9), as key to successful delivery of TVET because partners felt the critical need to communicate their various expectations and how the CSP met such

expectations. Hence the link, WW element and support to nonprofit social service delivery. WW is thus, considered a key management element in sustainability of the SSD. Although, partnership agreement was found necessary for efficient partner communication and operation of the CSP, the respondents seemed to put less emphasis on it.

The next section describes the categorical analysis of policy Issues (PI), which sheds light on the influence of government and corporate policies on social service delivery in relation to the research question.

Policy Issues

At the level of categories, Policy Issues (PI) recorded significant level of iteration from participants (Figure 10). Policy statements by the government wielded much influence on economic and development issues in general. For instance, the government policy on privatization in the power sector meant sale of the distribution arm of the National Electrical Power Authority (NEPA) to the private sector that can run it more effectively, albeit a private sector that needed to reposition itself for the new role in Nigeria. This in turn created need for technical and skilled workforce. Here is a case of policy driving demand. Thus, as EA observed,

With the advent of the reform of the power sector in Nigeria, we identified a need. We did our study and we found out that there is a huge need for technicians to run the power sector.

Thus, in the context of social service delivery, the liberalization of power sector was an additional motive for electrical companies, which were already operating in

Nigeria to invest further in growing human capital within the power sector. Familiarity with the local environment offered an advantage to such companies over competitors from outside the country. Thus, besides openness to local business environment, experience on the local context was an advantage towards successful CSP for delivery of social service through NGOs. AL informed that,

These people (the partners) were already in Nigeria and the liberalization gave more opportunity (to them).

However, TM observed an element of inconsistency about government decisions, which is often associated with government policy formulation. According to him, “inconsistency of the government was a limiting factor”. DC also noted that quick changes in government policies lead to inconsistent and sometimes, contradictory policies, which made adjustment to policy difficult for CSPs.

The other challenge we had with government was that government policy changes were fast and quick, and policies in government can sometimes contradict each other.

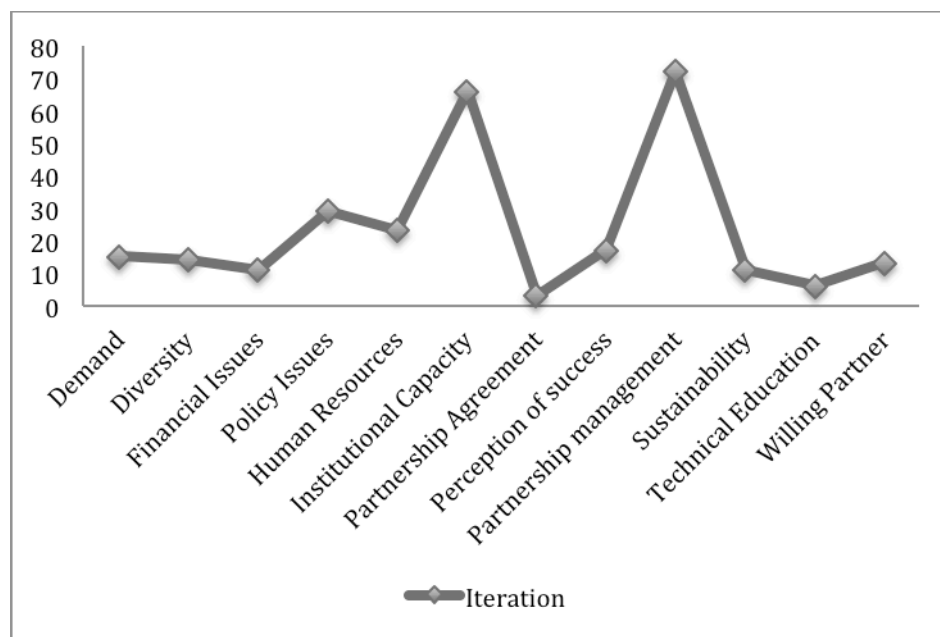


Figure 10. Categories and Levels of iteration on policy issues

Thus, government policy inconsistency made it difficult for the partnership to predict and plan. For instance, the policy to liberalize power sector was not followed through, because most of power generation and pricing remained under the control of the government. However, the policy marked a change in disposition of government in favor of partnership with other sectors of the economy. As TM observed:

The partnership has been taken to higher levels because the situation has changed ... The situation of government relationship and desire to make technology the center for developing the country was very clear.

Changes in the disposition and policy of government on technology influenced strategy at TVIIT, both in the development of curriculum and in openness to companies.

According to TM for instance, there was an initial substantial grant from government that made a difference to the success of TVET implementation.

You cannot do without government. In the end that was where I spent most of my time... The (Lagos) state governor got excited about it (the TVIIT initiative) and allocated a large expanse of land (for it). But it was the same government that, in the end, began to take that land back.

Although there was an increasing demand for social services in the country, the government and companies did not seem to feel sufficiently obligated to deliver on such demand. In this line Psg noted, “(There was) no pressure on companies and government for social development.” This phenomenon – absence of sufficient social pressure – is understandable in the case of companies, which are driven mainly by profit as a bottom-line. But for the government, such failure to respond to social demands could only be comprehended in the context of governance failure and corruption.

Thus, given the apparent inertia in government response to social demands, most of the respondents in the study seemed to overlook the implications of government policy that privatized the distribution arm of electrical power supply in Nigeria. Yet, this policy remains one key motive that compelled companies to invest in the training, TVET. Thus, government policy was necessary for the subsequent decisions by companies to invest in the power sector. According to Psg, “Nigeria’s electrical sector was under reform and a high demand for technicians was expected. Schneider was interested in the country.”

Nonetheless, government administrative procedures such as issuance of approvals and authorizations before any work could be carried out with public schools, for instance,

limited partnership with government agencies. Such difficulties caused a general aversion for partnerships involving government, on the part of other sector agents. This insidious aversion seemed to limit government/public sector participation in the CSP under study. Also, in some ways, government bureaucracy tended to fence off external influences on the public sector, especially where a public policy was used to ward off partnership initiatives. Thus, many bureaucratic procedures in government agencies tended to constitute close systems, which made partnerships and social service delivery arduous for nonprofits. In the words of OA:

To involve government institutions was difficult because it required going to Abuja for permission to work with government institutions... IECD asked for a government agency that we could bring on board for this project to go ahead. I suggested (instead) that we do a pilot and we see what good comes out of it so that we may have a better bargaining chip on talking to a government agency.

The skepticism over government participation in CSP, in this case, seemed to pose a stiff limitation to social service delivery by the nonprofits. In this context, OA proposed the use of a pilot program such that results from it could be used to attract and engage the government.

Another administrative bottleneck, which was public sector related, was the procedure for certification of students after training. This was another institutional challenge encountered at the earlier stage of the CSP. The problem was compounded further by government failure to review the curriculum of technical education, which remained obsolete for the need of companies. The National Business and Technical

Examinations Board (NABTEB) had not reviewed the technical education curriculum over time. Therefore, the curriculum remained obsolete and less useful for the need of industries. As DC pointed out, it was difficult for TVIIT to obtain appropriate certification for their graduating students because government curriculum and certification were obsolete and did not contain aspects of electro-technics and Dual-tech training offered by TVIIT.

The National Business and Technical Examinations Board (NABTEB) was “established in 1992 to domesticate craft level examinations, which were hitherto conducted by City & Guilds, Pittman’s, and Royal Society of Arts all of UK in accordance with the provisions of the National Policy on Education” (NABTEB, 2018). The establishment of NABTEB by the Act 70 of August 23, 1993 resulted from a protracted policy process that spanned 15 years from 1977 and involved different review panels on public examinations in the educational system. The Mission of the board is to “become a globally acknowledged assessment body for craftsmen and technicians” (NABTEB, 2018).

One way to bypass the government resistance to reviewing curriculum was to develop customized training curriculum. By this, the CSP harnessed the opportunity provided by change in policy environment to devise means of partnering with the public sector and to advance social development. DC had mentioned that,

We drew up the curriculum keeping in mind that we still had government to deal with. And we kept government in the know, out of respect. TVIIT already had all the approval it needed from government as a training institution.

Thus, to optimize and innovate in social service delivery, the CSP had to take due advantage of favorable policies from the public sector in order to drive progress and support to social service. Accordingly, the introduction of electro-technique into the training curriculum was an element that made TVET more viable and relevant, and as such, more funded. According to AY,

We chose the course electro-technics because we noted that the government was diversifying power sector, but government has not moved as fast as we expected.

Another way by which government helped in the partnership was through allocation of land, which made acquisition of the asset cheaper and less cumbersome. Although government policy (PI), as such, is an element that is exterior to the partnership, it encouraged initiatives in partnership and changes in organizational strategy for social service delivery. Policy for instance, influenced inception of the partnership, and also constituted an external environment of business that continued to influence partnership activities. In this sense it constituted a major element of CSP environment that contributed to social service delivery. According to DC:

The way government contributed was in the area of approvals, and land allocation ... The privatization policy of the power sector also helped (because) it opened up doors, slowly it helped us to see new light and the direction to follow.

On the other hand, some government departments failed to honor MOUs they entered into with the TVIIT. This action also caused a challenge in funding for the nonprofits and compromised partnership objectives. Thus, partnership agreement (PA), though necessary, was not a major factor for successful partnership with government

agents. This conclusion appears less plausible, yet the degree of iteration of the code, partnership agreements (PA) by participants was also low (Figure 10). For instance, DC noted that,

The Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) sent us youths for training in two batches. We (TVIIT) had an MOU with the Commission, but they defaulted (on the MOU) several times. We had an MOU stating when and how we were to be paid but it was not honored.

Thus, perception of difficulty in government administrative processes also posed a challenge, which tended to keep the nonprofit partners from engaging government sector agents, notwithstanding the fact that policy drove demand in some cases. DC for instance informed that,

There was a lot of resistance from government, a lot of requests, such as wanting to participate in the program. We all perceived that their participation could slow us down because of their processes (especially if) things have to pass through the ministries and federal departments at Abuja, or through a lot of approvals.

Thus, mutual suspicion between government agents and nonprofits often ensued and posed much challenge to the CSP, which would require mutual effort on both sides of the sector divide to overcome. EA observed this phenomenon during the operational phase of the CSP and informed as follows,

We wanted to work with government (schools) first but the reception was not cordial, so we could not continue. There was much bureaucracy (in government).

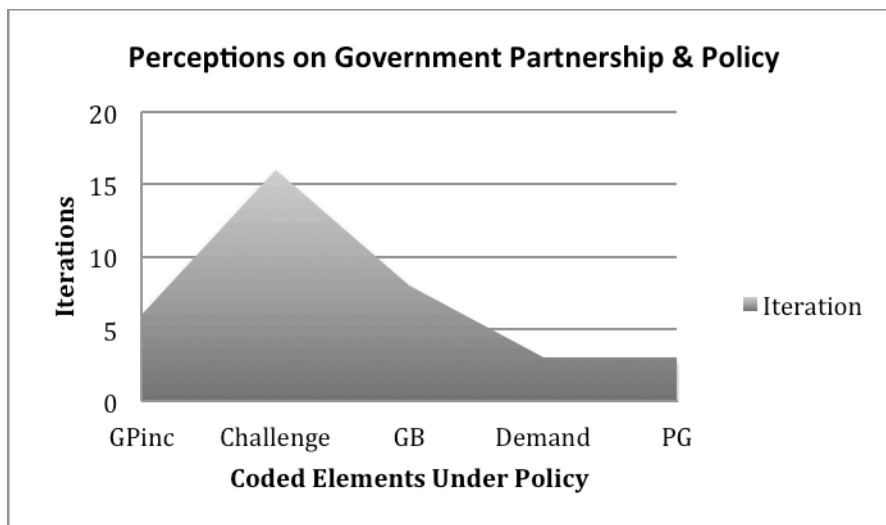


Figure 11. Perceptions on government partnership and policy.

On further analysis of the PI category, and some elements within it as shown in figure 10, government policy was largely perceived as a challenge within the context of the CSP under consideration. It was also seen as bureaucratic and inconsistent to a proportionally high degree. Thus, even though government interventions by policy positively drove demand for social services and partner growth, such advantages seemed beclouded by the associated administrative bureaucracy and challenges (figure 11).

Findings

There was further analysis of the categories with respect to participant perceptions specifically, perceptions of categorical elements as success factors (SF) in general, or as key elements (KE) in support of social service delivery, and as factors deriving from an open system (OS). This differential analysis was aimed at collating most of the findings

in the study, in order to focus the outcomes towards the research question, in search of admissible answers to the questions posed (Figure 11).

The most prominent categories of elements within the CSP that contributed to success of partnership and delivery of social service were *Partnership management*, closely followed by *Institutional capacity* (see Figure 12). Other categories of elements that made significant difference with respect to delivery of services via the CSP included: *Government Policy and Human resources* closely followed by *Demand for services*, *Willingness to partner*, and *Perception of Partnership as successful*.

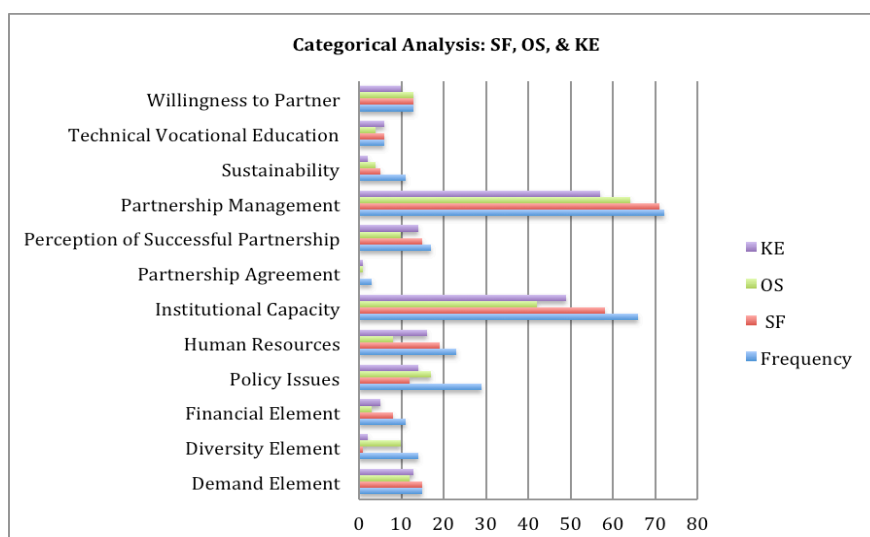


Figure 12. Categorical analysis as SF, OS & KE.

There were however, some unexpected results such as, that from the categories, *Financial Element* and *Diversity*. The finding about finance element appears contrary to expectation because non-profit literature often presented funding as a predominant challenge for nonprofits (Brinckerhoff, 2009). Nevertheless, the category could not attain the expected prominence, judging by the opinion of the respondents (Figure 12). More

even, the finding could have been due to the substantial material contributions from the companies. For instance, some elements that could have been categorized under financial factor might have been classified under institutional capacity and human resources. This could account for the high proportion of PG (35%) under institutional capacity (IC).

Another unexpected finding was related to *Partnership agreement (PA)*, which in ordinary expectation would reign high in the opinion of participants, as a success factor. However, few respondents gave prominence to it, perhaps because of a simple unified partnership agreement, which all partners signed to. Also, because some elements that could have come under PA might have been categorized under partnership management (PM) and the expected result would be subsumed, in that case, under the high result attained by PM as success factor in (figure 12).

In sum, *Partnership Management (PM)* within a CSP was found to be very essential for its sustainability. In the CSP under study, the strategic management through a steering committee, involving all partners by representation, was useful because it facilitated communication and understanding among partners. Above all, the steering committee helped to keep the focus on the partnership objective and ensured observance of partnership roles and rules by partnering units in the CSP. Also, the financial management through contributory financing of partnership staff and secretariat made PM critical for success of the social service processes because it ensured direct input into nonprofits' services.

Aligning partner objectives, in order to come by *a common objective* as a management tool, also fostered investment in TVET. The common objective in the CSP

was the *provision of Technical vocational education and training* for youth empowerment. In this single objective, all other particular organizational goals of partners were incorporated as was implied in the following phrase by Psg,

Since each organization has its own goals, the goal of the partnership considered all those goals, making them compatible. (Psg).

Also, the perception of mutual support and documentation of partnership agreements facilitated process for support to social service and made for clarity of roles, within the CSP. In fact, it could be argued that management efforts to achieve compatibility of objectives of the various organizations in the CSP was key to operating the CSP and by this fact, important to the delivery of social services based on the partnership. What is more, PM accounted for about 26% of iterated categorical elements considered as key elements (KE) in support of social service delivery through the CSP (Figure 13).

Communication among the partnering units was another element in the CSP, which responded to the need for mutual understanding and funding for the social service action by the CSP. According to AY, “communication was key” in the CSP under review because partners felt a critical need to communicate their various expectations and be certain on how the CSP was meeting such expectations. For instance, at some moments in the partnership, the limited number of trainees and absence of female trainees in TVIIT were issues that fell short of partner expectations. However, through mutual communication parties resolved the conflict in favor of quality of TVET, such that more attention was paid to quality of training without reducing the number of trainees.

Institutional capacity, embodied professionalism and organizational accountability or transparency, and was instrumental to building trust needed for the partnership building. Further, transparency guaranteed some form of organizational openness and contributed by this fact to sustainability of the social action. IC is considered a key category of elements for social service delivery (SSD) because on analysis it accounted for 37% of categorical elements considered as key elements (KE) in support of social service delivery (see figures 13 and 14). Essentially, it guaranteed sustainability of operations of the CSP.

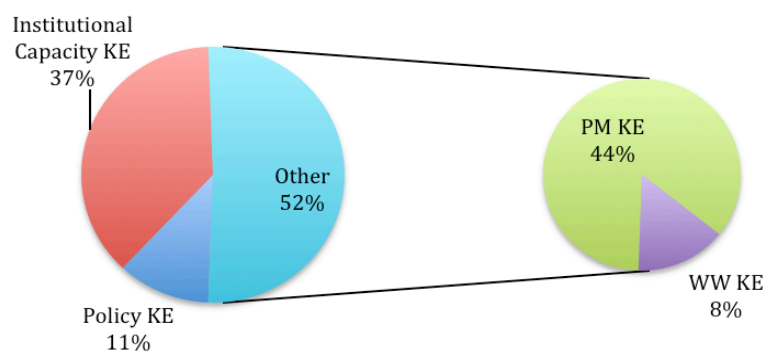


Figure 13. Key elements in support of social service delivery.

Consequently, at the heart of the CSP, IC elements including experience were essential to the social service provided; just as organizational track record, history and professionalism endeared TVIIT to prospective partners and donors. Thus, those aspects of IC were key elements responsible for the support that TVIIT received towards its social service delivery (SSD).

Partnership growth, which is also an element under IC, was also a key element for delivery of services. Thus, by assisting TVIIT with donations of equipment and assistance in financial management of fees, Cummings West Africa and other corporate partners contributed to organizational sustainability of operations at TVIIT. AY articulated the impact on TVIIT in the following words,

So their lot has improved in terms of training. Also, organizational asset; we used our finance team to help them look at their finances and fees.

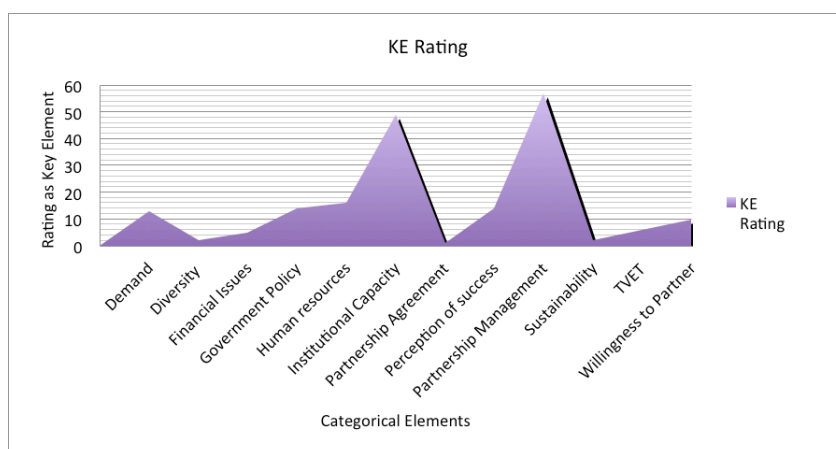


Figure 14. Key elements supporting social service delivery.

Policies by the government wielded much influence on the economic and development issues as it does over nonprofit service delivery. An instance earlier noted was the liberalization of power sector, which was an additional motive for electrical companies in Nigeria to invest further in the power sector. Although PI was less emphasized by respondents in the study, and as such rated low on KE chart (see Figure

14), it is a force that influenced support to social service delivery. The nonprofits appeared mindful of this fact and maintained a watchful disposition over government policies, while guarding corporate policies of the partnering units. By such disposition towards PI nonprofits took advantage of policies to advance social service delivery through the CSP.

Summary

The Chapter 4 I presented an account of how the research was conducted and the context of the study as well as the findings with respect to the research question. The main research purpose was to find the key elements of CSPs that supported social service delivery by nonprofit organizations in Nigeria. In addressing the research question through data analysis, I provided information in answer also to other sub questions bordering on human resource development and asset growth of nonprofits through the CSP, as well as the openness of organizational system, within the context of social service provision.

Transcripts and documents analyzed for the response led to findings that showed broad patterns of success factors and categorical elements, which were found to have supported social services delivery from within the CSP. Based on the analysis of the cross-sector-partnership experience, the following themes emerged for discussion; what key elements of the CSP supported social service delivery by nonprofits involved in the partnership? How do these elements show the openness, of organizational systems of the partnering units towards social service delivery?

In chapter 5 the discussion will focus on emerging themes, in the light of literature on CSPs, and lead to some recommendations with respect to relevance of the study for social change. Also, based on the study I identified issues for further future research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore CSPs, which are aimed at social service delivery in Nigeria, in order to identify the key elements, in the organizational complex, that supported social service delivery by nonprofits. Specifically, I examined the case of a CSP involving nonprofit institutions, some profit-oriented companies, and some government agencies. The nonprofits involved included the TVIIT, the IECD, and institutional foundations incorporated by the companies. Through the major research question, I sought to identify key elements of the CSPs, which supported social service delivery by nonprofit organizations in Nigeria.

Overview of the Context of Study

The methodology used in the study was the qualitative case study. It was considered appropriate based on the purpose of study and the type of research data involved. Moreover, the method allowed for the use of multiple sources of data, which facilitated a deeper understanding of the circumstances and context of data collected, as well as the phenomenon under study. The three major sources of data for the research included interviews, institutional or partnership documents, and my field notes. There were 10 participants; some were employees of the partnering organizations and others were not, while some were civil society actors with relevant experience with the CSP under study. The participants were specially selected for their relevant experience or knowledge about the subject matter under study. Each participant was interviewed for about 45 minutes or an hour on his or her experiences or knowledge of the CSP. The

documents used for the study included partnership MOUs, the financial statement of affairs of TVIIT, and organizational annual reports in addition to organizational webpages.

The study involved data analysis using detailed description, categorical aggregation, and direct interpretation, as was explained in Chapter 3. The discovery of patterns and correspondence of ideas formed part of the analysis too, as well as the formulation of some naturalistic generalization (see Apori-Nkansah, 2012). The theoretical framework chosen was open system theory, which served as a lens by which I viewed the CSP initiative and the social services delivered through such organizational complex. It is important to note that there was no attempt to proof a theory, which I considered to fall beyond the scope.

Beginning with a presentation of the findings from the study, Chapter 5 includes a review of implications of the study for social change and concludes with recommendations for future research.

Summary of Findings

In this study, I explored a CSP, which was an organizational complex formed to empower youth and meet a social need for technical manpower in the electrical power industry in Nigeria. The purpose of study was to find the key elements of the partnership that supported delivery of social services by the nonprofits involved in the CSP. The findings showed that IC 26%, PM 24%, and policy issues (10%) were the major categories of elements of the CSP that, as success factors (see Figure 4), furthered the delivery TVET offered by TVIIT, which was the main vehicle of youth empowerment

(social service) proposed by the partnership. Specifically, the elements that furthered IC by causing PG, through the donation of training equipment and funds, as well as the elements that facilitated PM and caused effective PC) appeared to be key elements that supported social services delivered by TVIIT, a nonprofit school involved in the CSP.

Given the context of the electrical power sector in Nigeria, partner growth was considered necessary for the CSP in order to deliver the proposed social service to empower youth through TVET. Thus, besides the initial capacity of TVIIT, subsequent growth of TVIIT capacity to deliver training was key for achieving the social objective. In fact, the TVIIT grew in its asset base (equipment and machinery), during the partnership period (2015-2017) by 148%.

Also, findings showed that service delivery was better served when there was effective PM that derived from consensus on partnership objectives and partner roles amongst partners. In fact, effective partner communication among the partnering units was also an element under PM, which responded to the need for mutual understanding and direct support by funding of the SSD.

Interpretation of the Findings

As earlier stated, partnership management, institutional capacity, and government policy were major categories of elements in the CSP that influenced and supported delivery of social services through nonprofits in the partnership. Gordon and Daniels (2009) pointed out three key elements for the successful prosecution of CSP objectives: the win-win element, communication, and trust among the leaders of the partnering unit.

From the findings, PM is shown to be a complex of actions, decisions, and communication that go into building, operating, and delivering the CSP as well as reporting the results in an act of stewardship. The study showed that effective PC was a key element of PM that fostered mutual understanding and funding of social service within the CSP. Berger et al. (2004) found that a major problem in CSPs was lack of partner understanding with respect to goals, method of working, and value added. Such lack of understanding might have resulted from poor partner communication and difficulty in AO within the CSP. Also, engagement of partners as collaboration leaders instead of mere participants has been considered a challenge in CSPs. However, a governance mechanism that ensured even distribution of authority and decision-making among partnering units has also been observed to be a success factor for achieving social service delivery through CSPs (Towe et al., 2016). Thus, in what appears a corroborative result, the finding from the current study seemed to show that efficient use of PM tools such as PC, AO, and WW was a key element supporting social service delivery in the CSP.

Also, an institutional capacity advancement, typified by PG witnessed by TVIIT in its capacity to deliver training was key for furthering the social objective of the CSP. Some indices showed that TVIIT grew in its asset base (equipment and machinery), by 148% during the partnership period from 2015 to 2017 (see Figure 8). The instructors at TVIIT were also trained on latest industrial machines, automation systems, and soft skills needed to deliver efficient training on electro-technics. By this means the institution grew in its human resources to a capacity needed to meet the desired target of delivering

TVET. Such advancement of organizational resources seemed to guarantee sustainability of service delivery of nonprofits. Researchers also seemed certain that an organization has to return positive financial balance for about 10 years if it is to be considered sustainable (Brinkerhoff, 2009; Gazley 2010).

Earlier researchers had also made a positive correlation between the extent of social services provided by nonprofits and such diverse factors as organizational size (capacity), access to funding, government legal or policy frameworks, and, to some extent, activities of organizations, such as partnership activities within the same or different sectors of the economy (Gazley 2010; Quamina, 2009; Yaansah, 1995).

Some, earlier researchers considered organizational CSP activities an effective measure to overcome limits imposed on social service delivery by the limited capacities of most nonprofits. Thus, CSP was viewed as conferring some capacity on the partnering organizations for effective service delivery (Berger et al., 2004; Daines et al., 1990; Foster et al., 2002). What is more, an earlier work in the Niger Delta area of Nigeria confirmed that a key success element of the Group MoU partnership model, by Shell Petroleum Development Company, was the facility it offered international donor agencies to directly fund social services and developments in the delta region of Nigeria through the CDBs. It also underscored multisector partnerships involving business, government, nonprofit, and local community as a preferred approach to sustainable community development to deal with the complexities of development problems (Amadi et al., 2011). These findings appear to be truly verified in the CSP under consideration, judging from the finding on PG and its consequence on social service delivery.

A third finding from the study showed that government involvement in the CSP mainly by policy, allocation of resources, and regulatory functions, was often challenging, bureaucratic and inconsistent to a proportionally high degree (Figure 11). Thus, even though policy positively drove demand for social services and investment in the electrical power sector in Nigeria, such advantages tended to be stymied by the associated public administrative bottlenecks in the public sector administrative system (figure 11). Quamina, (2009) had already observed in an earlier study that the political, legal, and policy environment in Nigeria had not been too enabling for nonprofit organizations to operate and partner effectively. Nonetheless, Suarez, (2010) found a positive correlation between non-profit collaboration and government funding but premised on the belief that the advantages outweigh the setbacks there may be in collaborative activities. This appears to be particularly true of the case under study, in which findings showed high degree of government policy inconsistency (GPinc), challenges, and GB (Figure 10); associated with an apparent aversion towards government participation in partnership processes.

However, contrary to literature, which held that behavioral changes ensued at individual and corporate levels when NGO activities involve for-profit businesses (Kourula & Laasonen 2010), the CSP under study did not seem to have engendered much learning in government agencies. However, this finding appears to be rather in conformity with the conclusions from an earlier study in the African region, which found that “most African countries governments are yet unfamiliar with the practice of contracting to NGOs” (USAID, 2010, P2). Also, a recommendation from a later survey

pointed to the need to make government or public policies more open and enabling for nonprofits in the third sector. Specifically, it recommended as follows, that CSO laws be clear and well defined, the registration processes be quick, easy and inexpensive, that state laws, regulations, and policies on civil society should facilitate formation, free operation without interference, collaboration and resources mobilization for civil society groups (CIVICUS, 2013). Further, Gazley, (2010) had concluded that collaboration among agents is influenced positively by a “combination of coercive, incentive-based, and normative factor” at both individual and institutional levels.

Discussion of Finding in Respect to the Conceptual Framework

The research analyzed perception of categories and manifestations of openness in organizational systems (OS) in relation to SSD. This particular analysis was carried out because the conceptual framework that guided the study was based on the open system theory. The theory served as lens or guiding principle for understanding the dynamics and mechanisms involved in an organizational complex such as the CSP. Accordingly, the study was not designed to test the validity of the theory nor its conformity to reality studied.

However, data analysis from the study showed that a good proportion of elements within the IC could be attributed to the open nature of organizational systems within the partnership (Figure 15). This finding is akin to that by Le Ber et al., (2010), that by adaptation to emerging and contingent opportunities proper management of role conflict, inter-organizational relational demands, trust, common goals, and controls, organizational

partners are able to sustain collaboration efforts (Le Ber & Branzei, 2010; see also Austin, 2000; Fiol et al., 2009; & Seitanidi, 2008).

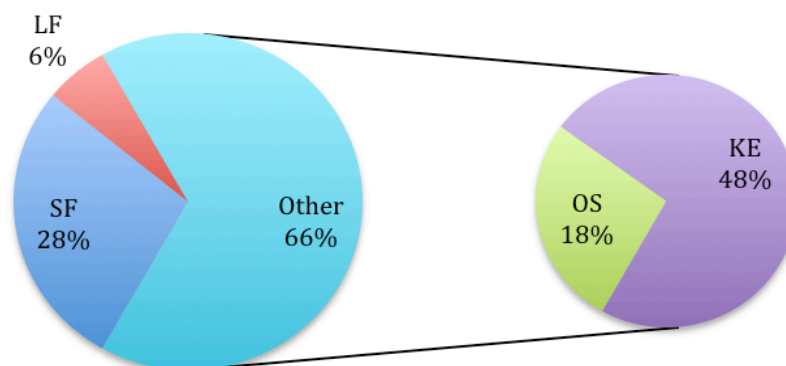


Figure 15. Institutional capacity in relation to the themes OS, LF, SF, & KE category.

PM also featured several elements that pointed to the openness of the organizational system within the CSP (Figure 14). This finding was expected, given that PM used in the CSP ensured that there was communication among partners and adjustments in response to any changes within or outside of the partnership.

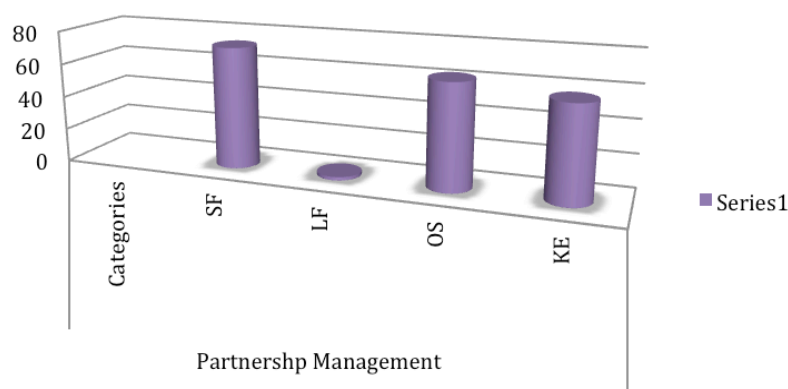


Figure 16. PM in relation to the themes OS, LF, SF, & KE category.

Further finding in respect of OS indicate that many elements of the CSP point to the open nature of organizations. In fact, (KE) identified from data analysis seemed to conform to the tenets of the open system theory, which ascribed organizational advancement to openness of organizational systems towards internal and external environments of organizations (Bastedo, 2004, p. 1; Emery, 2004).

Policy for instance, is an external influence mainly from government that impels nonprofits and CSPs to open up their system in order to adjust to its influence. Such adjustments often led to adaptation of processes for sustainability purposes. In the case under study, the partners in the CSP particularly the nonprofit partners, have used this mechanism to sustain and further service delivery. In figure 17, the elements under the category of *PI* appeared to have high rating, as indicators of openness of system, from the perspective of participants.

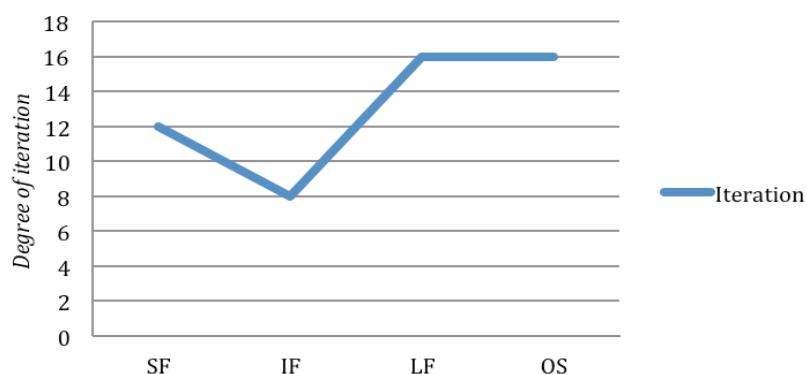


Figure 17. Perception of policy as factor in initiation, success, limitation, and openness of the CSP.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations to the study could be attributed to the choice of research and research methodology. For instance, limitations associated with the case study method of qualitative research, which stems from the status of the researcher as an instrument for data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2013). Thus, the danger lies mainly in circumstance of the researcher as a subjective and biased agent. However, given the circumstance, the researcher struggled to remain neutral in the course of the study and this, in some way, checked such limitation (Apori-Nkansah, 2008).

Also, the scope of research imposed a certain limitation because the study is limited in its scope to Nigeria, even though some conclusions from the study may become extended to regions beyond Nigeria. Further limitations were imposed by the sampling method and sample size, which appeared to be restrictive due to the purpose of study. However, the number of participants in the study ceased to be such a limitation

when the priority was on relevance of the participants' knowledge and experience to the study. The case chosen for study had all the typical features of CSPs such that the focus was more on the key elements that supported social service delivery through the CSP.

Recommendations

This study explored a cross sector partnership, which is a form of organizational complex fashioned to address a social question and to meet specific needs of industries in the electrical sector of Nigeria. Findings from the study showed institutional capacity, partnership management and policy issues as key groups of elements that supported delivery of social services by nonprofits in the CSP. Future research in this area could explore and find ways of exploiting those key elements further in order to advance social service delivery in developing countries such as Nigeria.

Public policy issues also featured among the key elements supporting social service delivery. Although this category of elements did not appear to be the most prominent of the key categories of elements, however, it was one with wider reach and application. For instance, it seemed to be an element that cuts across most sectors and has seemingly strong influence on the open system of the organization with relatively unpredictable outcomes. An instance was the public policy to liberalize the electrical power distribution sector in Nigeria, which facilitated cross-sector organizational partnerships. Meanwhile, the policy to retain a stale technical studies curriculum and public administrative procedures frustrated efforts to partner with government agencies. Future research may deem it necessary to explore further ways to enhance relationship

between government and social sector agents in order to foster enabling business environment for cross sector actions that promote social service delivery.

Implications for Social Change

The study contributes to on-going scholarly discursions on organizational collaborations, and corporate philanthropy in the form corporate social responsibility (CSR) actions. It makes a link between organizational CSPCSPs and social service delivery, which is a general mandate of nonprofits. In this way it furthers understanding of social service delivery and contributes to bring about synergy between agents from the three sectors namely, public/government, private/for-profit, and the non-profit, to address complex social needs.

In practical terms, the research findings could potentially have social impacts at different strata of society, especially on the administration of local and international development and humanitarian programs. For instance, faced with the enormous social crisis caused by civil strife and religious insurgency in Nigeria, the government and the international development partners including United Nations agencies in Nigeria are stretched in their effort to attend to the overwhelming needs of internally displaced persons (IDPs) within the country. Findings from the research would potentially enhance understanding and effective collaboration among the actors in social and public sectors, towards a more efficient delivery of relief services to IDPs.

Further, the research findings could be applied to support social reforms like the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS) in Nigeria, which has been conceived to operate through on cross sector partnerships. NEEDS is a

poverty reduction strategy by the Nigerian government as part of a 10-year development plan. According to National Planning Commission, (2004):

The success of NEEDS rests on three pillars: empowering our people, creating an environment that enables us to make the most of our natural resources and flair for business, and reforming our laws and the way our government works (NPC, 2004 P XV).

The research findings would potentially help policy makers and policy implementers in the field to improve policy processes. In this way, the research will contribute to alignment of policy and practice, to create more enabling business environment for delivery of social services through CSPs. By extension, it would contribute to local efforts to strengthen institutions, and check system corruption in society (see Okonjo-Iweala, 2018).

Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to identify key elements of CSPs that support social service delivery by nonprofits involved in the partnership. A qualitative research approach was used for the study. The sampling method was purposeful and elitist, based on participant experience and knowledge relevant to the study. Data collection was carried out in Lagos, Nigeria by means of interviews and organizational documents related to the CSP under study.

Findings showed that elements, which caused increase in organizational capacity of TVIIT to deliver on technical vocational education and training to youths, were key to successful delivery of TVET as a social service. The other key elements for the social

service delivery include elements that facilitated management of partnership, and processes for delivery of partnership objective, and government policy.

To come by the conclusions, it was argued that partnership processes that increased capacity of nonprofits as well as management efforts to align varied partner goals and achieve consensus on common partnership objectives, were key to operating the CSP, and by this fact were important to the delivery of social services based on the partnership. The study also corroborates a general opinion of nonprofit literature, which attributed the efficacy of CSP, as vehicle of social service delivery, to its ability to agglomerate strengths and create mutual benefits or values for partners.

Government policy was largely challenging, bureaucratic, and inconsistent within the context of the CSP studied. Even when policy positively drove demand for social services delivery, the attendant administrative bureaucracy beclouded its merits and made the policy environment a challenge, and disabling for social service delivery through CSPs in Nigeria.

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Appendix A: Preliminary and Emerging Codes

List of Codes

S/N	Meaning	Code
1	Alignment of Objectives/Common Objective	AO & CO
2	Catalyst	Catalyst
3	Curriculum Development	CD
4	Company Policy to Participate	CPP
5	Conflict Resolution	CR
6	Corporate social responsibility actions	CSR
7	Donation of Equipment & Funding	DE & DEF
8	Demand for Social service and technical hands	Demand
9	Donation of Equipment & Training	DET
10	Disparity in Gender	DG
11	Diversity of sectors, Cultures, & business Ethos	Diversity
12	Positive evaluation of Partnership	EVP
13	Individual & Corporate experience of industry & partnership	Experience
14	Financial Constraint & support	FC & FS
15	Government Bureaucracy	GB
16	Government policy inconsistency	Gpinc
17	Human Resource Development	HRD
18	Limited Infrastructure	LiF
19	Memorandum of Understanding	MOU
20	No Partnership experience	Nexp
21	Organizational integrity	Orgint
22	Open system/Open system regulation	OS/OSR
23	Organizational Track record	OTR
24	Partner Communication	PC
25	Partnership Experience	Pex
26	Partner Growth	PG
27	Partnership Management	PM
28	Partner Objective	PO
29	Government Policy	Policy
30	Partner Preference	PP
31	Partnership Role	PR
32	Professionalism	Prof
33	Partner Satisfaction	PS
34	Partner Understanding	PU
35	Staff Learning	SL
36	Sustainability of Operations	SO
37	Social Stigma	SS
38	Staff Turnover	ST
39	Transparency	Tcy
40	Trust	Trust
41	Win-Win Situation	WW