

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**INVESTIGATING NIGERIAN NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS' CAPABILITIES
TO REPLICATE SUCCESSFUL YOUTH POVERTY ALLEVIATION INNOVATION
PROGRAMMES**

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DEDICATION

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KEYWORDS

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs)
Youth poverty alleviation-focused NGOs
Youth-serving non-governmental organisations (NGO)
Youth NGOs
Youth welfare
Youth development NGOs
Organisational capabilities
SCALERS model
Youth development
Youth empowerment
Youth unemployment
Youth challenges
Youth poverty
Youth poverty alleviation
Youth poverty alleviation programmes
Social replication
Social sector organisations
Social impact
Non-profit organisation
Nigeria
Nigeria Network for Non-governmental Organisations

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AHI	Action Health Incorporated
BAT	British American Tobacco
BOND	British Overseas NGOs for Development
CBO	community-based organisations
CFI	comparative fit index
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CiSHAN	Civil Society for HIV/AIDS in Nigeria
CONGOS	Conference of Non-Governmental Organisations
CSO	civil society organisation
CSR	corporate social responsibility
DFFRI	Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure
ECHP	European Community Household Panel
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EDP	Entrepreneurship Development Programme
EE	Earthwatch Europe
ETA	Economic Transformation Agenda
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FMARD	Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
GBV	gender-based violence
GPI	Girls' Power Initiative
HCHP	European Community Household Panel
HCT	HIV counselling and testing
HIV/AIDS	human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immune deficiency syndrome
HR	human resource
ICT	information and communications technology
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IT	information technology
LAPO	Lift Above Poverty Organisation
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals

MFIs	microfinance institutions
NACA	National Agency for the Control of AIDS
NAEP	Nomadic and Adult Education Programmes
NAPEP	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NAPTIP	National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NDE	National Directorate of Employment
NEEDS	National Economic and Development Strategy
NFE	non-formal education
NFI	normed fit index
NFP	not-for-profit
NFPO	not-for-profit organisation
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NGO-MFI	non-governmental organisation microfinance institution
NITEL	Nigerian Telecommunications Limited
NNNGOS	Nigeria Network of Non-Governmental Organisations
NPEP	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NPO	non-profit organisation
NRDCS	Natural Resource and Conservation Scheme
NYCN	National Youth Council of Nigeria
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFYD	Organisation for Youth Development
PAN	Peugeot Automobile Nigeria
PESTEL	political, economic, social, technological, environmental and legal
PLWHA	people living with HIV/AIDS
REPOA	research on poverty alleviation
RIDS	Rural Infrastructures and Development Scheme
RMSEA	root mean square error of approximation
RSPDEPY	replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths
SCALERS	staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces
SD	standard deviation
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SME	small and medium enterprise

SOWESS	Social Welfare Services Scheme
SPDC	Shell Petroleum Developing Company
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRH	sexual and reproductive health
SURE-P	Subsidy Reinvestment Programme
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UK	United Kingdom
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
US	United States
VIF	variance inflation factors
WHO	World Health Organisation
WOCON	Women Consortium of Nigeria
WOFAN	Women Farmers Advancement Network
YES	Youth Empowerment Scheme
YWAIP	Youth and Women in Agribusiness Investment Programme

ABSTRACT

The original contribution of this study to knowledge is the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model to investigate the organisational capabilities of Nigerian non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths as NGOs are among the key stakeholders in the fight against youth poverty in Nigeria. Youth poverty is on the rise in Nigeria despite the successful poverty alleviation programmes of NGOs being utilised in some locations within Nigeria. This has necessitated the current investigative study to unravel the near lack of replication by these NGOs in other needy locations in Nigeria to reduce the growing scourge of youth poverty in the country. The research questions comprise two main categories focusing questions on the effectiveness of the organisational capabilities of these NGOs and determining the progress made in replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria and investigating the correlation between these.

The study addressed a gap in extant literature and focused on youth poverty alleviation activities of NGOs and their organisational capabilities in Nigeria by investigating these organisational capabilities issues in relation to replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to address the growing problem of youth poverty in Nigeria using the SCALERS model as theoretical foundation for the study.

The study utilised a quantitative-based non-experimental exploratory correlational study design to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. A simple random sampling technique was adopted to gain access to the NGOs, and a self-administered questionnaire was utilised to gather the research data from managers of the NGOs. Descriptive and inferential statistics were carried out and their findings were significant.

The major findings of the study were that the investigated NGOs had been able to meet their staffing, communication, alliance-building, replication and stimulating market forces needs effectively and that there was a significant correlation between the organisational capabilities of the investigated NGOs and replicating successful

programmes designed to empower poor youths. It is expected that the research findings will enable youth-serving NGOs and their stakeholders to tackle youth poverty effectively.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Supervisor permission to submit

Declaration	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Dedication	vi
Keywords	vii
List of abbreviations and acronyms	viii
Abstract	xi
List of figures	xxv
List of Tables	xxvi
List of Appendices	xxvii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background to the study	4
1.3 Motivation for the study	5
1.3.1 Significance of the study	6
1.4 Statement of the problem	7
1.4.1 Research problem	7
1.4.2 Sub-problems	8
1.5 Purpose of the study	9
1.6 Objectives of the study	9
1.7 Research questions	9
1.8 Research hypotheses	10
1.9 Theoretical foundation for the study	11
1.10 Research assumptions	12
1.11 Scope of the study	14
1.12 Research methodology	15
1.13 Research contributions	15
1.14 Limitations of the study	17
1.15 Delimitations of the study	17

1.16	Structure of the dissertation	18
1.17	Definition of key terms	19
1.18	Summary of the study	20
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FOUNDATION FOR THE STUDY		21
2.1	Introduction	21
2.2	The SCALERS model: The theoretical foundation in context and the analysis of key variables	21
2.2.1	Independent variables	23
2.2.2	Dependent variable	24
2.3	Summary	31
CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW		33
3.1	Introduction	33
3.2	An overview of youth poverty	34
3.2.1	The concept of youth poverty	35
3.2.2	Youth poverty in Nigeria	39
3.2.3	Factors that cause youth poverty in Nigeria	46
3.2.3.1	Poor educational system	46
3.2.3.2	Ill health and disease	47
3.2.3.3	Gender inequality	47
3.2.3.4	Youth unemployment	48
3.2.4	The consequences of youth poverty in Nigeria	49
3.2.4.1	Crime	50
3.2.4.2	Youth homelessness	50
3.2.4.3	Psychological ailments (mental illness)	51
3.2.4.4	Illegal migration	52
3.3	Understanding youth-serving NGOs	52
3.3.1	The nature of non-governmental organisations (NGOs)	53
3.3.2	The concept of youth-serving NGOs	55
3.3.3	The importance of youth-serving NGOs in the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria	57
3.3.3.1	Provision and development of youth-friendly infrastructures	57
3.3.3.2	Provision of support for youth welfare activities	58
3.3.4	Identification of major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria	58

3.3.4.1	Health care services (HIV/AIDS intervention)	59
3.3.4.2	Education and training services.....	60
3.3.4.3	Agriculture training	61
3.3.4.4	Legal representation services	62
3.3.4.5	Financial services (microcredit lending services)	62
3.3.4.6	Information and communication technology (ICT) services	63
3.3.4.7	Women development services.....	64
3.3.4.8	Small and medium-sized enterprise advisory services.....	65
3.3.4.9	Vocational training	66
3.3.5	The concept of youth poverty alleviation programmes	67
3.3.6	The benefits of youth poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria.....	71
3.3.6.1	Youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial to the youth in Nigeria.....	71
3.3.6.2	Youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial to the Nigerian economy	72
3.3.6.3	Youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial in reducing crime in Nigeria.....	72
3.3.7	Measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.....	73
3.3.7.1	Replication activities of youth-serving NGOs	74
3.3.7.2	Scaling up the capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to alleviate youth poverty.....	74
3.3.7.3	Increasing the number of individuals served by youth-serving NGOs ..	75
3.3.7.4	Ability of NGOs to access more geographical locations	75
3.3.7.5	Youth poverty alleviation activities	76
3.3.7.6	Ability of NGOs to make progress in eradicating youth poverty	76
3.3.7.7	Targeting poor youths in rural communities to alleviate youth poverty.....	76
3.3.7.8	Focusing on female youths will reduce the incidence of youth poverty.....	77
3.3.7.9	Adopting sustainable green practices in the fight to alleviate youth poverty.....	78
3.4	Understanding organisational capabilities.....	78
3.4.1	The concept of organisational capabilities.....	79

3.4.1.1	Understanding organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model	83
3.4.1.1.1	Staffing	83
3.4.1.1.2	Communicating	85
3.4.1.1.3	Alliance-building	88
3.4.1.1.4	Lobbying.....	91
3.4.1.1.5	Earnings-generation.....	93
3.4.1.1.6	Replicating.....	95
3.4.1.1.7	Stimulating market forces.....	99
3.4.2	The importance of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs.....	101
3.4.2.1	The importance of staffing capability in NGO management	101
3.4.2.1.1	NGO staffing and organisational performance.....	101
3.4.2.1.2	NGO staffing and human resource needs	102
3.4.2.2	The importance of communicating capability in NGO management ..	102
3.4.2.2.1	Communication and decision-making	103
3.4.2.2.2	Communication and coordination of the activities of an organisation	103
3.4.2.2.3	Communication and knowledge sharing	104
3.4.2.3	The importance of alliance-building capability in NGO management	105
3.4.2.3.1	Alliance-building and NGO performance	105
3.4.2.3.2	NGO alliance and increased NGO capacity	105
3.4.2.4	The importance of lobbying capability in NGO management	106
3.4.2.4.1	NGO lobbying and improving government decisions.....	106
3.4.2.4.2	NGO lobbying and protection of public interest	107
3.4.2.4.3	NGO lobbying and improved human rights conditions.....	108
3.4.2.5	The importance of earnings-generation capability in NGO management	108
3.4.2.5.1	Financial sustainability	108
3.4.2.5.2	Improved NGO capacities	109
3.4.2.6	The importance of replicating capability in NGO management	110
3.4.2.6.1	Replication as a source of NGO growth and social effect.....	110

3.4.2.6.2	Building relationships and partnerships	110
3.4.2.7	The importance of stimulating market force capability in NGO management	111
3.4.2.7.1	Social effect or outcome	111
3.4.3	Key determinants of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces as contained in the SCALERS model	112
3.4.3.1	Factors that influence the staffing capability of NGOs.....	112
3.4.3.1.1	Available human resources.....	112
3.4.3.1.2	NGO type.....	113
3.4.3.1.3	Available financial resources and non-financial motivations.....	113
3.4.3.2	Factors that influence the communicating capability of NGOs	114
3.4.3.2.1	Organisational goal.....	114
3.4.3.2.2	Communication budget.....	114
3.4.3.2.3	Organisational structure.....	115
3.4.3.3	Factors that influence the alliance-building capability of NGOs.....	116
3.4.3.3.1	Organisational culture.....	116
3.4.3.3.2	Organisational objectives	117
3.4.3.3.3	Shared needs	117
3.4.3.4	Factors that influence the lobbying capability of NGOs.....	118
3.4.3.4.1	NGO leadership	118
3.4.3.4.2	Networking with other NGOs.....	119
3.4.3.4.3	Financial resources	120
3.4.3.5	Factors that influence the earning generation capability of NGOs	120
3.4.3.5.1	Strategic financial planning	120
3.4.3.5.2	Diversification of sources of funds.....	121
3.4.3.5.3	Competence levels of the staff.....	122
3.4.3.6	Factors that influence the replicating capability of NGOs	123
3.4.3.6.1	Access to finance/availability	123
3.4.3.6.2	Human resources and NGO staff management	123
3.4.3.6.3	Networks and partnerships	124
3.4.3.7	Factors that influence stimulating market force capability of NGOs...	125
3.4.3.7.1	Relevant products and services.....	125
3.4.3.7.2	NGO independence from donor funding	126

3.4.4	Understanding challenges in terms of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces of NGOs as reflected in the SCALERS model	126
3.4.5	Challenges in terms of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces experienced by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.....	132
3.4.5.1	Staffing challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs	133
3.4.5.2	Communication challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs	133
3.4.5.3	Alliance-building challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs	134
3.4.5.4	Lobbying challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.....	134
3.4.5.5	Earnings-generation challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.....	135
3.4.5.6	Replication challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.....	136
3.4.5.7	Stimulating market force challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.....	137
3.4.6	Measuring staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs.....	137
3.4.6.1	Measuring staffing.....	138
3.4.6.1.1	Ability of the NGO to meet human resource needs.....	138
3.4.6.1.2	Ability of the NGO to fill staff positions (management and non-management)	139
3.4.6.2	Measuring communication.....	140
3.4.6.2.1	Ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with clients and beneficiaries.....	140
3.4.6.2.2	Ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with donors and sponsors	140
3.4.6.3	Measuring alliance-building.....	141
3.4.6.3.1	Ability to build positive relationships with other organisations.....	141
3.4.6.3.2	Ability to partner with other organisations when implementing programmes	142
3.4.6.4	Measuring lobbying.....	143
3.4.6.4.1	Ability of the NGO to attract financial support from government agencies	143

3.4.6.4.2	Ability of NGOs to convince government to provide supportive policies.....	144
3.4.6.5	Measuring earnings-generation.....	145
3.4.6.5.1	Ability to achieve financial sustainability	145
3.4.6.5.2	Ability to maintain donor and sponsor relationships.....	146
3.4.6.5.3	Income diversification ability.....	147
3.4.6.6	Measuring replication.....	148
3.4.6.6.1	Ability to have a successful programme.....	148
3.4.6.6.2	Ability to replicate effectively.....	149
3.4.6.7	Measuring stimulating market forces.....	150
3.4.6.7.1	Ability of NGOs to show that businesses can generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation.....	150
3.4.6.7.2	Ability of NGOs to show that beneficiaries and clients could save money through patronising its products and services.....	151
3.4.6.7.3	Ability of NGOs to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems	151
3.5	Relationship between organisational capabilities and replication of programmes	152
3.6	Summary.....	155
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN.....		156
4.1	Introduction	156
4.2	Statement of the problem.....	156
4.2.1	Research problem	156
4.2.2	Sub-problem.....	157
4.3	Objectives of the study	158
4.4	Key research questions	158
4.5	Hypotheses.....	159
4.6	Research philosophy.....	160
4.6.1	Postpositivist research philosophy.....	160
4.7	Research design	162
4.7.1	Quantitative research	163
4.7.2	Exploratory-correlational research	165
4.8	Research setting.....	166
4.9	Population.....	167

4.10	Sampling and sampling design	167
4.10.1	Sample size	168
4.10.2	Sample	169
4.11	Research data	171
4.11.1	Types of data.....	171
4.11.1.1	Secondary data	171
4.11.1.2	Primary data	172
4.11.2	Data collection	172
4.11.2.1	Data collection instrument	173
4.11.2.2	Design of questionnaire.....	175
4.11.2.3	Validity and reliability of the data collection instrument.....	179
4.11.2.3.1	Validity of the data collection instrument	179
4.11.2.3.2	Reliability of the data collection instrument.....	181
4.11.3	Data analysis	183
4.11.3.1	Descriptive statistics.....	183
4.11.3.2	Frequencies and percentages	184
4.11.4	Measures of central tendencies	184
4.11.4.1	Mean.....	184
4.11.5	Measures of dispersion	184
4.11.5.1	Standard deviation.....	185
4.11.5.2	Inferential statistics	185
4.11.5.3	Parametric statistics.....	185
4.11.5.3.1	One sample t-test	186
4.11.5.3.2	Pearson's correlation	186
4.11.5.3.3	Regression analysis.....	187
4.12	Ethical considerations.....	187
4.13	Summary.....	188
CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS.....		189
5.1	Introduction	189
5.2	Organisational demographic information of youth-serving NGOs (descriptive statistics)	190
5.2.1	Profile of youth-serving NGOs.....	190
5.2.1.1	Profile of a sample of youth-serving NGOs.....	190
5.2.1.1.1	Years of existence of youth-serving NGOs.....	190

5.2.1.1.2	Region of youth-serving NGO head office.....	191
5.2.1.1.3	Current number of beneficiaries of youth-serving NGO.....	192
5.2.1.1.4	Gender of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs.....	193
5.2.1.1.5	The educational status of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs	194
5.2.1.1.6	Age groups of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs	195
5.2.1.1.7	Major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs.....	196
5.2.1.1.8	National identity of youth-serving NGOs	197
5.3	Perceptions of youth-serving NGOs on the replication of successful programmes and organisational capabilities (inferential statistics).....	198
5.3.1	One sample t-test analysis for the perceptions of youth-serving NGOs.....	198
5.3.1.1	Replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	199
5.3.1.2	Organisational capabilities	200
5.3.1.2.1	Staffing (independent variable 1)	200
5.3.1.2.2	Communication	201
5.3.1.2.3	Alliance-building	201
5.3.1.2.4	Lobbying.....	202
5.3.1.2.5	Earnings-generation.....	203
5.3.1.2.6	Replicating.....	203
5.3.1.2.7	Stimulating market forces.....	204
5.3.2	Pearson's correlation coefficient (r)	205
5.3.2.1	Hypothesis 1: Staffing will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	206
5.3.2.2	Hypothesis 2: Communication will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	206
5.3.2.3	Hypothesis 3: Alliance-building will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	207
5.3.2.4	Hypothesis 4: Lobbying will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	208

5.3.2.5	Hypothesis 5: Earnings-generation will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	209
5.3.2.6	Hypothesis 6: Replicating will be positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	209
5.3.2.7	Hypothesis 7: Stimulating market forces will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	210
5.3.3	Determining the independent variables	211
5.4	Summary	212
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS		213
6.1	Introduction	213
6.2	Discussion of the empirical research objectives of the study	213
6.2.1	Objective 1: To determine the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria	214
6.2.2	Objective 2: To assess the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria	217
6.2.3	Objective 3: To determine the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.....	221
6.2.4	Objective 4: To determine the extent to which there exists a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria	222
6.2.5	Objective 5: To determine the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs, which predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria	228
6.3	Discussion of the research hypotheses of the study	229
6.3.1	Hypothesis 1: Staffing will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.....	230
6.3.2	Hypothesis 2: Communication will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ..	230

6.3.3	Hypothesis 3: Alliance-building will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ..	231
6.3.4	Hypothesis 4: Lobbying will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.....	231
6.3.5	Hypothesis 5: Earnings-generation will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ..	232
6.3.6	Hypothesis 6: Replicating will be positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	233
6.3.7	Hypothesis 7: Stimulating market forces will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.....	233
6.4	Summary.....	234
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.....		235
7.1	Introduction	235
7.2	Conclusion on the major findings of the study.....	235
7.2.1	Conclusion based on literature review	236
7.2.2	Conclusion based on the empirical findings of the study	236
7.2.2.1	What are the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria?.....	237
7.2.2.2	How effective are youth-serving NGOs in meeting their organisational capability needs as contained in the adapted SCALERS model?.....	238
7.2.2.3	What is the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?	242
7.2.2.4	To what extent is there a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths?	243
7.2.2.5	To what extent are the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs able to predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?.....	244
7.3	Recommendations	245
7.3.1	Recommendations to ensure replication of programmes.....	246

7.4	Contribution to knowledge	248
7.4.1	Re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model.....	248
7.4.1.1	Setting.....	248
7.4.1.2	Unit of measurement or research population	248
7.4.1.3	Situation and problem	249
7.4.1.4	Developing country (Nigeria) data.....	249
7.4.1.5	Theoretical contributions.....	249
7.4.1.6	Empirical contributions	250
7.5	Recommendations for future research.....	251
7.6	Limitations of the study	253
7.7	Conclusion	254
7.8	Summary.....	255
	Reference list	256
	Appendices	298

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Deductive use of the SCALERS model (adapted)	28
Figure 2.2: SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010)	29
Figure 2.3: Adapted SCALERS model for the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	30
Figure 2.4: Seven independent variables influence a single dependent variable (diagram showing the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable).....	31
Figure 5.1: Frequency distribution of years of existence of youth-serving NGOs.....	191
Figure 5.2: Frequency distribution of the region of youth-serving NGOs' head office	192
Figure 5.3: Frequency distribution of the current number of youth-serving NGO beneficiaries	193
Figure 5.4: Frequency distribution of the gender of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs	194
Figure 5.5: Frequency distribution of the educational status of the beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs	195
Figure 5.6: Frequency distribution of the age groups of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs	196
Figure 5.7: Frequency distribution of areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs	197
Figure 5.8: Frequency distribution of national identity of youth-serving NGOs	198

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.....	170
Table 4.2: Reliability statistics (dependent and independent variables).....	183
Table 5.1: T-test analysis for replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths	199
Table 5.2: T-test analysis for staffing (independent variable 1)	200
Table 5.3: T-test analysis for communication (independent variable 2)	201
Table 5.4: T-test analysis for alliance-building (independent variable 3)	201
Table 5.5: T-test analysis for lobbying (independent variable 4)	202
Table 5.6: T-test analysis for earnings-generation (independent variable 5)	203
Table 5.7: T-test analysis for replicating (independent variable 6)	204
Table 5.8: T-test analysis for stimulating market forces (independent variable 7)	205
Table 5.9: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r.....	206
Table 5.10: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r.....	207
Table 5.11: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r.....	208
Table 5.12: Hypotheses testing using Pearson's correlation r	208
Table 5.13: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r.....	209
Table 5.14: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r.....	210
Table 5.15: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r.....	210
Table 5.16: Regression analysis to determine the independent variables that predicted the dependent variable	211

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Research Questionnaire.....	298
Appendix B: Statistical analysis – Tables of analysis output	308
Appendix C: Ethical clearance	339
Appendix D: Turnitin report	340

CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Nigeria is one of Africa's biggest developing countries with a population of 186 988 000 people (United Nations Data [UN Data], 2017: Section 1) and a growing youth population. According to the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) (2017: Section 3), Nigeria's population comprises –

- youths between the ages 15 and 24 years (19.48%), i.e. males (18 514 466), females 17 729 351); and
- adults between the ages 25 to 54 years (30.65%), i.e. males (29 259 621), females 27 768 368) and this accounts for 50.13% of the Nigerian population.

The average age in Nigeria is 18.3 years with the male age being 18.2 years and female age, 18.4 years. According to the CIA (2017: Section 3), Nigeria has a dependency ratio of 87.7%, which comprises youth dependency ratio of 82% and elderly dependency of 5.1% with an estimated potential support ratio of 19.5%. Despite the high dependency ratio indicating that youths are highly dependent, Nigeria's rate of youth poverty as at 2002 indicated that 17 358 292 out of 24 726 912 youths between the ages of 15 and 24 lived below the poverty line of \$1 per day (Curtain, 2003:7). Although there is no current statistical data evidence of youth poverty in Nigeria, available data on youth unemployment, which is a major contributor of youth poverty in Nigeria, reveals that Nigeria has a youth unemployment/underemployment rate of 45.65% (The National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2017: Key indicators section). This demonstrates that Nigeria is one of Africa's countries experiencing the problem of severe youth poverty.

Nigeria is facing a serious crisis due to the prevailing increase in youth poverty (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:62; Ajani, Mgbenka & Onah, 2015:34–35; Akpan, Patrick & Amama, 2016:168; Curtain, 2003:7; Edewor, 2014:537–538; Emmanuel, Olayiwola & Babatunde, 2009:224; Oduwole, 2015:23–29; Surajo & Karim, 2016:4919). Several studies have attributed this situation, among other factors that cause youth poverty in Nigeria, to –

- the increase in youth unemployment (Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa, 2012:269–270; Onah & Okwuosa, 2016:52–55);
- the weak educational system (Kayode & Adeyemi, 2016:262–263; Ogundele, Oparinde & Moronfoye, 2013:46–48; Yusuff & Soyemi, 2012:71);
- ill health and disease (Iya, Purokayo & Yusuf, 2012:245; Onyeke, 2015:40; Sangowawa & Owoaje, 2011:106); and
- gender inequality (Alao, 2015:18–19; Kolawole & Adeigbe 2016:7071; Makama, 2013:115).

It is this persistent suffering of the youth since the mid-1980s (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61; Arogundade, 2011:26) that has led to various youth-serving non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to implement poverty alleviation programmes in key areas such as –

- healthcare services (Isiugo-Abanihe, Olajide, Nwokocha, Fayehun, Okunola & Akingbade, 2015:101, 103; Oladunni & Osezua, 2013:1382);
- education and training services (Asiyai, 2015:61; Oshadare, Ige & Lawal, 2015:5);
- agricultural training (Lawan, 2013:32; Ogbeide, Ele & Ikheloa, 2015:3); and
- legal representation services (Achunike & Kitause, 2014:40; Melis & Esquivel-Korsiak, 2016:2) among other poverty alleviation programmes, to give hope to the suffering youths and make them self-reliant in Nigeria.

However, despite evidence of the persistent suffering of the youths in Nigeria since the mid-1980s (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61; Arogundade, 2011:26), the situation has continued unabated despite numerous government interventions such as the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) (Kasali & Sowunmi, 2013:208; Onwe & Nwakamma, 2015:227), interventions by corporate organisations such as telecommunications companies in Nigeria (Osemene, 2012:149, 152) and NGOs (Adejumo, Olu-Owolabi & Fayomi, 2015:220). Due to the persistent increase in the number of youths experiencing poverty in Nigeria, certain negative consequences are becoming more prevalent in Nigeria.

The negative consequences are in the form of various violent crimes, such as terrorism (Agbiboa, 2013:148; Hansen, 2016: Paragraph 26), youth restiveness (Adebayo &

Adegboyega, 2016:105–106), cyber-crimes (Jegede, Oyesomi & Bankole, 2016:159–161). Other negative effects are for instance youth homelessness (Hansen, 2016: Paragraph1–5; Kehinde, 2014:237), psychological problems such as mental illness (Cortina, Sodha, Fazel & Ramchandani, 2012:276, 278; Famakinwa, Olagunju & Akinlawonu, 2016:59, 61) and illegal migration (Ikuteyijo, 2012:1). Based on the increasing youth poverty levels and negative consequences, the need to replicate successful poverty alleviation programmes has become necessary and has been advocated for by various scholars (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:1, 4; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51) for key stakeholders to do more in alleviating poverty and its attendant negative consequences.

Social replication is a term that describes the spread of an innovation or programme for the benefit of more locations and more beneficiaries (Mavra, 2011:9). It is a strategy of growth and of increasing the activities of an organisation on a large scale. **Scaling** refers to growth and **replication** is a tested strategy and scaling mechanism of growing programmes/innovations (Clark, Massarsky, Raben & Worsham, 2012:3, 5; Jowett, 2010:1; Oddsdóttir, 2014:1–2). According to Bradach (2003: Paragraph1), both developed and developing economies experience challenges in their bid to replicate social innovations. This is a growing concern as there are several social innovative solutions that are not being replicated to alleviate the targeted social issues that are endemic in the society (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph1–2). Van Oudenhoven and Wazir (1998:8) reported that replication presents a connection of a new concept to different targeted beneficiaries in diverse locations. It is important to mention that the aim of replication is to extend the coverage of a successful innovation to those who are far from the innovation (Van Oudenhoven & Wazir, 1998:10).

Already there are a number of different types of social replications, like franchising (standard business and social), joint venture, partnership (collaboration agreement), dissemination, network, licensing and wholly owned replication (Berelowitz, Richardson & Towner, 2013:12; Jowett, 2010:6; Jowett & Dyer, 2012:733–736; Mavra, 2011:9–10). They all agreed that replication is the way to grow social programmes and innovations and that this is beneficial to all. However, in practice and with youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria, social replication is seldom utilised in Nigeria where youth

poverty is multiplying yearly in leaps and bounds (Curtain, 2003:7; Oluwatomiwo & Adetola, 2016:14).

It is important to note that Mulgan (2006:159) observed that there is some limited work on the discourse of replicating successful voluntary sector initiatives. This provides additional justification for the need to investigate the almost non-adoption of social replication by NGOs in Nigeria. Since there may be various reasons why social replication is hardly practiced in Nigeria, considering it from the point of view of youth-serving NGOs becomes necessary. Bloom and Smith (2010:128) provided the necessary tool in the SCALERS model (see Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:116), which can be adapted to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to lighten the growing scourge of poverty. The present study adapted the SCALERS model to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes.

The next section will present the background to the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Youth-serving NGOs are among the key stakeholders fighting the scourge of youth poverty in Nigeria (Ahonsi, 2015: Paragraph 6; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48). The World Health Organisation (WHO) (1994:i, 1–39) noted that youth-serving NGOs make welfare contributions, which benefit the youth, such as the provision of shelter, food, medical services and education among other services, which deprived youths might need to live comfortably. Among the challenges which have increased their suffering, Nigerian youths face challenges associated with –

- a poor educational system (Yusuff & Soyemi, 2012:71);
- youth unemployment (Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa, 2012:269; NBS, 2017: Key indicators section);
- gender inequality (Alao, 2015:18–19; Makama, 2013:115); and
- HIV/AIDS (National Agency for the Control of AIDS [NACA], 2014:17; Onyeke, 2015:40).

While youth-serving NGOs are trying to solve social challenges experienced by the youth in Nigeria via healthcare services, such as sexuality education programmes

(Isiugo-Abanihe et al., 2015:103) and agricultural training services (Adesugba & Mavrotas, 2016:15) among other intervention programmes, they are also experiencing various challenges of which organisational capabilities is a constant re-occurrence.

Organisational capability challenges may hinder the capacities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria and to fight youth poverty in Nigeria. Among other challenges of organisational capabilities which hinder the effectiveness of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to relieve youth poverty in Nigeria, these organisational challenges take the forms of –

- inadequate staffing (Aransiola, 2013:174);
- insufficient funding (Nwogu, 2014:7–8);
- poor communication (Nwogu, 2014:10);
- reduced support from development partners (Kasali, Ahmad & Ean, 2015:65); and
- a lack of capacity to negotiate with government (Momoh, Oluwasanu, Oduola, Delano & Ladipo, 2015:1–2).

Hence, the need to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present the motivation for the study.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The state of increasing poor youths in Nigeria is causing concern despite efforts by youth-serving NGOs to bring respite to the youth through various youth poverty alleviation programmes. The need to unravel the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs that may influence the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in order to make these programmes accessible to more youths and more geographical locations has motivated this study along with other specific factors. This study was encouraged by the following specific factors:

- The literature reviewed for this study showed that there is scant research on organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs influencing the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. While some studies have been undertaken to show the role of youth-serving NGOs in

alleviating youth poverty in Nigeria through various youth poverty alleviation programmes, emphasis has been on the organisational capability challenges facing youth-serving NGOs. Furthermore, recommendations on the need to replicate these youth poverty alleviation programmes have been made in previous studies (see Ahonsi, 2015:Paragraph 7; Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:1, 4; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51) on youth-serving NGOs and their activities in Nigeria. The present study investigated the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The researcher hoped that this study would enable youth-serving NGOs to improve on their organisational capabilities to enable them to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths effectively to alleviate youth poverty.

- There is a need to reduce the increase in crimes associated with youth poverty as poor youths engage in negative behaviour, such as armed robberies, kidnappings, murder and terrorism, among other grievous offences.
- A need exists to protect the psychological wellbeing of the youth as mental illness is on the increase among poor and unemployed youths in Nigeria (Omoniyi, 2016:85).
- There is a need to give hope to desperate, poor youths who do not want to engage in crime, but who are illegally migrating to more economic-friendly countries under very difficult circumstances, with many of them losing their lives in the process of searching for the solutions to alleviate their situations.
- It was believed that conducting the investigation on the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria would enable the researcher to establish the relationship between the two variables (independent and dependent variables), namely organisational capabilities and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, while identifying the predictors of the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present the significance of the study.

1.3.1 Significance of the study

The study addressed youth poverty, which is a global problem with a national research focus. Nationally, the study will serve as a reference point to stimulate the awareness of

youth-serving NGOs in terms of the potential of their organisational capabilities to influence the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Likewise, the study will also alert stakeholders in the fight against youth poverty in Nigeria to support youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. The study will also project social replication as a needed key culture in the theory of change of youth-serving NGOs.

The next section will present the problem statement.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The research problem and the sub-problems are stated below.

The next section will present the research problem.

1.4.1 Research problem

The rising problem of youth poverty in Nigeria (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61–62; Curtain, 2003:7; Oduwole, 2015:23–29) and its attendant negative consequences, which include crime (Hansen, 2016: Paragraph 26; Uyang, Festus & Bassey, 2016:82), youth homelessness (Kehinde, 2014:237), and psychological ailments (mental illness) (Famakinwa et al., 2016:59, 61) among other negative consequences are becoming worrisome. This is so despite several interventions by key stakeholders, such as the presence of many youth-serving NGOs with numerous youth poverty alleviation programmes in the areas of vocational training (Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48), small and medium enterprise (SME) advisory services (Iwu & Nzeako, 2012:128), and women development services (Dibie & Okere, 2015:92) among other intervention areas. Documented evidence points to the fact that some of these youth empowerment and youth poverty alleviation programmes have been used effectively to address the problem of youth poverty in some locations in Nigeria (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:53–58; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:50; Omofonmwan & Odia, 2009:251; Sofowora, 2009:131) and yet it may seem that these youth poverty alleviation programmes are designed for a selected few beneficiaries and locations. There is urgent need to make other deprived beneficiaries and locations to benefit from these solutions and ‘social replication’ is the identified approach to spread the benefits of these solutions to more beneficiaries and locations (Berelowitz et al., 2013:5; Mavra, 2011:5–6; Van Oudenhoven & Wazir, 1998:10). Evidence by Berelowitz et al. (2013:12), Mavra (2011:9–10) and Van

Oudenhoven and Wazir (1998:12–13) have also shown that various forms of social replications have been identified and standardised. However, despite the presence of available information, Nigeria still has a high prevalent rate of youth poverty (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61–62; Akpan et al., 2016:162, 168; Arogundade, 2011:26; Ilemona, Akoji & Matthew, 2013:1).

Further investigation has revealed that youth-serving NGOs experience several organisational capability challenges in their attempt to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria (Kasali et al., 2015:65; Nwogu, 2014:7–8, 10; Odukoya, Busari & Ateh-Abang, 2006: 28, 31–42). Based on these organisational capability challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs and the low replication activities associated with youth-serving NGOs, there is great concern that there may be a link between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the resultant non-replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The resultant concern informs the need to investigate how effective youth-serving NGOs are in meeting their organisational capability needs and also to identify the progress made in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths while also establishing the correlation. The present study addressed this concern by investigating the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths using the SCALERS model as a theoretical framework.

The next section will present the sub-problems.

1.4.2 Sub-problems

Based on the research problem above, the sub-problems listed below were addressed, namely:

- the extent to which there exists a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths; and
- organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs predicting the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present the purpose of the study.

1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria using the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128). This will enable the identification and improvement of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs by the SCALERS model, which significantly predicts the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to reduce youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present the objectives of the study.

1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following were the research objectives:

- to determine the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria;
- to assess the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria;
- to determine the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;
- to determine the extent to which there exists a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;
- to determine the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs, which predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria; and
- to make useful recommendations that have both managerial and policy formulation relevance to stakeholders in the social sector.

The next section will present the research questions.

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In line with the aforementioned aim, the following were the research questions for the study:

- What are the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria?
- How effective are youth-serving NGOs in meeting their organisational capabilities as contained in the adapted SCALERS model?

- How effective are youth-serving NGOs in meeting their staffing needs?
- To which extent are youth-serving NGOs able to communicate effectively with all their stakeholders?
- To which extent are youth-serving NGOs able to build effective partnerships with relevant organisations in Nigeria?
- To which extent are youth-serving NGOs able to lobby successfully for support in order to implement organisational objectives effectively?
- To which extent do youth-serving NGOs generate sufficient income to remain sustainable?
- To which extent are youth-serving NGOs able to replicate youth poverty alleviation programmes effectively within new locations in Nigeria?
- To which extent does youth-serving NGOs provide attractive incentives to attract prospective beneficiaries?
- What is the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?
- To which extent is there a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model) and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths?
- To which extent are the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model) able to predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?

The next section will present the research hypotheses.

1.8 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following were the research hypotheses:

- H₁: Staffing is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₂: Communication is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₃: Alliance-building is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₄: Lobbying is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

- H₅: Earnings-generation is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₆: Replicating is positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₇: Stimulating market forces is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present the theoretical foundation for the study.

1.9 THEORETICAL FOUNDATION FOR THE STUDY

The theoretical foundation for this study was the SCALERS model, which proposes, “the extent to which an individual SCALERS (i.e., driver or capability) will influence scaling success will depend on certain situational contingencies” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:115). The model has its foundation in research on “various forms of capital and organisational capabilities” (Bloom & Smith, 2010:130).

The SCALERS model allows for the investigation of organisational capabilities (drivers) and situational contingencies (physical environment factors) within a defined context (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:115). In this study, the model was adapted and applied to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The following were the variables for this study:

- organisational capabilities (independent variables: staffing, communicating, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replicating and stimulating market forces); and
- replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable).

The SCALERS model is a new model, which provides fertile ground for empirical study in the growing field of social entrepreneurship, NGOs and other forms of social sector organisations and their respective study interests. The SCALERS model has been referenced by over 40 notable articles. The weakness of the model lies in the unlimited factors (Bloom & Smith, 2010:140) that may affect the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. However, the SCALERS model provides an effective opportunity to investigate the organisational capabilities of

youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria, having been empirically explored and tested by Bloom and Smith (2010:135–140). The study is also a model testing research to provide useful data and insights on the research problem under study.

A thorough review of existing academic literature revealed that until this point, there has been no attempt to apply the SCALERS model in a primary research setting focusing on a developing country context, specifically Nigeria. This can be due to the newness of the model, which was proposed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:115–116) and empirically tested by Bloom and Smith (2010:135–140). However, Nigeria provides an important research context due to the presence of rising social challenges like youth poverty (Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa, 2012:269; Akpan et al., 2016:162, 168; Curtain, 2003:7; Oduwale, 2015:23–29) and available youth-serving NGOs utilising youth poverty alleviation programmes to reduce the problem (Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48; Sofowora, 2009:131).

The timing of the application of the SCALERS model in the Nigerian context is relevant as its applicability and practicality enable the investigation of the capabilities of existing youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present the research assumptions.

1.10 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

The following were the research assumptions:

That the research respondents would provide useful and quality data reflecting their true experience of the social sector and their organisational capabilities to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This was made possible by being given access to the respondents through –

- The umbrella body of NGOs in Nigeria, the Nigeria Network for Non-Governmental Organisations (NNNGO);
- state associations, such as the Conference of Non-Governmental Organisations (CONGO); and
- Civil Society for HIV/AIDS in Nigeria (CiSHAN) and
- key partner in Edo State, the National Youth Council of Nigeria (NYCN).

The research participants voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. The aforementioned organisations ensured that their registered members and associates were well briefed about the research intent while their anonymity was guaranteed and respected in line with the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) ethics principles and guidelines.

The sample (196 research respondents) selected was a true representation of the population of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. This was guaranteed by working with the NNNGO who provided documented evidence of 400 registered and active youth-serving NGOs, who are involved in various youth poverty alleviation activities as at the time of data collection for this study.

The research was based on the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128), which has been effectively and sufficiently applied to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. This was achieved by the adaptation of the SCALERS model as the theoretical framework for the study and retaining the independent variables while the dependent variable (scale of social impact) was substituted with the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to achieve the purpose of the study.

The hypotheses stated in this research were tested to reveal the actual relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, besides revealing the established relationship between the aforementioned variables, the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs, which predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths were also identified. This was achieved by using inferential statistics.

The outcome of the research will contribute to the SCALERS model and can be generalised to a large extent to the general population of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. This was achieved by effectively applying the adapted SCALERS model to a developing country context and focusing on youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria, achieving a response rate of 95.4% while ensuring that the selected sample size of 196 NGOs,

which are involved in youth poverty alleviation was a true representative of the population of 400 registered and active youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

The next section will present the scope of the study.

1.11 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to investigate the capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths using the adapted SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128).

The study focused on youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. The topics studied and discussed included:

- organisational capabilities;
- challenges for the organisational capabilities faced by youth-serving NGOs;
- youth poverty in Nigeria;
- youth poverty alleviation programmes; and
- the relationship between the organisational capabilities of NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths among other areas related to the research problem.

The location of the study was Nigeria and data was collected from youth-serving NGOs with the help of the NNNGO (an umbrella body for NGOs in Nigeria) and other state networks, such as –

- the CONGO (Edo State chapter);
- the CiSHAN (Edo State chapter); and
- the NYCN (Edo State chapter).

The population comprised 400 active and registered NGOs that were involved in empowering poor youths in Nigeria at the time of this research.

The next section will present the research methodology.

1.12 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section provides an overview of the research methodology adopted for this study.

In summary, the study adopted an exploratory correlational study design to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths using the adapted SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128).

The quantitative research approach was informed by the research problem that was investigated, the adapted SCALERS model that was applied and tested and also by the postpositivist research philosophy which informed the quantitative approach for this study. A pilot study was carried out using a small sample of NGOs to pre-test and validate the research instrument. The outcome of the pilot study showed that the research instrument was reliable. The study utilised secondary data and information obtained from the literature review of previous studies on youth poverty, youth poverty alleviation, organisational capabilities and NGOs with special emphasis on youth-serving NGOs. In addition, primary data was collected using a simple random sampling method to select participants from 187 youth-serving NGOs out of 196 youth-serving NGOs, which received the administered questionnaire and which satisfied the instructions stated in the research questionnaire and showed no missing data. This led to the achievement of a 95.4% response rate compared to the earmarked target sample of 196 research respondents (youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria) based on a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error using Cohen, Manion and Morrison's (2013:104) table on sample size for a defined population figure.

The research data was analysed using descriptive statistics in the form of mean, standard deviation (SD) and frequencies, while inferential statistics in the form of the one sample t-test, Pearson's correlation r and regression analyses were used to analyse the study data for statistical inferences.

The next section will present the research contributions.

1.13 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

The main contribution of this study is the application of the SCALERS model in a developing country context (Nigeria) and to a different type of social organisation (unit

of analysis), namely youth-serving NGOs, to generate new and practical insights on the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria while validating the applicability of the adapted SCALERS model. Empirical contributions of this study are guided by Lynn's (2017:4) notion of empirical contribution, which affirms that an empirical contribution can be made on the basis of providing an argument that both show:

- “the causal relationships and processes they test allow us to better predict or control outcomes we care about, and
- their tests change our knowledge about, or confidence in, those causal relationships and processes”.

Furthermore, the theoretical contributions of this study are influenced by Whetten's (1989:494) notion of theoretical contribution, which affirms that the theoretical contribution of a study is one that extends an existing theory by giving new meanings to concepts and providing a new direction of the relationships that exist in the theory. In addition, Corley and Gioia's (2011:12) notion of theoretical contribution, which suggests that the theoretical contribution shows the originality of the existing new relationship and its practical value was applied. This study achieved these contributions by applying and validating the variables in the adapted SCALERS model. The following are some of the contributions made by this study:

- The study contributes to the establishment of the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.
- It contributes to the identification of organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model), which significantly predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.
- The study contributes to the concurrent validity of the scale of social impact (dependent variable) in the SCALERS model and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable) in the adapted SCALERS model.

The next section will present the limitations of the study.

1.14 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research was restricted to the investigation of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths using the adapted SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128). In order to maintain the specific scope defined for the study, only variables on the adapted SCALERS model were considered in the application of the model.

The limitations of the study are fully discussed in Chapter seven.

The next section will present the delimitations of the study.

1.15 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research was specifically delimited in seven ways. First, it was delimited to youth-serving NGOs, and did not include other NGOs, which did not focus on issues related to youths, as the research clearly focused on youth poverty and youth poverty alleviation issues. Secondly, this research was delimited to non-governmental organisations with partnerships with the Nigerian Network for Non-governmental Organisation (NNNGO), the Conference of Non-governmental organisations (CONGOs) (Edo State chapter), the Civil Society for HIV/AIDS in Nigeria (CiSHAN), (the Edo State chapter), and the National Youth Council of Nigeria (NYCN), (the Edo State chapter). The majority of youth-serving NGOs were registered with these organisations and had various partnership agreements and events in place. Thirdly, this study was delimited to non-governmental organisations (international and locally domiciled/located in Nigeria) as the study was focused on Nigeria. Fourthly, this study was delimited to investigating the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, and did not include situational factors that may influence the effectiveness of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs as this was outside the defined scope, aim and objectives of the study. Fifthly, this study focused on Nigeria which is a developing and emerging economy in West Africa and the study did not consider other countries in West Africa or Africa as a whole, in order for the effective management and coordination of the entire research process and available time frame. Sixthly, this research investigated only the organisational capabilities as contained in the adapted SCALERS model and did not intend to identify other organisational capabilities outside the SCALERS model that may influence the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor

youths in order to effectively test and re-contextualise the SCALERS model. Seventhly, this study restricted itself to quantitative methodology and did not consider qualitative and mixed-method methodologies in order to establish the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present the structure of the dissertation

1.16 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

The thesis is organised into seven chapters. Below is the breakdown of the chapters and their contents.

Chapter one: This is the introductory chapter, and contains an introduction to and background of the research issue that was investigated. Other key parts of this chapter are the theoretical foundation of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, statement of the hypotheses, motivation for the study, research assumptions, scope of the study, research methodology, research contributions, limitations of the study, delimitations of the study; structure of the thesis and definition of key terms.

Chapter two: This chapter reflects the theoretical foundation of the study which is the SCALERS model as well as a comprehensive and critical discussion of relevant themes involved in the investigated research problem.

Chapter three: This chapter reflects the literature review and it contains references to previously published research works by scholars relevant to the investigated research problem.

Chapter four: This chapter reflects the research design and methodology and provides information on the research philosophy, the quantitative approach and study design adopted for the study, with justifications. Other key parts are the research setting, target population, sampling method, sources of research data, data collection method and instrument, validity and reliability of the data collection instrument, measurements, data analysis methods and ethical consideration.

Chapter five: This chapter presents a discussion of the data analysis and interpretation of the results as well as the data, using descriptive and inferential statistics while the results are interpreted.

Chapter six: This chapter presents a discussion of the analysed data.

Chapter seven: This is the concluding chapter, and it presents information on the conclusions reached by the study, as well as the research contributions, limitations of the study, future research directions and recommendations.

The next section will present the definition of key terms.

1.17 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The following terms are defined to clarify their usage in the study. Some terms will also be defined and explained in the literature review and appropriate references are provided.

- **Organisational capabilities:** organisational capability is defined as “the socially complex routines that determine the efficiency with which firms physically transform inputs into outputs” (Collis, 1994:145).
- **Non-governmental organisations (NGOs):** NGOs are defined as “non-governmental, non-profit making and self-governing, set out to ameliorate the plight of the people in dire need of life sustaining facilities in the society” (Omofonmwan & Odia, 2009:247).
- **Replication:** replication is defined as an act or activity of reproducing an innovative concept or product for the benefit of more beneficiaries and the coverage of more locations (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph 4; Van Oudenhoven & Wazir, 1998:1).
- **Youth poverty:** youth poverty is broadly defined as youths within the age range of 12–30 living on less than \$1 a day (“the narrower definition of extreme poverty based on the \$1 a day measure”[see Curtain, 2003:18]) or \$2 a day (“the broader definition of absolute poverty based on the \$2 a day measure” [see Curtain, 2003:18]) and experiencing other forms of deprivation that hinder their ability to be socially and economically fulfilled (Curtain, 2001:2; Curtain, 2003:6, 8; Iacovou, Aassve & Davia, 2007:xi).

- **Youth-serving NGOs:** NGOs that meet the welfare needs of youths who are deprived (WHO, 1994: i, 1–39).

The next section will present the summary of the study.

1.18 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This chapter presented the introduction and a synopsis of the study. It provided insights into the research problem and sub-problems. The research objectives, questions and hypotheses to be tested in the study were stated. The chapter also provided the motivations for the study in addition to the significance of the study. The research assumptions, scope of the study, research methodology, research contributions, limitations of the study, delimitations of the study, structure of the thesis and definition of key terms were also presented.

The next chapter will present the SCALERS model: theoretical foundation in context and the analysis of key variables.

CHAPTER TWO:

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION FOR THE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on presenting the theoretical foundation for the study which enabled the investigation of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. The theoretical foundation for this study hinged on the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:115, 128) and the analysis of key variables in the SCALERS model is presented in this chapter.

The next section will present the SCALERS model: the theoretical foundation in context and the analysis of key variables.

2.2 THE SCALERS MODEL: THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATION IN CONTEXT AND THE ANALYSIS OF KEY VARIABLES

To establish the theoretical foundation for the investigation of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria, the deductive use of the SCALERS model is provided (see Figure 2.1). The SCALERS model was adapted to provide an excellent and usable model for the study (see Figures 2.2 and 2.3). The adapted SCALERS model attempted to establish the relationship between the organisational capabilities (staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (scale of social impact) in Nigeria (Bloom & Smith, 2010:128). The SCALERS model by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:115) (see Figure 2.2) proposes, “the extent to which an individual SCALERS (i.e., driver or capability) will influence scaling success will depend on certain situational contingencies”.

The SCALERS model has its foundation in research on “various forms of capital and organisational capabilities” (Bloom & Smith, 2010:130). The model allows for the investigation of organisational capabilities (drivers) and situational contingencies

(physical environment factors) within a defined context (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:115; Bloom & Smith, 2010:130 & 135). For this study, the focus was on the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (drivers) in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (scale of social impact).

The SCALERS model has some other vital utility values, namely:

- it serves as an effective tool for organisations to meet their social impact goals in society;
- it is an evaluation and performance framework to monitor organisational scaling progress while providing ways of improvement for the organisation and its activities; and
- it serves as a future tool to analyse and evaluate plans of target impact levels among other utility values within a defined context (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:129).

The SCALERS model has been referred to in practice and in theory in various studies. Some of these studies are “Scaling social enterprises: A theoretically grounded framework” (Weber, Kroger & Lambrich, 2012:1) and “How to grow social innovation: A review and critique of scaling and diffusion for understanding the growth of social innovation” (Davies & Simon, 2013:1). Other studies are “Scaling social ventures: An exploratory study of social incubators and accelerators” (Casasnovas & Bruno, 2013:173) and “Upscaling of business model experiments in off-grid PV solar energy in India” (Jolly, Raven & Romijn, 2012:199).

In explaining the SCALERS model, Bloom and Chatterji (2009:116) and Bloom and Smith (2010:127 & 128) show that seven independent variables are considered, namely

—

- staffing;
- communication;
- alliance-building;
- lobbying government agencies for support;
- earnings-generation;
- replicating; and

- stimulating market forces (organisational capabilities) in correlation with a dependent variable, which is the “scale of social impact” (see Bloom & Smith, 2010:128).

The aforementioned relationships have the capacity to inform the social organisation of the factors and conditions that could contribute to the success of the social organisation in achieving the replication of the innovations and programmes of the programme on a large scale and to get the desired social impact within the defined environment of the organisation (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:129; Bloom & Smith, 2010:130).

In the application of the adapted SCALERS model to this study to investigate organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes, the adapted SCALERS model variables (independent and dependent) were defined as follows:

The next section will present the independent variables.

2.2.1 Independent variables

Staffing was defined as the “effectiveness of the organisation in filling its labour needs, including its managerial posts, with people who have the requisite skills for the needed positions, whether they be paid staff or volunteers” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:117).

Communication was defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation is able to persuade key stakeholders that its change strategy is worth adopting and /or supporting” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:118).

Alliance-building was defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation has forged partnerships, coalitions, joint ventures, and other linkages to bring about desired social changes” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:119).

Lobbying (advocacy) was defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation is able to advocate for government actions that may work in its favour” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:120).

Earnings-generation was defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation generates stream of revenue that exceeds its expenses” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:121).

Replicating was defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation can reproduce the programs and initiatives that it has originated” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:122).

Stimulating market forces was defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation can create incentives that encourage people or institutions to pursue private interests while also serving public good” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:123).

The next section will present the dependent variable.

2.2.2 Dependent variable

Replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths refers to the reduction of youth poverty by ensuring that more beneficiaries and more locations benefit from successful programmes designed to empower poor youths through the process of replication (Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51).

With these variables defined above, the adapted SCALERS model (see Figure 2.3) reflects the investigation of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The following comprised the fundamental logic for this study:

- **Youth poverty alleviation** is the desired social impact envisioned by youth-serving NGOs in their efforts to reduce the sufferings of the youth in Nigeria (Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48, 51). Therefore, the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths reflects this logic in its entirety.
- **Organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs** as contained in the adapted SCALERS model are some of the expected capabilities to influence the aforementioned desired social impact.
- **Replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths** across the 36 states and six geopolitical zones (North-West Zone, North-East Zone, North-Central Zone, South-West Zone, South-South Zone and South-East Zone) is the required strategy to reduce youth poverty in Nigeria by youth-serving NGOs drastically.
- The current situation of rising youth poverty levels in Nigeria despite various successful programmes designed to empower poor youths utilised in different locations by youth-serving NGOs is worrisome. In addition, the presence of several challenges affecting the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs also present a hindrance to the capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to carry out meaningful social work in Nigeria. Consequently, this study investigated the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The analysis of the key variables reflected on the dependent variable (replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths) which was the main variable of interest in this research study, in which the “variance [was] attempted to be explained” (Sekaran, 2003:115) by the independent variables (organisational capabilities, staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) (see Figure 2.4). Below is an explanation of the individual drivers (independent variables) and the relationship with the dependent variable (replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths) as it related to this study.

Staffing plays a crucial role in the activities of youth-serving NGOs as observed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:117) and Bloom and Smith (2010:132) for social sector organisations involved in development activities in a defined operational environment.

The fewer staff (both permanent and voluntary) youth-serving NGOs have in their organisation the less they will be unable to carry out their stated aims and objectives in society. This will reflect negatively in the capacity of NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths on a large scale to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria because staffing plays a critical role in the activities of youth-serving NGOs.

Communication plays a major role within and outside the internal and external environments of youth-serving NGOs, as observed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:118) and Bloom and Smith (2010:132), for social organisations active in the social sector and in a defined operational environment. The less effective communication a youth-serving NGO has with its stakeholders such as beneficiaries, the more difficult it becomes to carry out its stated aims and objectives (Nwogu, 2014:10). This difficulty will also hinder the ability of the NGO to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths on a large scale to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. This is because an effective and efficient communicating youth-serving NGO receives timely feedback that reflects positively in its activities and its ability to alleviate youth poverty on a large scale in Nigeria.

Alliance-building is an important organisational capability in the partnership and joint effort activities of youth-serving NGOs as observed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:119) and Bloom and Smith (2010:133) for social sector organisations carrying diverse social activities in the society. Less alliance-building with key stakeholders by youth-serving NGOs tend to affect the realisation of the organisational mandate of youth-serving NGOs and which will negatively affect the success of youth-serving NGOs' programmes in Nigeria. This is because effective alliance-building capability of youth-serving NGO benefits from established partnerships and collaborations with government, donors, private sector organisations and other well-meaning stakeholders that reflect positively in its activities and its ability to alleviate youth poverty on a large scale in Nigeria.

Lobbying (advocacy) is a critical organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs as observed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:120) and Bloom and Smith (2010:133) for social sector organisations in soliciting for the support of government agencies. The less lobbying (advocacy) a youth-serving NGO does with relevant stakeholders in society, such as the host government, the more difficult it becomes to receive government support and actions that will benefit the realisation of its aims and objectives. Less

lobbying by youth-serving NGOs tends to negatively affect their capacity to expand their organisational goals in their host communities in Nigeria. This is because effective lobbying (advocacy) for the needs of the youth-serving NGO (support, policy and enabling environment) by relevant stakeholders, like the host government, will reflect positively in its activities and its ability to alleviate youth poverty on a large scale in Nigeria.

Earnings-generation is an essential organisational capability that guarantees the financial sustainability of youth-serving NGOs as observed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:121) and Bloom and Smith (2010:134) for social sector organisations determined to make a positive impact in their host communities. The less earnings that a youth-serving NGO is able to generate the more difficult it becomes to achieve its stated aims and objectives due to failings it will experience in meeting its various financial commitments. Reduced earnings will also negatively affect the youth-serving NGO's capacity to meet the demands of projects and programmes handled by the youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. This is because sustainable earnings generated by youth-serving NGOs will enable the organisation to finance its day-to-day activities, staff salaries and projects (long- and short-term projects).

Replication plays a fundamental role in the expansion of programmes' activities of youth-serving NGOs as observed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:122) and Bloom and Smith (2010:134) for social sector organisations which enables the spread of successful development programmes for mass benefits. The less replication a youth-serving NGO is able to carry out in order to access more beneficiaries and more geographical locations the more difficult it becomes to carry out its stated aims and objectives. Less replication will also hinder its ability to access more locations and target more beneficiaries on a large scale to lessen youth poverty in Nigeria. This is because replication is an effective strategy that ensures that a successful programme can be enjoyed by more beneficiaries and be accessed in more locations (rural and urban).

Stimulating market forces is a strategic organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs as observed by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:123) and Bloom and Smith (2010:134) for social sector organisations using market based incentives that are beneficial to beneficiaries and supporting businesses in a defined operational environment. The fewer stimulating market forces a youth-serving NGO relies upon the more difficult it becomes to carry out its stated aims and objectives. Fewer stimulating market forces by youth-serving NGOs will also obstruct its ability to spread its social

impact on a large scale to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. This is because market forces tend to affect the availability and demand of initiatives and programmes of youth-serving NGOs.

Based on the analysis of the variables as contained in the adapted SCALERS model, this study used an exploratory correlational study design to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

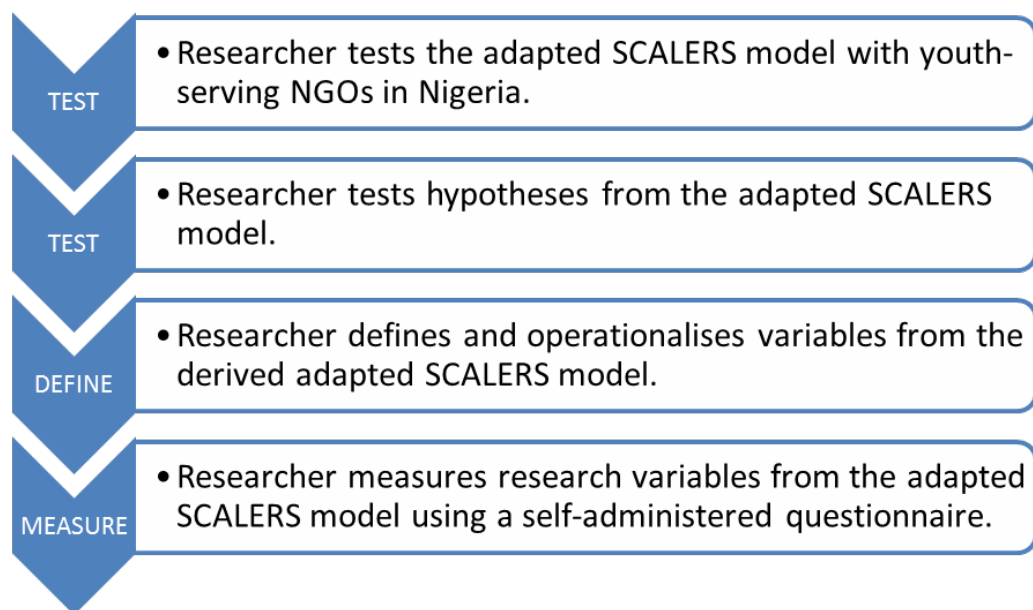


Figure 2.1: Deductive use of the SCALERS model (adapted)

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2013:93).

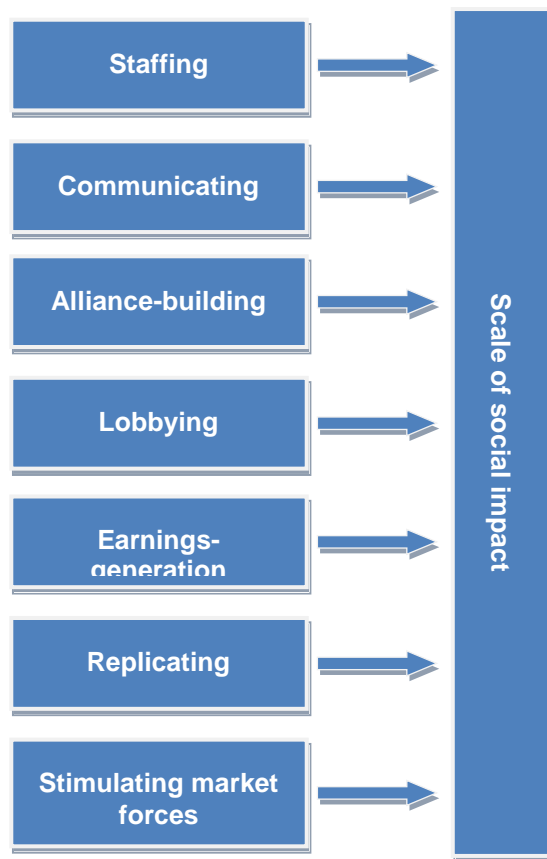


Figure 2.2: SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010)

Source: Bloom and Smith (2010:128).

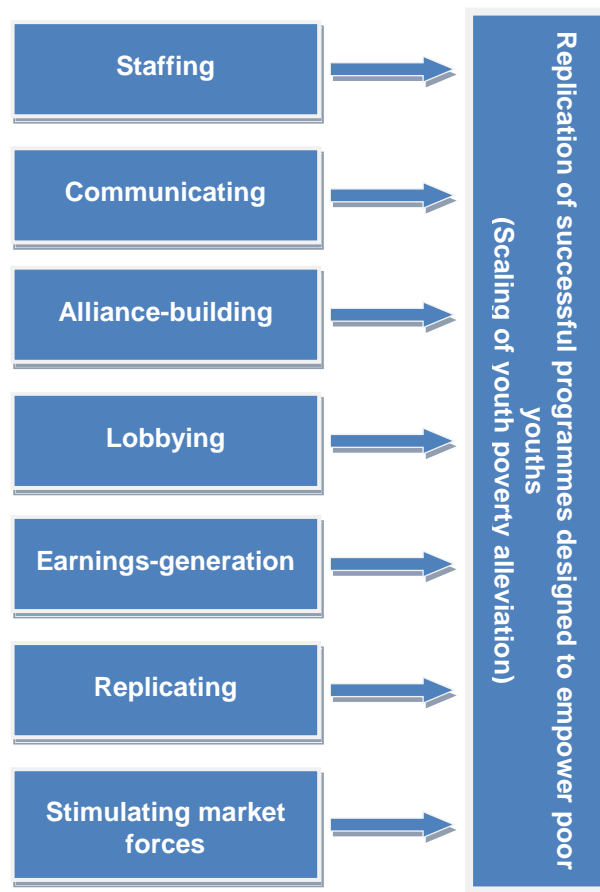


Figure 2.3: Adapted SCALERS model for the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Source: Bloom and Smith 2010 (adapted)

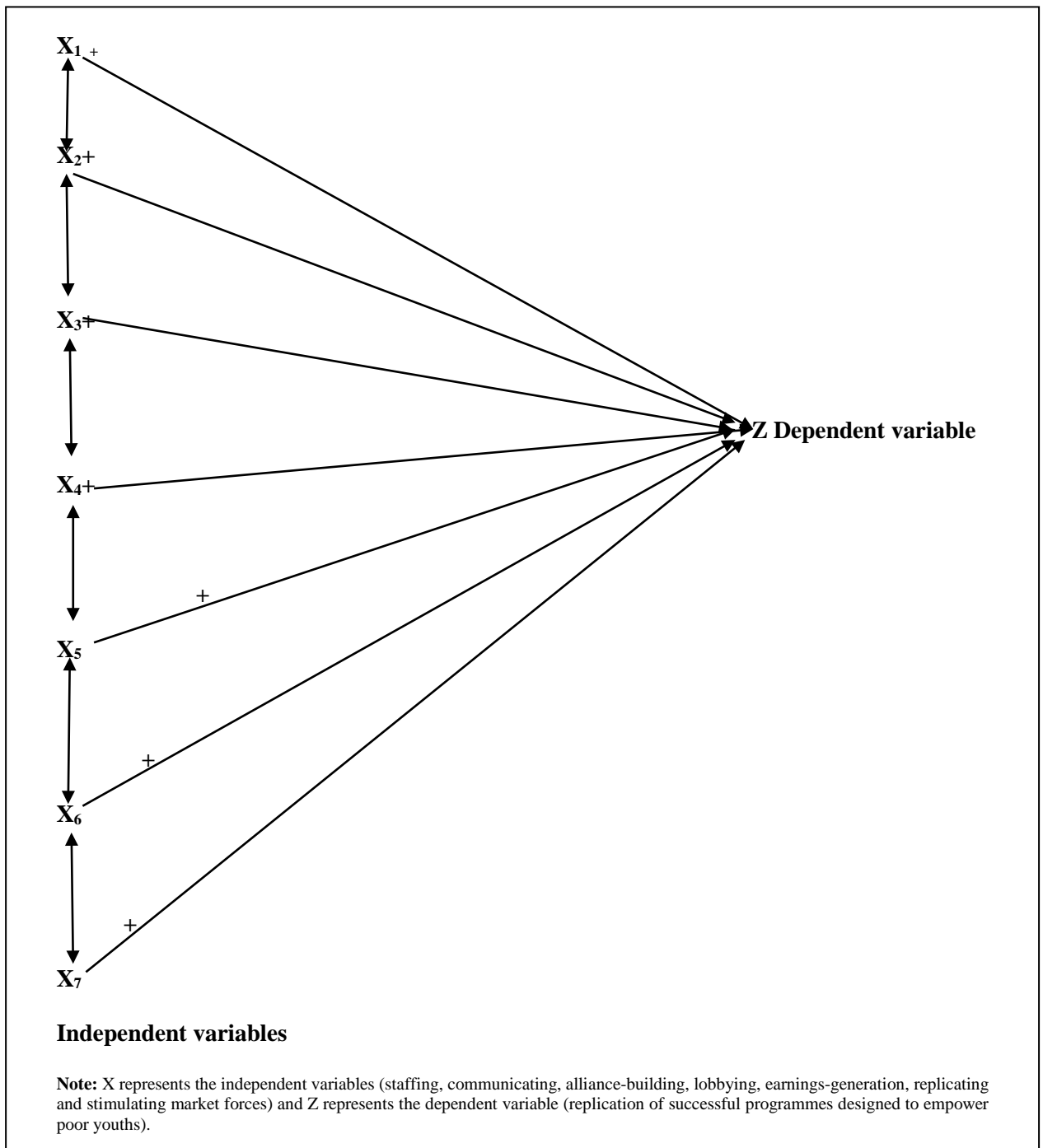


Figure 2.4: Seven independent variables influence a single dependent variable (diagram showing the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable)

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2013:89).

2.3 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a comprehensive discussion of the SCLAERS model which is the theoretical foundation for the study. An analysis of key variables in the SCALERS model was presented and discussed.

The next chapter will present the literature review for the study.

CHAPTER THREE:

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This study investigated the capabilities of Nigerian NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths by using the adapted SCALERS model as the theoretical framework for the study. The main aim of this literature review was to establish the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) as the theoretical foundation of this study. The aims with this literature review were to summarise, evaluate and show relationships between different existing studies using themes related to the investigated research problem with a view to provide discussions and explanations to further the understanding of the research problem and to locate its place in the body of established knowledge in NGO academic literature. The strategy of the literature review's involved linking related topics to integrate scholarly research and contributions to the topics being reviewed and the research problem with the aim of identifying central issues (research variables) in this study (Creswell, 2013:61).

The literature review was informed by the following themes, which are discussed and analysed:

- an overview of youth poverty with specific emphasis on the concept of youth poverty, youth poverty in Nigeria, factors that cause youth poverty in Nigeria and the consequences of youth poverty in Nigeria;
- understanding youth-serving NGOs with specific emphasis on:
 - the nature of NGOs;
 - the concept of youth-serving NGOs;
 - the importance of youth-serving NGOs in the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria;
 - identification of major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria;
 - the concept of youth poverty alleviation programmes;
 - the benefits of youth poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria; and
 - measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths;

- understanding organisational capabilities as contained in the SCALERS model with specific emphasis on:
 - the concept of organisational capabilities;
 - communication;
 - alliance-building;
 - lobbying government agencies for support;
 - earnings-generation;
 - replication and stimulating market forces as organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model;
 - the importance of staffing: key determinants of staffing, understanding staffing of NGOs, and measuring staffing;
- the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs; and
- the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present an overview of youth poverty.

3.2 AN OVERVIEW OF YOUTH POVERTY

Youth poverty has been investigated in several studies using diverse contexts in an attempt to improve the understanding of the subject. Extant literature covers a wide range of themed areas such as –

- the concept of youth poverty (Moore, 2005:4–7);
- measuring youth poverty (Curtain, 2003:18);
- prevalence of youth poverty (in both developed and developing societies) (Aassve, Iacovou & Mencarini, 2006:27–43; Ayllón, 2015:651–668; Oduwale, 2015:23–29; Surajo & Karim, 2016:4919);
- causes of youth poverty (Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa, 2012:269; Fahmy, 2006:4; Misra & Debertin, 2007:12–18);
- effect and/or consequences of youth poverty (Machell, Disabato & Kashdan, 2016:845).

In this section, the review will focus on four themes that were of significant relevance to the investigated research area and also within the scope of this study, namely:

- the concept of youth poverty;
- youth poverty in Nigeria;
- factors that cause youth poverty in Nigeria; and
- the consequences of youth poverty in Nigeria.

Although the literature presents these themes in a variety of contexts and in some cases in a broad manner, this section of the literature review will focus mainly on their application to gain an understanding of youth poverty in Nigeria and also on the investigation of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present the concept of youth poverty.

3.2.1 The concept of youth poverty

Youth poverty does not seem to have a generally accepted definition among youth scholars due to the non-agreement on the age brackets of who is considered a youth and the criteria for measuring youth poverty. Iacovou et al. (2007:14–17) use a standard measure of relative poverty (an aspect of poverty) to define youth poverty as youths between the ages of 16 and 29 years old living in a household where “after tax income, adjusted for household size, is less than 60% of median income in the country in which he or she lives”. In addition to the standard measure, Iacovou et al. (2007:xi) also consider youth poverty in terms of deprivation and the ability of the family unit to afford the basic necessities of life. Curtain (2003:18–19) uses income poverty and malnutrition as indicators to define youth poverty as –

- youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years living on less than \$1 dollar a day (“the narrower definition of extreme poverty based on the \$1 a day measure”[Curtain, 2003:18]);
- youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years living on less than \$2 dollar a day (“the broader definition of absolute poverty based on the \$2 a day measure” [Curtain, 2003:18]); or
- youths between the ages of 15 and 24 years experiencing malnutrition or hunger.

Youth poverty definitions and measuring indicators show the youth in situations of lack and insufficiency to meet everyday life necessities. Youths are said to be in poverty when they are hungry or malnourished(Curtain, 2003:19), deprived of the basic

necessities of life and having an income after tax that is less than 60% of the median income in his or her country of residence(Aassve, Iacovou & Mencarini, 2006:28).

Youth poverty is a very serious challenge due to its prevalence in many countries (both developing and developed), which has made youth poverty a global problem. According to Min-Harris (2010:159) and Banks (2016:438), youth experience serious poverty in the sub-Saharan African region. Min-Harris (2010:159) notes, “thirty-two of the forty-eight poorest countries are located in sub-Saharan Africa and are struggling with issues of conflicts, non-performing governments and diseases like HIV/AIDS”. Due to these challenges in sub-Saharan Africa, youths are constantly facing challenges of under-employment and unemployment (Banks, 2016:437) and limiting economic structure (Fox, Senbet & Simbanegavi, 2016:3, 13). In Europe, Aassve, Iacovou and Mencarini (2005:26–37), using the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) (“a standardized multi-purpose annual longitudinal survey carried out at the level of the European Union”[see Peracchi, 2002:63]) found that youth poverty is prevalent in Europe but its prevalent rates are higher in southern Europe, the United Kingdom and Ireland. Aassve et al. (2005:18–20) further state that in the Scandinavian youths experience poverty in their early twenties as they become independent and leave their parents. Furthermore, Ayllón (2015:651) notes that in Europe, youth poverty genuine state dependence effect does not last long in Scandinavian countries when compared to continental or Southern Europe. In America, Biddle (2014:19–38) found that youth poverty is a major challenge and a growing problem, which cuts across every race (blacks, whites, Hispanics and other races). Schaffner, Buhr, Lewis, Roc and Volpintesta (2016:1–2) affirm that youths between the ages of 13 and 24 in Southside, Westside and Northside of Chicago are unable to meet their basic needs and resort to prostitution to get money for their needs. It can be argued using the evidence from Africa, Europe and America, that youth poverty is indeed a global issue and that its prevalence is not restricted to any single continent or nation. This view is supported by Curtain (2003:4) who observed that youth poverty exists in low-, lower middle-, upper middle- and high-income countries. Youth poverty is a global problem and not limited to a particular country or race. Having identified the endemic nature of youth poverty in several countries, understanding the efforts of international organisations in fighting the scourge becomes imperative.

As a global problem, international organisations are investigating the prevalence of youth poverty and are also taking steps to alleviate the growing trend. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2015:2) remarks, “working poverty” is a serious challenge affecting youths in low-income countries due to a lack of social protection, scarcity of work and the absence of formal employment. ILO (2015:47) further notes that in 2013, 169 million youths worldwide were victims of working poverty. The ILO (2015:47) further affirms that in 2013, youths between the ages of 15 and 24 and constituting 37.8% of employed youths were poor, with 20.1% living in moderate poverty (\$2 a day per person) (Ackland, Dowrick & Freyens, 2013:819) and 17.7% living in extreme poverty (\$1 a day per person) (Ackland et al., 2013:819). In terms of literacy, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (2011:1, 132–133) mentions that gender inequality still affects the progress of the education for the girl child, and a significant number of youths in developing countries still lack basic literacy skills. In order to reduce the harmful effects of youth poverty on disadvantaged youths, international organisations such as the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) have come up with a youth development strategy to empower youths and provide a sustainable future for them (UNDP, 2014:2–4). According to UNDP (2014:2), the development programme seeks to empower the youth economically, make the youth more socially responsible with increased participation in decision-making and political processes and institutions, and improve youth engagement in becoming resilient. Other international organisations tackling youth poverty using various efforts, such as training and the utilisation of other strategies are the United Nations (UN) and the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) (FAO, ILO & UNESCO, 2009: 6).

Youth poverty thus remains a global challenge, and international organisations are currently researching the problem and providing strategies to reduce the scourge in both developed and developing countries. Having established efforts by international organisations in investigating youth poverty as a global problem and taking steps to alleviate youth poverty, identifying the factors that cause youth poverty becomes necessary.

There are several factors associated with youth poverty. Iacovou et al. (2007: xii) observed that in Europe, “living away from the parental home, living alone, having children and not having a job” were key factors associated with youth poverty. Iacovou

et al. (2007: xii) also mention that the aforementioned factors were associated with youth poverty in all countries in Europe with the exception of Ireland and the Southern European countries. Furthermore, Moore (2005:2) says that life events, such as leaving school and having children, could cause poverty among the youths in addition to intergenerational causes such as parental poverty and childhood poverty. In sub-Saharan Africa, Min-Harris (2010:160, 172) identified the causes of youth poverty to include underemployment and unemployment, environmental factors (unproductive fields for agriculture, weather changes), lack of storage facilities (for agricultural produce), lack of adequate social services (education and health care), high fertility rates and deadly diseases (HIV/AIDS). It can be argued that factors that cause youth poverty, such as unemployment or lack of income, lead youths to a life of financial hardship. This view is supported by France (2008: 495–505) who observed that youths experience poverty due to low and unstable income in addition to becoming independent of family support.

Youth poverty has several effects on society as it affects the individual, host communities and the country in general. Machell et al. (2016:845) affirm that youth poverty increases affected youths' antisocial behaviours. Melrose (2012:1) adds that youth poverty increases the chances of the youth participating in the shadow economy (illicit economic activity) (Schneider & Enste, 2013:1–6). Another effect of youth poverty is mental illness (Tilleczek, Ferguson, Campbell & Lezeu, 2014:63–76). Fry, Langley and Shelton (2016:1) note that in a comparison between youths (15–24) who have experienced poverty, homelessness or foster care and non-disadvantaged youths, the disadvantaged youths had their cognitive performance damaged. In addition and in relation to mental illness, Barling and Weatherhead (2016:1305) observe that severe poverty in childhood reduces the leadership abilities of the individual. This could be attributed to an inability of the individual to acquire quality education and a focus on a clear personal vision. It can be argued that the effects of youth poverty are not only destructive to the poor youths themselves but also tend to affect the countries producing these poor youths negatively. Surajo and Karim (2016:4924) note that youth poverty affects the social, political and economic structures of the country while also affecting the youth negatively.

Controlling and reducing youth poverty involve a multi-approach by various key stakeholders (Okojie, 2005:4–8; Olaleye, 2010:105). De Lannoy, Lake and Mann (2015:2) point out that focusing on structural interventions, such as the provision of social grants, reduction of school dropout rates via provision of quality teaching and learning environments and provision of employment for the youth will enable the youth to be financially independent and stable. This shows that the provision of an enabling environment and an opportunity to generate income will go a long way in assisting youths to overcome poverty. In creating an enabling environment, which promotes prosperity for the youth, government as a key stakeholder plays a major role, and Fayemi (2012:131) asserts youth empowerment policy is critical in alleviating youth poverty and government should encourage youth participation in the formulation and implementation of policies targeting the reduction of youth poverty. Other key stakeholders playing key roles in the reduction of youth poverty are civil society groups like NGOs (Olaleye, 2010:105) and international organisations like UNESCO (Power & Maclean, 2011:2–7, 13, 18) who complement the efforts of government by intervening in critical areas where youths require urgent intervention and support. The youth also have a key role to play as Nejati, Pourezzat and Gholipour (2012:414) opine that youths as key stakeholders (beneficiaries) play an important role in alleviating poverty by participating in development programmes. Furthermore, Kang’ethe (2014:1) advocates for the acknowledgment of the youth as a key part of the development by all the stakeholders focusing on youth empowerment and development. It can be argued that controlling youth poverty requires personal efforts from the youth to live positively and make the best out of a bad situation in addition to other stakeholders like government, international organisations and NGOs making great efforts to provide the necessary environment and assistance to reduce the incidence of youth poverty.

The next section will present a discussion of youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.2 Youth poverty in Nigeria

Nigeria is one of Africa’s biggest developing countries with a growing youth population. According to the United Nations Data (2017: Section 1), Nigeria is a West African country with a population of 186 988 000. The youth forms a significant portion of the population of Nigeria in terms of the age structure as shown in the breakdown of the Nigerian population based on age structure(CIA, 2017: Section

3):The youth forms a significant portion of the population of Nigeria accounting for 19.48% of the total Nigerian population (CIA, 2017: Section 3), namely:

- 0 and 14 years (42.79%) (male=40 744 956 and female=38 870 303);and
- 15 and 24 years (19.48%) (male=18 514 466 and female=17 729 351);
- 25 and 54 years (30.65%) (male=29 259 621 and female=27 768 368);
- 55–54 years (3.96%) (male=3 595 293 and female=3 769 986); and
- 65 years and above (3.12) (male=2 754 040 and female=3 047 002).

Furthermore, the median age in Nigeria is 18.3 years with the male age at 18.2 years and female age at 18.4 years (CIA, 2017: Section 3). According to the CIA (2017: Section 3), Nigeria has a dependency ratio of 87.7%, which comprises a youth dependency ratio of 82% and an elderly dependency ration of 5.1% with an estimated potential support ratio of 19.5%. It is important to state that Nigeria accounts for 47% of the total Africa population (The World Bank, 2017: Overview section, paragraph 1), and Nigeria’s youth population is referred to as one of the largest in the world (The World Bank, 2017: Overview section, paragraph 1). Although there is scant statistical evidence of youth poverty in Nigeria, Nigeria is one of the African countries experiencing the problem of severe youth poverty.

Youth poverty is on the rise in Nigeria despite available evidence of the scourge and the intervention by several stakeholders. There are several available points of evidence of youth poverty in Nigeria but the most distinctive are –

- the historical perspective (Emmanuel et al., 2009:224–226; Oluwatomiwo & Adetola, 2016:14);
- the nature of youth poverty in Nigeria (Adedokun & Oluwagbohunmi, 2014: 154–161; Aiyedogbon & Ohwofasa, 2012:269; Eguavoen, 2010: 268–273);
- characteristics of youths experiencing poverty in Nigeria (Arubayi, 2010:Paragraph 14–15); and
- policies and laws protecting the youth from poverty in Nigeria (Abdullahi, Abdullahi & Mohammed, 2013:174–179; Odeh & Okoye, 2014:98–99), which provide an in-depth understanding of the problem of youth poverty in Nigeria and a unique opportunity for key stakeholders to alleviate the scourge and provide better living conditions for the youth.

However, a worrying trend that damages the issue of youth poverty in Nigeria is the lack of progressive influence of key stakeholders' intervention in lowering the prevalent rate of youth poverty in Nigeria (Oyeranti & Olayiwola, 2005:1–2, 41–42; Sodeinde, Ajaegbu & Ajaegbu, 2015:794–795) and the growing negative consequences associated with youth poverty in Nigeria (Nwagwu, 2014:27–28). It is argued in this dissertation that, although evidence and information of youth poverty are readily available for key stakeholders to alleviate the situation and prevent future occurrences in Nigeria, the increased prevalence of youth poverty is still a great concern for Nigeria as the country struggles with the negative consequences associated with youth poverty. In the paragraph below, the aforementioned evidence of youth poverty in Nigeria is further analysed and discussed.

Youth poverty has been a serious challenge in Nigeria since the late 1970s and the early 1980s (Adisa, 2013:226; Arogundade, 2011:26). According to Aidelunuoghene (2013:61), poverty and unemployment were issues rarely experienced in Nigeria before the 1980s. This situation changed as Nigeria experienced a period of political instability, incoherent socio-economic policies and economy collapse that brought about significant job losses from all the sectors of the economy in the mid-1980s, which lead to the problem of youth and graduate unemployment (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61; Arogundade, 2011:26). Aiyedogbon and Ohwofasa (2012:274) reveals that the prevalence of poverty in Nigeria increased from 44% in the period 1987–1991 to 60% in the period 2007–2011. Furthermore, Adisa (2013:226) noted that youths in Nigeria began experiencing economic hardship in the late 1970s and 1980s since the military coup in Nigeria and up until 1999 when the military relinquished power to a democratically elected government in Nigeria. Adisa (2013:226) also opines that, despite the transition from military rule to democratic governance, the problem of youth poverty remains unabated. It can be argued that youth poverty in Nigeria started after Nigeria had gained independence due to poor economic policies and poor leadership, and this has remained a growing trend in Nigeria. This view is supported by Onuoha (2010:115) who observes that Nigeria has experienced a weak economy over the years and the unemployment scourge, which is a major contributor of youth poverty, has been on the increase since 1980 (Adisa, 2013:226).

The main characteristic of youth poverty in Nigeria is the inability of poor youths to meet their basic needs (Ajani et al., 2015:34–35). Curtain (2003:7) noted that in 2002 in Nigeria, 17 358 292 out of 24 726 912 youths between the ages of 15 and 24 lived below the poverty line of \$1 per day. Using income poverty (Curtain, 2003:7) as one of the distinguishing features of identifying poor youths in Nigeria, evidence from Ajaegbu (2012:315), Oduwale (2015:27–29) and Onah and Okwuosa (2016:52–55) shows that youths in Nigeria encounter unemployment and underemployment challenges, which hamper their chances of generating even a modest income for survival. Akpan et al. (2016:162, 168), using a study which investigated the level of income inequality and determinants of poverty incidence among youth farmers in Akwa Ibom State (Nigeria), reveal that there is a high incidence of poverty and income inequality among young male and female farmers in Akwa Ibom State (Nigeria). Akpan et al. (2016:171) further emphasise that household size and dependency ration were key drivers of poverty among young rural farmers. This means that the more the responsibilities of the young farmers, the more the likelihood of the young farmer experiencing poverty. In emphasising the importance of income in changing the economic status of youths experiencing poverty in Nigeria, Ilemona et al. (2013:1), reveal that 65% of their research respondents ascribed the incidence of increased youth poverty in Nigeria to a lack of entrepreneurial skills, while 60% of the respondents who benefited from the entrepreneurship skills acquisition programmes, could afterwards meet their basic welfare needs. Other dimensions of poverty experienced by youths in Nigeria take the form of food poverty, illiteracy, inadequate basic amenities such as health care, poor governance and insecurity, among others (Ajani et al., 2015:34; Eneh, 2007:1; Olowa, 2012:26–29). It can be argued that the nature of youth poverty in Nigeria is reflected in the inability of youths to meet their basic needs because of limiting constraints being faced in society.

Youths experiencing poverty in Nigeria have several demographic characteristics. The most notable demographic characteristics of these youths are for instance age, gender and educational qualifications. In considering the age definition for youths in Nigeria, Fortune, Ismail and Stephen (2014:7) noted that the age definition of youths in Nigeria refers to those between the ages of 18 and 35 years (based on the second National Policy Document of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 2009[Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2009:6]) while the age definition for youths in West Africa, of which Nigeria is a

member country, is 15–40 years. It also important to add that youth scholars focusing on youth issues in Nigeria utilise the definition of youths based on the United Nations age definition of youths, which is between 15–24 years (Curtain, 2003:2). Although youth age definitions vary among youth scholars, this study considered all the various age definitions as they apply to Nigeria specifically and the world generally. Furthermore, evidence by Oduwale (2015:27) shows that youths in the aforementioned age groups experience poverty in Nigeria. Focusing on gender, evidence by Oduwale (2015:27) and Surajo and Karim (2016:4921) shows that poverty experienced by youths is not restricted to a particular gender as both male and female youths are victims of poverty in Nigeria. Also, Abdussalam (2015:36), investigating the effect of youth empowerment scheme on poverty alleviation in Nigeria noted that 58.8% of the respondents were male while 41.2% of the respondents were female, which indicated that both male and female youths were both affected by the scourge of youth poverty in Nigeria. With respect to the educational status of youths experiencing poverty in Nigeria, evidence by Edewor (2014:540) and Oduwale (2015:29) shows that youths of diverse educational standings are victims of poverty and other forms of deprivation in Nigeria. Akpama, Esang, Asor and Osang (2011:154) observe that when poor youths without formal education are given non-formal education, such as vocational skills education, they are able to overcome poverty by engaging in meaningful ventures. Youths of various demographic characteristics in Nigeria have been victims of poverty in Nigeria. It can be argued in this study that there is ample evidence that youths both male and female, with or without education, between the ages stipulated by the United Nations, Nigeria and West Africa are victims of the prevalent youth poverty crisis in Nigeria. Youth poverty is a serious challenge that can affect any youth regardless of his or her demographic characteristics.

Stakeholders' reactions in controlling youth poverty in Nigeria have been inadequate in the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria (Ugoh & Ukpere, 2009:847). Oyesanmi, Eboiyehi and Adereti (2006:4) noted that government and donor agencies have played contributory roles in the alleviation of poverty in Nigeria. Specifically, programmes of the government that have youth poverty alleviation as one of their mandates are:

- the Directorate of Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFFRI);
- the National Directorate of Employment (NDE);
- the Nomadic and Adult Education Programmes (NAEP); and

- the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP), which is made up of schemes, namely –
 - the Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES);
 - the Social Welfare Services Scheme (SOWESS);
 - the Natural Resource and Conservation Scheme (NRDCS); and
 - the Rural Infrastructures and Development Scheme (RIDS) which were all created by year 2000 (Oyesanmi et al., 2006:4–7; Taiwo & Agwu, 2016:22–23).

More recently, Sodeinde et al. (2015:794–795) affirm that poverty alleviation programmes such as:

- the National Economic and Development Strategy (NEEDS);
- the Subsidy Reinvestment Programme (SURE-P); and
- the Economic Transformation Agenda (ETA) have been designed in line with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to benefit beneficiaries, among which the youth.

It is important to state that despite so many programmes designed and implemented by government and its partners, youth poverty is still prevalent in Nigeria (Sodeinde et al., 2015:795). Another group of key stakeholders making contributions to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria are the civil society groups known as NGOs. Ohize and Adamu (2009:48) affirm that NGOs have been making significant contributions towards alleviating youth poverty in Nigeria. Ayodeji, Salau and Adeniyi (2014:226) further noted that NGOs, among other stakeholders, are known to fund employment programmes designed to provide employment and employable skills to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. Furthermore, Aliero and Ibrahim (2013:26) noted that there is an increased drive of ensuring that NGOs play an active role in policy dialogue and policy development matters concerning the youth in an attempt to ensure that the interest of the youth is protected in governance. Other stakeholders include international organisations such as the World Bank and the United Nations (UN), local communities, local businesses among other key stakeholders involved in the local economic development of Nigeria (Ayodeji et al., 2014:226; Sam, 2014:18). Despite these efforts, youth poverty is still on the rise in Nigeria and there are more calls for multi-stakeholder interventions to ease the suffering of the youth (Imhonopi, Urim, Waribo,

Kasumu & Igbadumhe, 2016:1). It can be argued that stakeholders, such as government and NGOs, have made attempts to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria with very limited success as the problem of youth poverty in Nigeria still persists.

There are several policies and laws enacted to protect the youth from poverty in Nigeria. Some of these policies are:

- the African Youth Charter (African Union[AU], 2006:1; Efem, 2007:3–8);
- the Common Wealth Youth Charter (Ansell, 2016:201, 231);
- the ECOWAS Youth Policy (Economic Community of West African States [ECOWAS], 2016: Paragraph 1–7; Izzi, 2013:103–117);
- The Nigerian National Youth Policy; and
- the United Nations World Programme of Action for youths among others.

These policies show that issues concerning the youth are of high priority to individual nations, regional governments and international organisations. However, Abdullahi et al. (2013:179–180) observed that a lack of commitment to youth policies in Nigeria has affected the objectives of the policies in protecting the Nigerian youth from poverty. Odeh and Okoye (2014:100) noted that the Nigerian poverty reduction policies for the youth have been unable to achieve its goal based on the indices of employment creation, skill acquisition and access to capital due to challenges such as policy inconsistency and poor governance, a lack of collaboration with key stakeholder in various aspects of creating and implementing the policies, inadequate human capital and funding of programmes. Odeh and Okoye (2014:101) further state that there is a need for the youth to be part of the policy formulation and implementation process to alleviate poverty in Nigeria. It can be argued that the several policies and laws protecting the youth from poverty in Nigeria have not been effective due to the high rate of youth poverty in Nigeria. This view is supported by Fashoyin (2012:4) who affirms that youth poverty reduction policies have not been able to stop the scourge of youth unemployment and poverty in Nigeria. Youths in Nigeria are unable to overcome severe economic hardships due to the ineffectiveness of the policies aimed at reducing youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present factors that cause youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.3 Factors that cause youth poverty in Nigeria

Several factors have been identified that cause youth poverty in Nigeria. Some of these factors are:

- a poor educational system (Odia & Omofonmwan, 2007:81; Ojeifo, 2013:61);
- ill health and disease (Hilhorst, Van Liere, Ode & De Koning, 2006:384);
- gender inequality (Njoku & Nwachukwu, 2015:579);
- and youth unemployment (Olotu, Salami & Akeremale, 2015:1–3).

In expanding the discussion on the factors that cause youth poverty in Nigeria, the above named factors are further discussed in detail for more insights.

The next section will present a discussion of poor educational system as a factor that causes youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.3.1 *Poor educational system*

The poor and inadequate educational system is a major cause of youth poverty in Nigeria. Yusuff and Soyemi (2012:71) observed that Nigeria has focused her attention on general education while giving little attention to vocational education, which has resulted in a substantial number of educated individuals not being gainfully employed. Furthermore, Ogundele et al. (2013:46) noted that the Nigerian educational system is theory-based with no technological and cultural orientation, which has caused poverty, unemployment and insecurity for Nigerian youths. Kayode and Adeyemi (2016:266–267) noted that technical and vocational education is not well managed in Nigeria and several factors impede the effectiveness of technical and vocational education for youth employment and poverty alleviation in Nigeria, such as inadequate teaching and learning facilities, poor re-training programmes for the teaching personnel, and the attitude of the public towards technical and vocational education in Nigeria. It can be argued that the education system that Nigerian youths access, does not prepare them for the challenges of life outside the school system. According to Akor, Agashi, Ekuje, Akoh and Ebenehi (2016:155), there is a huge demand for youths with technical and vocational skills due to work skills that are in demand. The poor and inadequate educational system in Nigeria makes the Nigerian youth to have poor technical and educational skills, which prevent the youth from getting gainful employment or becoming self-reliant, which eventually causes youth poverty.

The next section will present a discussion of ill health and disease as a factor that causes youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.3.2 *Ill health and disease*

Youths with poor health in Nigeria have a high chance of experiencing poverty. Sangowawa and Owoaje (2011:106) affirm that HIV/AIDS is one of the serious health challenges affecting youths and their families in Nigeria. Sangowawa and Owoaje (2011:106) further observe that HIV/AIDS account for the increase of health care expenses of youths and loss of employment. Furthermore, the National Agency for the Control of AIDS (NACA) (2014:17) noted that HIV/AIDS is a serious health treat affecting youths in Nigeria. In addition, in a study carried out by Onyeke (2015:49–55) on the effects of HIV/AIDS on the livelihood of rural farmers in Enugu State (Nigeria) (a state in the south-eastern region of Nigeria) with the majority of the respondents aged between 16 and 38 years old, it was found that HIV/AIDS negatively affects assets, which include farm size, family labour, hired labour and income of the patient. Similarly, a previous study carried out by Iya et al. (2012:245, 248) on the effects of HIV/AIDS on production and income among rural households in Adamawa state of Nigeria (a state in the north-eastern region of Nigeria), where the productive age of workers is within the age range 15–49, also found that HIV/AIDS negatively affects household productivity, income, savings and capital formation. The reason for the negative effect of HIV/AIDS on household income is based on loss of income, medical and funeral expenses (Iya et al., 2012:248–249). It can be argued that diseases such as HIV/AIDS are a very serious threat to livelihoods. This view is supported by Mphande (2016: 55–75) who affirms that infectious diseases affect livelihoods. Ill health and diseases such as HIV/AIDS affect young people negatively by reducing their production levels and increasing their health expenses incurred from treatment while also thwarting chances of employment and subjecting them to poverty.

The next section will present a discussion of gender inequality as a factor that causes youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.3.3 *Gender inequality*

Gender inequality and gender discrimination affect the female youths in Nigeria and render them economically disadvantaged and poor in Nigeria. Alao (2015:19) affirms that the gender role that mandates women to take care of the home and youths (minors)

in the rural areas in Nigeria and to assist in domestic work and informal trade due to cultural demands has made young women and youths (minors) victims of poverty. Makama (2013:115) further observed that in Nigeria, women are viewed as second-class citizens and they are constantly relegated to the kitchen and denied access to education. Makama (2013:115) also states that women in Nigeria are subjected to derogatory situations, such as being prostitutes, domestic workers and child brides among other limiting conditions and situations. Furthermore, certain challenges are more likely to affect the girl child in Nigeria and limit their access to education and other economic opportunities. Some of these challenges are:

- family abuse and domestic violence (Chika, 2012:137–148);
- rejection and neglect (Nnadi, 2013:134);
- sexual abuse (Ogunfowokan & Fajemilehin, 2015: Paragraph10–11);
- genital mutilation (Ibekwe, Onoh, Onyebuchi, Ezeonu & Ibekwe, 2012:117); and
- other prevailing girl child challenges in Nigeria (Alabi, Bahah & Alabi, 2014:393).

It can be argued that gender inequality affects the girl child negatively and increases her chances of becoming poor, especially in a developing society like Nigeria. Kolawole and Adeigbe (2016:7071) affirm that female discrimination is a serious issue in Nigeria due to male dominance in Nigeria and this has resulted in women being dependent on men and becoming more at risk of being poor. The girl child in Nigeria faces unequal opportunities to succeed compared to the boy child, while being exposed to many limiting challenges, such as sexual abuse and having the greatest risk of poverty.

The next section will present a discussion of youth unemployment as a factor that causes youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.3.4 Youth unemployment

Youth unemployment is a critical factor that leads to poverty among the youth in Nigeria. The NBS (2017: Key indicators section) states that Nigeria has an overall unemployment rate of 13.9%, underemployment of 19.7% and youth unemployment and/or underemployment of 45.65%. Aiyedogbon and Ohwofasa (2012:269) affirm that poor employment opportunities for the youth in Nigeria have resulted in an increase in severe poverty for the youth in Nigeria. Aiyedogbon and Ohwofasa (2012:269–270)

further state that the poor employment situation in Nigeria usually takes the form of a lack of employment opportunities for the growing number of youths and underemployment for certain youths, which affect the productivity of the youth and their economic status negatively. In addition, Uddin and Uddin (2013:398–399) identified the causes of youth unemployment in Nigeria to include corruption, poor educational standards, rapid population growth and the lack of a sustainable power supply. Uddin and Uddin (2013:399–400) further affirm that youth unemployment results in a decline in the living standards of individuals, among other negative consequences associated with youth unemployment in Nigeria. It can be argued that youth unemployment is still a very serious challenge in Nigeria and has made many youths in Nigeria to engage in various illegal activities to generate income for their survival and to fight poverty. Onah and Okwuosa (2016:55–56) agree that a significant number of youths in Nigeria are currently unemployed or underemployed and have taken to crime to meet their needs and show their frustrations for being abandoned by society. Youth unemployment and underemployment are difficult situations caused by prevailing limiting factors, such as corruption, that affect the economic security of the youth in Nigeria and make them experience hardship and poverty.

The next section will present the consequences of youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.4 The consequences of youth poverty in Nigeria

Previous studies have identified many consequences that can be attributed to youth poverty in Nigeria. Some of these consequences are:

- crime (Ajaegbu, 2012:315; Ayegba, 2015:91; Olaleye, 2013:54; Onuoha, 2014:1–2);
- youth homelessness (Edewor, 2014:537–538; Kehinde, 2014:237);
- psychological negative effects and ailments (mental illness) (Ajufo, 2013:307; Akwara, Akwara, Enwuchola, Adekunle & Udaw, 2013:2; Omoniyi, 2016:85); and
- illegal migration (Okafor, 2012:74).

Youth poverty is a serious challenge in Nigeria with the youth experiencing serious hardships and exploitation from criminals. In expanding the discussion on the consequences of youth poverty in Nigeria as it applies to the young people in Nigeria, the above-mentioned consequences are further discussed in detail for better insight.

The next section will present crime as a consequence of youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.4.1 *Crime*

Youth poverty contributes to increasing levels of crime in Nigeria. Uyang et al. (2016:81–82) observe that poverty and youth unemployment are correlated with youth participation in criminal activities in Nigeria. This is supported by Hansen (2016: Paragraph 26) who remarks that economic and socially deprived youths are easy targets for extremist groups, like Boko Haram (a terrorist group in Nigeria) (Agbiboa, 2013:148; Onuoha, 2012:2) who radicalise them to commit heinous crimes. Furthermore, Adebayo (2013:351) opines, “the poor are led to crime because of their relative deprivation and acute sense of want”. Adebayo (2013:351) further notes that incidences of low self-esteem, deprivation, frustration and acute want are felt by the unemployed in Nigeria, which eventually results in crime. Youth crimes prevalent in Nigeria include youth restiveness (Adebayo & Adegboyega, 2016:105–106; Chukuezi, 2009:97; Chukwuemeka & Aghara, 2010:400), cyber-crimes (Jegade et al., 2016:159–161), murder, armed robbery and kidnapping (Ajaegbu, 2012:315). It can be argued that youths struggling to survive in limiting and harsh economic conditions become very desperate and are easily lured into a life of crime to survive and achieve basic humane living conditions. This view is upheld by Namadi and Haruna (2016:47) who affirm that youth crime and delinquent behaviours in Nigeria are fuelled by the prevalence and increase in poverty, unemployment and corruption in Nigeria. These show that an increase in youth poverty in Nigeria leads to increased criminal activities perpetuated by the young people in Nigeria.

The next section will present youth homelessness as a consequence of youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.4.2 *Youth homelessness*

A major factor influencing the rise of homelessness among youths in Nigeria is youth poverty. Kehinde (2014:237) observes that children and youths living in the streets is a consequence of poverty and they are also the sufferers of an unjust social economic and political system. In addition, Hansen (2016: Paragraph 1–5) affirms that in Northern Nigeria, street (homeless) children and youths who beg for alms are a menace popularly referred to as ‘almajirai’ (youth and children beggars) (Aghedo & Eke, 2013:97). Hansen (2016: Paragraph 1–5) further observes that the majority of the street youths

and children who are homeless and begging for alms in Northern Nigeria have no means of support and experience serious hardship. The inability of the youth to afford decent shelter and meet the basic living demands required for comfortable living conditions has made the youth vulnerable to various conditions of homelessness. According to Embleton, Lee, Gunn, Ayuku and Braitstein (2016:435), poverty is a critical factor that causes the children and youths of developed and developing countries to find themselves on the streets rendered homeless.

The next section will present psychological ailments (mental illness) as a consequence of youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.4.3 *Psychological ailments (mental illness)*

Poverty and economic deprivation experienced by youths in Nigeria affect their mental wellbeing. Cortina et al. (2012: 276, 278) affirm that mental health problems are common among children and adolescents in sub-Saharan African countries, like Nigeria, and that those children in areas of deprivation are highly susceptible to mental illness. Similarly, Famakinwa et al. (2016:59, 61), in a study of psychosocial challenges of public secondary school students in a semi-urban area of Southwest Nigeria, found that poverty was among the major factors identified as among the causes of the psychological health problems of the respondents. In addition, some of the psychological health problems identified were bullying, anger, thoughts of committing suicide (Famakinwa et al., 2016:61), among other psychological health challenges. Deprived youths encounter challenges that affect their confidence and self-worth and often lead to unhealthy behaviour that makes other privileged individuals to exploit youths in needy situations or make the deprived youths to have self-destructive tendencies. According to Elegbeleye (2013:170), children who have experienced negative and limiting conditions, such as economic deprivation, are more prone to mental illness, which affects their mental development and adult life. Youths in Nigeria are constantly experiencing various forms of psychological ailments, and poverty is a major contributing factor.

The next section will present illegal migration as a consequence of youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.2.4.4 *Illegal migration*

Illegal migration of youths is a serious consequence of youths experiencing poverty in Nigeria. Ikuteyijo (2012:1) affirms that youths between the ages of 18 and 35 are drawn to illegal migration mainly based on economic reasons. Furthermore, Ikuteyijo (2012:1) remarks that corruption, poverty and a lack of meaningful employment opportunities are among the critical factors forcing Nigerian youths to seek better opportunities abroad. Similarly, Okafor (2012:72) affirms that there is increasing desperation among young Nigerians to leave Nigeria for other performing economies in search of better living conditions due to difficult economic conditions prevailing in Nigeria since 1981. Okafor (2012:72) also notes that the mass migration of youths from Nigeria will have a negative effect on the Nigerian society with regard to the missed opportunities of the Nigerian youth to contribute to national development. Illegal youth migration is characterised by youths embarking on exploitative journeys such as human trafficking (Emanemua, 2016:255) and leaving the country without proper travelling documents such as visas for the target countries (Fargues, 2016:1–4) in an attempt to experience better living conditions and better employment opportunities. The main target destinations include Western countries in Europe (Nwalutu, 2016: ii–iii) and other countries with thriving economies. Illegal migration is a big challenge in Nigeria as it put the lives of the Nigerian youths at risks in the hand of traffickers and smugglers while embarking on a dangerous journey in search of better living conditions abroad.

The next section will present a discussion of understanding youth-serving NGOs.

3.3 UNDERSTANDING YOUTH-SERVING NGOS

Youth-serving NGOs have played a critical role in the fight against youth poverty in Nigeria (Ajowun, Titiloye & Oshiname, 2015:163) and the general welfare of young people (WHO, 1994: i, 1–39). Youth-serving NGOs have focused solely on young people as the main beneficiaries of their intervention programmes (Collin, 2015:19; Onugu & Onuoha, 2015:11).

In order to expand the understanding of youth-serving NGOs as these applied to the present study, the following themes are discussed:

- the nature of NGOs;
- the concept of youth-serving NGOs;

- the importance of youth-serving NGOs in the fight against youth poverty in Nigeria;
- identification of major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria;
- the concept of youth poverty alleviation programmes;
- the benefits of youth poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria; and
- measuring the replication progress of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths managed by youth-serving NGOs.

Although the literature presents these themes in a variety of contexts, and in some cases, in a broad manner, this section of the literature review focuses mainly on the application of the identified characteristics and activities of NGOs in the understanding of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria and also in terms of the investigation of the capabilities of Nigerian NGOs to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes.

The next section will present a discussion of the nature of NGOs.

3.3.1 The nature of non-governmental organisations (NGOs)

NGOs are among the social sector organisations operating as non-profit organisations (NPOs). NGOs are “non-governmental, non profit making and self-governing, set out to ameliorate the plight of the people in dire need of life sustaining facilities in the society” (Omofonmwan & Odia, 2009:247). Bromideh (2011:197) notes that NGOs are a key part of civil society organisations (CSOs) (Clayton, Oakley & Taylor, 2000:1–23) and are independent organisations not controlled by the government. Furthermore, Claiborne (2011:89) affirms that there are NPOs with varied organisational sizes and scopes operating independently of government control and focusing on humanitarian activities devoid of business-related interests. The aforementioned distinctive features differentiate NGOs from other organisations in the private and public sectors as organisations that positively influence development and global issues with not-for-profit (NFP) interest.

NGOs are associated with development, change and global issues. Lewis and Kanji (2009:1) note that NGOs are key stakeholders in international development making positive contributions through services to deprived persons and campaign advocacy. Omofonwan and Odia (2009:250) affirm that in Nigeria, NGOs have played a major

role in community development in Edo State (a state in South-South Nigeria). Furthermore, as change agents, NGOs have featured increasingly in change debates such as providing inputs on climate change issues (Gough & Shackley, 2001:329; Jones, Harvey & Godfrey-Wood, 2016:2). NGOs have also been important partners on global issues such as global health, e.g. HIV/AIDS (Seckinelgin, 2005:351) and poverty (Morgan, 2016:175–182). In the aforementioned roles, NGOs have contributed as partners with other organisations while also being the necessary catalysts as change agents to drive the needed change that is beneficial to society.

According to their activities and based on the method of registration, Kamat (2004:174) and Willetts (2002:9–10) noted that NGOs may be classified as campaign- or operational-based organisations. According to Uzuegbunam (2013:209), operational-based NGOs are those NGOs whose main focus is on projects and development programmes, while the focus of campaign-based NGOs is on campaigns for defined causes or issues. Furthermore, Wahab, Issa, Baba, Kudingi, Adamu and Ibegbulem (2011:91) note that the World Bank classifies operational NGOs in three categories, namely:

- community-based organisations (which focus on the need of a specific population within communities such as in the rural areas);
- national organisations (which operate within single developing countries); and
- international organisations (which have their headquarters in developed countries and operate within more than one developing country).

It is important to state that the aforementioned categories of operational NGOs in Nigeria carry out development work to alleviate the sufferings of deprived persons in Nigeria of whom youths form a substantial percentage due to youth unemployment, among other social challenges (Wahab et al., 2011:92). In classifying NGOs based on the method of registration, Oku (2016:232) affirm that NGOs in Nigeria can be classified based on the method of registration, i.e. NGOs registered with local authorities and NGOs registered with the state government, and based on their activities. These classifications tend to reflect the social interest of NGOs and avenues to contribute to the development of society.

NGOs are involved in several activities in their quest to complement the efforts of government and to contribute positively to society. Oku (2016:232) notes that NGO

activities in Nigeria are in the areas of “health, microcredit enterprise, gender, agriculture, capacity building/training research, youth development, education” among other areas of intervention. Furthermore, Haque (2011:330) notes that NGOs have been active at local, state and international levels with focus on diverse areas such as environmental protection, gender equality, human rights and poverty alleviation. In addition, Nelson (2007:2) notes that NGOs carry out various activities such as advocacy, brokerage, conflict resolution, capacity building, delivery of services, among other activities at community, national, regional and global level. NGO activities are directed at the poor and to the benefit of society.

NGOs operate within a defined corporate structure. According to Desai (2003:27–34), NGOs run their organisations with staff who play key roles in administration, management, social work and other designated roles. In addition, Desai (2003:28) also notes that staff of NGOs comprises volunteers and paid staff. Furthermore, Baride (2013:110) remarks that NGOs employ a range of staff based on organisational needs and they benefit from an available pool of volunteers. With respect to funding, NGOs generate their funds from several sources, such as donors, or they are self-funded (Omofonmwan & Odia, 2009:247). Another organisational characteristic of NGOs is communication, and Baride (2013:110) says that NGOs participate in public relations. It is important to add that NGOs are accountable to key stakeholders in society (Ebrahim, 2003:813; Lloyd, 2005:2–7; Lloyd & De las Casas, 2006:3). The corporate structure of NGOs enables them to operate in an organised form with a high sense of responsibility and accountability.

The next section will present a discussion of the concept of youth-serving NGOs.

3.3.2 The concept of youth-serving NGOs

Youth-serving NGOs is a social science concept with no known generally accepted definition. In this study, the concept of youth-serving NGOs is used loosely to refer to NGOs focusing solely on alleviating youth suffering and poverty. Other variations of the concept of youth-serving NGOs exist in the form of youth NGOs (Molobe, 2004:3; O’Toole, Dennis, Kilpatrick & Farmer, 2010:430; Yang & Alpermann, 2014:313) and youth development NGOs (Olate, Alvarado, Salas-Wright & Vaughn, 2014:112) while the majority of studies reviewed used the term **NGOs** (with no form of boundaries to distinguish their focus and activities) loosely in the context of youth empowerment,

poverty alleviation and youth welfare issues. In providing a definition for youth-serving NGOs, definitions of youth NGOs and youth development NGOs, these organisations are considered with respect to their content meaning and application to the study research problem and context. Although the concepts **youth NGOs** and **youth development NGOs** were not specifically defined in the aforementioned studies, meanings of youth NGOs and youth development NGOs were taken from the context of the aforementioned studies. Yang and Alpermann (2014:313, 329) refer to youth NGOs as “NGOs working with children and youths”. For the present study, youth-serving NGOs are NGOs that meet the welfare needs of deprived youths (WHO, 1994: i, 1–39).

Youth-serving NGOs are involved in several types of activities in their attempt to alleviate the sufferings of young people. According to Ahonsi (2015: Paragraph 6), youth-serving NGOs participate actively in health matters, such as sexual and reproductive health (SRH) activities for youths and adolescents. Furthermore, WHO (1994:i, 1–39) notes that youth-serving NGOs make welfare contributions that benefit the youth such as the provision of shelter, food, medical services and education among other services that deprived youths might need to live comfortably. The activities of youth-serving NGOs are focused on the youth with the sole aim of providing for the welfare of deprived and needy youths.

Youth-serving NGOs have distinctive demographic characteristics as they focus on youth welfare issues. Collin (2015:19) says youth-serving NGOs target young people as the beneficiaries of youth-serving NGO programmes. The demographic characteristics of youth-serving NGOs are male and female youths in the age range of 15–35 years, with no formal education or with primary, secondary and tertiary education (Ahonsi et al., 2014:1,12, 28 ; Bello, Danjuma & Adamu, 2007:61–63; Onugu & Onuoha, 2015:11; Sangowawa & Owoaje, 2012: Paragraph 9). A key distinguishable characteristic of youth-serving NGOs is their focus on deprived youths.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of youth-serving NGOs in the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.3.3 The importance of youth-serving NGOs in the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria

There are several positive influences of youth-serving NGOs in the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. Some of them are discussed below as they applied to this study:

The next section will present a discussion of the provision and development of youth-friendly infrastructures as an outcome of youth-serving NGO efforts to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.3.3.1 Provision and development of youth-friendly infrastructures

Youth-serving NGOs develop and provide youth-friendly infrastructures for the welfare and benefits of young people in Nigeria. Ajowun et al. (2015:163) examined the effects of peer education on the knowledge and use of HIV counselling and testing (HCT) services among young persons in Ibadan (a state in South-West Nigeria) and affirmed that some NGOs provided and managed stand-alone services that provided free HCT services in Ibadan (Nigeria). Aransiola (2013:175) remarks that NGOs provide facilities, such as accommodation and vocational training centres, to rehabilitate street children in Nigeria. Furthermore, Patrick and Ijah (2012:3) note that an NGO provided a mobile workshop to aid the provision of adult and non-formal education (NFE) training programmes in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. It can be argued that youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the provision and development of youth-friendly infrastructures that benefits deprived youths in Nigeria. This view is supported by Adejumo, Olu-Owolabi and Fayomi (2015:220–224) who note that NGOs provide rehabilitative infrastructures, such accommodation and medical facilities among other infrastructural provisions that benefit youths and alleviate their sufferings. Thus, youth-serving NGOs provide and develop infrastructures such as HCT, rehabilitation homes, medical facilities and vocational training centres, which contribute to youth poverty alleviation in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of the provision of support for youth welfare activities as an outcome of youth-serving NGO efforts to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

3.3.3.2 *Provision of support for youth welfare activities*

Youth-serving NGOs provide various types of support for youth poverty activities in Nigeria. Alawiye-Adams and Babatunde (2013:2) and Aransiola (2013:175) report that youth-serving NGOs are among key stakeholders that provide rehabilitative support to children and youths living on the streets in Nigeria. Sangowawa and Owoaje (2012: Paragraph 7) found that youth-serving NGOs provide care and support for youths who are among people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) in Nigeria. Furthermore, Akor (2011:104) says youth-serving NGOs support the anti-trafficking efforts of the National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP) by rehabilitating repatriated young girls and women who had been trafficked out of Nigeria for sexual exploitative purposes and commercial labour. It can be argued that youth-serving NGOs play a major role in the provision of support for youth welfare activities. This view is supported by Ilemona et al. (2013:7) who confirm that youth-serving NGOs are one of the key initiators of poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria. Thus youth-serving NGOs provide rehabilitative support to youths and children living on the streets, youths living with HIV/AIDS, trafficked young girls and women, and they initiate poverty alleviation programmes to lessen the sufferings and to protect the dignity of poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of the identification of major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4 Identification of major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria

Youth-serving NGO have been known to contribute in specialist areas as they fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. This is due to the notion that poverty can be measured with several indicators (Ugoh & Ukpere, 2009:847). According to Ugoh and Ukpere (2009:847), poverty takes the form of an inability to make purchases, malnutrition, limited access or a lack of access to basic amenities, among other forms of deprivations. It is based on these areas of deprivation that key stakeholders, including youth-serving NGOs, specialise and make interventions to make life easier and worth living for deprived and poor youths in Nigeria. Some of the specialist areas of youth poverty alleviation-focused intervention areas are further discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of health care services (HIV/AIDS intervention) as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.1 Health care services (HIV/AIDS intervention)

Youth-serving NGOs have played a major role in the prevention and spread of HIV/AIDS among youths in Nigeria. Ambe-Uva (2007:7) affirms that NGOs are among key stakeholders that have contributed to the establishment of youth counselling centres, peer education and dissemination of information on the radio and television to encourage the change of risky behaviours to fight the scourge of HIV/AIDS. Isiugo-Abanihe et al. (2015:101), in a study on adolescent sexuality and life skills education in Nigeria, found that a significant number of youths have benefited from sexuality education via various workshops, seminars and trainings organised by NGOs and other key stakeholders. Oladunni and Osezua (2013:1382) examined the acceptance and uptake of HCT by youth corps members in Osun state (Nigeria), and found that NGOs were among the stakeholders that had invested in HCT centres in the 36 states in Nigeria. Oladunni and Osezua (2013:1381) further noted that, despite the investment in HCT centres in Nigeria, awareness of the HCT services and readiness to allow for HIV testing is very low among serving youth corps members in Osun state (Nigeria). Ajowun et al. (2015:163–169) found that, following the assistance provided by NGOs and other stakeholders, promotional activities encouraging the youth to patronise the HCT centres have been stepped up producing positive results. HIV/AIDS is one of the serious health threats that have had a negative effect on the Nigerian youth. According to Edewor (2010:3), a significant number of PLWHA are young people between the ages of 20 and 29. Edewor (2010:4) further states that NGOs are among the sources of information and services where PLWHA (also young people) obtain health-based information for their usage. It can be argued that health care services focusing on HIV/AIDS intervention is one of the major specialities of youth-serving NGOs. This view is supported by Onyebuchi (2015:107) who affirms that NGOs are among key stakeholders involved in the activities of safeguarding the SRH of young people in Nigeria (Blanc, Glazer, Ofomata-Aderemi & Akinfaderin-Agarau, 2016: Paragraph1–5). Thus, youth-serving NGOs provide sexuality education, HCT centres, and disseminate information on HIV/AIDS through various media outlets to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS among the youth in Nigeria and to empower them to make the right health choices.

The next section will present a discussion of education and training services as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.2 Education and training services

Education services are one of the key areas of intervention of youth-serving NGOs in their fight to alleviate poverty. Asiyai (2015:61) says NGOs, among other key stakeholders in the community, have contributed considerably to the quality of higher (tertiary) education in Nigeria. In the area of girl child education, Alabi and Alabi (2013:7–9) also found that NGOs, alongside other key stakeholders, have played a major role in encouraging female education in the northern and southern parts of Nigeria by providing special schools for girls and women education, which is attached to the education ministries of various states. Furthermore, Oshadare et al. (2015:5) observe that NGOs are providing e-learning facilities in the form of telecentres to meet educational needs of deprived adults (and youths). In addition, Mac-Ikemenjima (2005:6–8) confirms that youths are the target beneficiaries of e-education initiatives led by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. Some of these telecentres are the Community Teaching and Learning Centres, Lagos Digital Village by Junior Achievement Nigeria, Owerri Digital Village by Youths for Technology among other telecentres targeting the youth and other beneficiaries. The Community Teaching and Learning Centre (CTLC) is an initiative of an international United States-based NGO known as Teachers without Borders (TWB) and is operated locally within schools and business locations to impart knowledge using programmes that include early childhood education, HIV/AIDS training and teacher/instructor certification (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:7). In addition, Owerri Digital Village (ODV) is also an initiative of an international NGO named Youth for Technology Foundation, which is based in the United States and Nigeria and was established in 2001 to provide technical, entrepreneurship and educational skills to disadvantaged individuals (including youths) to make them economically and socially stable (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:7–8). Telecentres are designated outlets where information and communications technology (ICT) facilities are deployed to teach people and inform them of their ICT utility value and to use it as a medium to disseminate educational programmes (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:6–7). It can be argued that there are youth-serving NGOs providing education and training services to disadvantage youths and which support other stakeholder activities towards ensuring a well-rounded education for the residents of Nigeria. This view is supported by Ozoemena (2013:102, 107) who affirms that NGOs in collaboration with key development partners (local and international) provide relevant development programmes to assist in adult literacy in Nigeria and these programmes target school

leavers and unemployed youths who are deficient in sought-after skills in the labour market. Youth-serving NGOs thus also provide girl child education and e-learning facilities to provide educational empowerment to deprived youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of agricultural training as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.3 *Agriculture training*

Youth-serving NGOs provide agricultural training to poor youths involved in agricultural activities to enable the youth to farm efficiently and boost their incomes. Baride (2013:111) affirms that, as part of their role in rural development in Nigeria, NGOs assist small-scale farmers by providing provident loans, high-performing seedlings and technical support to boost their farming operations and increase their yield. Specifically on the issue of providing agricultural training to poor youths, Lawan (2013:32) examined the role of NGOs in agricultural and rural development in Nigeria with a focus on Women Farmers Advancement Network (WOFAN) (an indigenous NGO focusing on agricultural activities) (Onyekuru, 2010:1) and found that youths were among the key beneficiaries of the activities of the NGO. Ogbeide et al. (2015:3) opines that NGOs are among active stakeholders in agricultural development activities in developing countries, like Nigeria, to empower the youth and refine their farming practices by using practices like graduate farming, school-to-land programmes and communal farming, among other strategic practices. It can be argued that one of the major areas of speciality and intervention of youth-serving NGOs is agriculture training, which is used to empower the youth. This view is supported by Adesugba and Mavrotas (2016:15) who affirm the role of NGOs in implementing the Youth and Women in Agribusiness Investment Programme (YWAIP) created in 2013 by the Gender and Youth division of the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (FMARD), which was mandated to train 5 000 youths and 3 000 women at various skills acquisition centres across the country. Thus, youth-serving NGOs provide finance, technical support, improved seedlings and improved farming techniques to empower deprived youths to become self-reliant and productive in the agricultural sector.

The next section will present a discussion of legal representation services as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.4 *Legal representation services*

Legal representation services in the form of legal empowerment are a key service provided by youth-serving NGOs to protect the legal rights of poor youths. Melis and Esquivel-Korsiak (2016:2) examined engaging citizens through mediation in Kaduna state (Nigeria) and found that a local NGO, known as the peace committee, has been providing mediating services in the community to reduce youth violence and also to inform the community of their rights (including the right to free legal aid). Achunike and Kitause (2014:40) affirm that NGOs have intervened in rape cases in Nigeria by increasingly spreading information on the need to protect the human rights of the victim, filing and sponsoring legal services for rape victims, advocating for change of archaic laws, among other legal activities. Furthermore, Olujuwon (2008:29) affirms that there are NGOs like Women's Rights Watch (located in Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria) who are dedicated to offering free legal services to women involved in trafficking in addition to providing advocacy among other women's services. It can thus be argued that there are youth-serving NGOs that offer legal empowerment to deprived and distressed youths regardless of their gender. This view is supported by Ladan (2011:9) who affirms that there are NGOs in Nigeria dedicated to the protection of the rights of deprived and distressed youths in Nigeria. Youth-serving NGOs thus provide mediation services, information on human rights and human rights abuses and free legal representation to empower deprived youths and victims of crime to benefit from the justice system and peace or reconciliation committees.

The next section will present a discussion of financial services (microcredit lending services) as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.5 *Financial services (microcredit lending services)*

Youth-serving NGOs render financial services in the form of microcredit to deprived youths to enable them to become self-reliant. Onyeagocha, Chidebelu and Okorji (2012:171) examined the determinants of repayment of loan beneficiaries of microfinance institutions in South East states of Nigeria and found that a significant number of lending institutions in the south eastern states in Nigeria were NGO-microfinance institutions (NGO-MFIs) (classed semi-formal organisations when compared to formal organisations like commercial and development banks) who provided loans to beneficiaries, which included youths. Onyeagocha et al. (2012:171)

further noted that, in terms of success rate with the repayment of the loans, the NGOs-MFIs ranked second when compared to the informal sectors (co-operative societies and local lending unions), which came first and commercial and developments banks which ranked third. It is important to state that the activities in which the youth who benefited from the loans from the aforementioned lending institutions were involved, were farming enterprises, such as crop and poultry production, trading and artisanship, among other enterprise-based activities (Onyeagocha et al., 2012:167). Furthermore, Eneji, Obim, Otu and Ogli (2013:381) considered agricultural microcredit facilities of NGOs and farmers' household income in Benue State (Nigeria) and found that the majority of the beneficiaries of microcredit facilities were youths within the age bracket of 21–35years. Eneji et al. (2013:376) also found that youths who benefited from microcredit facilities offered by NGOs experienced an increase in their income, which positively affected the quality of their lives and those of their households. It can be argued that there are youth-serving NGOs with microcredit as their area of expertise focusing on alleviating the suffering of poor youths. This view is supported by Asikhia, Ogeah and Iloka (2011:4) who affirm that there are NGOs like the Lift Above Poverty Organisation (LAPO) (a microfinance institution that functions as an NGO) who cater for the needs of the youth as significant beneficiaries. Thus, youth-serving NGO provide financial services in the form of loans and other microcredit facilities to empower the youth financially to succeed in their various businesses.

The next section will present a discussion of information and communication technology (ICT) services as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.6 *Information and communication technology (ICT) services*

Youth-serving NGOs have made significant contributions in the lives of Nigerian youths through ICT services. Agbetuyi and Oluwatayo (2012:44) examine the relationship between ICT and education and its effect on the Nigerian educational system, and observe that NGOs are among the key stakeholders that make interventions in the area of ICT education in secondary and higher institutions in Nigeria. Matthew, Joro and Manasseh (2015:67) examine the role of information technology (IT) in the Nigerian educational system and note that NGOs are among the key stakeholders who donate computers to schools for ICT learning activities. Furthermore, Sofowora

(2009:135) examines the potential of using ICT for poverty alleviation and economic empowerment in Osun State (Nigeria) and notes that NGOs are among the key stakeholders that provide ICT programmes to encourage poor youths to utilise ICT and mobile phones for business ventures to generate income and become self-reliant. Sofowora (2009:131) further states that youths who had participated in the ICT programmes organised by the NGOs and other stakeholders are able to engage in street telephony business using their mobile phones to generate a sustainable income for themselves and their households. It can be argued that there are youth-serving NGOs using ICT services to empower youths and make them self-reliant and employable. Eze, Okeudo, Kizito and Chukwuemeka (2013:30) affirm that there are NGOs dedicated to empowering youths with ICT skills as part of the youth empowerment initiatives of NGOs. Thus, youth poverty alleviation-focused NGOs have empowered deprived youths with the right ICT skills by assisting in ICT education in secondary schools and tertiary institutions in Nigeria, and also other practical ICT skills, like mobile telephony to enable poor youths to generate a sustainable income.

The next section will present a discussion of women development services as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.7 Women development services

Youth-serving NGOs have played a leading role in empowering young women in Nigeria to be self-reliant. Omofonwan and Odia (2009:247, 251) affirm that an NGO named Girls Power Initiative (GPI) (see Tolman, Madunagu & Osakue, 2005:50–53) has been providing training in the area of leadership, children's rights, general and home management skills and SRH skills among other life support training for young girls between the ages of 10 and 18 years. Dibie and Okere (2015:92) also remark that women (also young women) have benefited considerably from NGO empowerment programmes compared to similar programmes designed by the Nigerian government. These women have witnessed great transformations from their initial limiting states of being domestic abuse victims and unemployed and deprived individuals to a state of positive progress and having sustainable livelihoods with promotion in their places of work. Furthermore, Oyelude and Bamigbola (2013:106–112) maintain that several NGOs involved in women and girl child empowerment provide women access to information required to empower them to become aware of their rights and to function

effectively in society – economically and socially. Oyelude and Bamigbola (2013:112) further state that these women and girls were taught how to use technology devices (electronics), such as computers, smartphones and laptops, among other devices that can be used to access information. It can be argued that there are youth-serving NGOs focusing on deprivations experienced by women and which are readily accessible to help such women out of difficult situations. This view is supported by Saleh and Kwache (2012:32–37) who affirm that NGOs in Bauchi State (Nigeria) are among the key stakeholders concerned with the welfare of the girl child. These NGOs contribute to the education of the girl child and enrolment in schools in Bauchi State (Nigeria). Thus, youth-serving NGOs have empowered women by providing SRH training and home management skills among other life skills to make them financially independent and socially responsible in society.

The next section will present a discussion of small and medium-sized enterprise advisory services as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.8 *Small and medium-sized enterprise advisory services*

Youth-serving NGOs are known to provide entrepreneurial initiatives to unemployed and poor youths to enable them to become self-reliant. Odia and Odia (2013:289) affirm that unemployment and poverty are some of the major challenges graduate youths are experiencing in Nigeria. NGOs are among the entrepreneurial development agencies providing entrepreneurial skills programmes for the benefit of poor youths in Nigeria. In addition, Wodi (2012:7–8) asserts that since the 1980s, NGOs have been advocating the need for skilled micro- and rural entrepreneurs who can be self-reliant and overcome their poor situations in Nigeria. Furthermore, Iwu and Nzeako (2012:128) states that an NGO, called the FATE foundation in Lagos (a state in Nigeria), offers entrepreneurship programmes to youths in the age range of 22–23 with university education and also empowers them with tools, networking, a mentorship programme and finance. It can be argued that there are youth-serving NGOs providing SME advisory services for youths in Nigeria to enable them become self-reliant. This view is supported by Iwu and Nzeako (2012:128), who affirm the availability of youth-serving NGOs to equip Nigerian youths for entrepreneurial success. Thus, youth-serving NGOs provide entrepreneurship programmes, such as business finance and networking to

increase the success rates of youths becoming self-employed and generating sustainable income for their endeavours.

The next section will present a discussion of vocational training as a major area of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.3.4.9 Vocational training

Youth-serving NGOs have made efforts to impart vocational skills to deprived youths to enable them to become self-reliant. Bello et al. (2007:60, 63), carrying out a survey of vocational training needs of 15–25-year-old out-of-school youths in Bauchi metropolis (in northern Nigeria), found that youth-serving NGOs have made efforts in providing training centres and programmes for deprived youths to enable them to become trained and to partake in meaningful independent ventures. Furthermore, Ohize and Adamu (2009:48) observed that in 2000, a youth-serving NGO initiated by Hajiya Zainab Kure (former first lady of Niger State, Nigeria) named Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES – similar in name to the Youth Empowerment Scheme of the Federal Republic of Nigeria) was able to provide vocational skills training programmes, which empower the youth economically and socially to alleviate the sufferings of some of the poor youths in Niger State. In addition, Patrick and Ijah (2012:3) found that an NGO named Community Development Partners (CODEP), which was established in 1989, had successfully trained over 1 320 youths in its skills training programme with the support of the Shell Petroleum Development Corporation (SPDC). More recently, Adejumo et al. (2015:218, 221) in a study on perceived satisfaction and effectiveness of rehabilitating victims of human trafficking in Nigeria found that female respondents between the ages of 19 and 32 and rescued from foreign countries were rehabilitated by NGOs and the Nigerian government who provided life skills for their re-integration into the Nigerian society. Adejumo et al. (2015:225) further say that the goal of the rehabilitation programme was to empower the trafficked victims to lead normal lives in society. It can be argued that there are youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria who specialise in providing vocational training and skills learning programmes for deprived youths. This view is supported by Patrick and Ijah (2012:1) who affirm that NGOs have played a significant role in alleviating the challenges of illiteracy and poverty using well-designed educational and skills acquisition programmes. Thus, youth-serving NGOs

empower deprived and poor youths with vocational skills to enable them to become self-reliant.

The next section will present a discussion of the concept of youth poverty alleviation programmes.

3.3.5 The concept of youth poverty alleviation programmes

Youth poverty alleviation programmes are designed to alleviate the suffering of youths based on a specific area of their needs. Youth unemployment is a major challenge in Nigeria (John, Benedict, Kanayo & Ekenechukwu, 2016:193) and is a major contributor to poverty (Oduwole, 2015:27–29, 36). Poverty alleviation programmes take the form of skills acquisition programmes and empowerment programmes to enable poor youths to acquire the relevant skills to become gainfully employed and meet their basic needs. One of these skills is information and communications technology (ICT) skills, which have diverse applications in key sectors such as the agricultural sector (Kehinde & Agwu, 2015:36–38). Another need where poverty alleviation programmes assist the youth is literacy needs. Illiteracy is a serious challenge in Nigeria (Jogwu, 2010:490) and a major problem among Nigerian youths (Patrick, 2012:145). Ololube and Egbezor (2012:71, 82–87) state that non-formal education contributes to the human development of beneficiaries by equipping them with literacy skills, productive and poverty reduction skills and skills to enhance quality social development that is beneficial for national development. Youth poverty alleviation programmes provide solutions to specific youth needs and reduce the deficient levels relating to the poor conditions among beneficiaries of the poverty alleviation programmes.

The targets and beneficiaries of youth poverty alleviation programmes are poor youths experiencing hardship and poverty. Ugochukwu, Okeke, Onubogu and Edokwe (2012:175) investigated the socio-demographic characteristics of child vendors in Nnewi (Nnewi is the second largest city in Anambra State, Nigeria), Nigeria and found that boys between the ages of 16 and 19 accounted for half of the respondents in the study involved in street petty trading in Nnewi. Ugochukwu et al. (2012:175) further remark that the majority of the child street vendors did not complete their secondary school education while some of the children were still in school but with poor attendance records. In a previous study, Bello et al. (2007:62–63) investigated the vocational training needs of 15–25-year-old out-of-school youths (male and female) in

Bauchi State (Nigeria) and found that the majority of respondents (poor youths) were between the ages of 15 and 20 and 20 and 25, while about 41 (32.03%) poor youths indicated that they attended junior secondary school and 87 (67.97%) poor youths indicated that they attended senior secondary school. Bello et al. (2007:62–63) further state that the majority (81 or 63.28%) of the youth were unemployed and not trained. In a more recent study, Ilemona et al. (2013:7) examined alleviating poverty through the use of entrepreneurial skills acquisition in Kogi State (Nigeria). It was found that the majority of respondents (youths – male and female) in the study were within the age range of 21–30 years (52.5% or 63 respondents) and the majority of the respondents had:

- basic formal education (primary education) (50% or 60 respondents) ;
- secondary education (6.67% or 8 respondents);
- higher education (6.67% or 8 respondents); and
- no formal education (36.67% or 44 respondents).

Youths in Nigeria between the ages of 15 and 35 are experiencing poverty and are the target beneficiaries of poverty alleviation programmes, such as vocational training programmes, which are provided by key stakeholders to make available the requisite training for possible employment in order to alleviate their poor conditions.

Key stakeholders, such as governments, NGOs and corporate organisations, have designed and utilised diverse programmes to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The Nigerian government is known to provide national programmes that focus on alleviating mass poverty with some of these programmes designed to benefit youths (Okulegu, 2013:110). One such programme is the NAPEP (Kasali & Sowunmi, 2013:208; Tersoo, 2013:28; Yakubu & Abbass, 2012:90). Onwe and Nwakamma (2015:235) explain that youths are among the target beneficiaries of NAPEP. Other key stakeholder making positive contributions to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria are youth-serving NGOs. These NGOs design programmes to empower Nigerian youths to improve their social and economic conditions (Adejumo et al., 2015:220, 223; Onyeagocha et al., 2012:167). A typical example is the microcredit programme, which empowers skilled youths to embark on enterprises and making the enterprises sustainable (Nelson & Nelson, 2010:173–174). Corporate organisations, like telecommunications companies, also have poverty alleviation programmes targeted at

young people in the host communities where their business carry out operations (Osemene, 2012:152). This takes the form of corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Kesavan, 2012:122). Other corporate entities involved in poverty alleviation using CSR are multinational oil companies (Amadi & Abdullah, 2012:62–64). According to Amadi and Abdullah (2012:63–64), the Shell Petroleum Developing Company (SPDC) – the Nigerian subsidiary of Royal Dutch Shell – in collaboration with local NGOs has provided youth development schemes in the area of vocational skills acquisition where youths learn skills such as computer technology, welding, sewing, electrical work. Government, NGOs and corporate organisations are among the key stakeholders designing and implementing poverty alleviation programmes to assist and empower youths to overcome poverty and achieve a better standard of living.

There are several types of youth poverty alleviation programmes in existence to lessen the suffering of youths in Nigeria. One such programme is the Entrepreneurship Development Programme (EDP) (Awogbenle & Iwuamadi, 2010:834). According to Awogbenle and Iwuamadi (2010:834), the EDP is a programme designed to solve the problem of unemployment pertaining to Nigerian youths, and it exposes youths to the nature of business while providing them with the opportunities of establishing their own business. Furthermore, in emphasising the prospects of entrepreneurship development in Nigeria, Anyadike, Emeh and Okechukwu (2012:101) attribute the growth of the economy, generation of employment and sustainable development to entrepreneurship development. EDPs play a key role in Nigeria today, and have been designed and applied to suit various needs of the poor regardless of their educational status. Onuma (2016:16) confirm that entrepreneurship education is being taught at the Ebonyi State University to develop the post-graduation job creation Skills of final-year students and found that entrepreneurship education is relevant in preparing students to be job creators rather than job seekers. The EDP is a highly recommended programme, and there are numerous advocacies for the EDPs in the form of entrepreneurship education to assist in solving the problem of youth unemployment and poverty in Nigeria (Ojeifo, 2013:61; Okoye, 2017:56). Another youth poverty alleviation programme is the technical vocational education and training (TVET) programme. Okoye and Okwelle (2014:86) assert that TVET programmes equip students with the required skills for a specific occupation. Furthermore, Wodi (2012:9) says that TVET programmes exist in three forms: formal TVET, informal TVET and non-formal TVET. Formal TVET takes

place in a formal school setting (secondary schools, technical colleges, polytechnics among other institutions offering formal educational and vocational programmes), while the informal TVET programmes are run as apprenticeship schemes by informal skilled tradesmen such as blacksmiths and roadside mechanics (Wodi, 2012:9). According to Wodi (2012:9), the non-formal TVET programmes are organised and run by private and public establishments to address an organisational need. An example of such establishment is the Peugeot Automobile Nigeria (PAN) Training Centre and the Nigerian Telecommunications Limited (NITEL) training school. TVET plays a crucial role in human and national development (Afeti, 2012:1). This view is supported by Audu, Kamin and Balash (2013:15) who aver that the encouragement of TVET programmes in Nigeria will bring about an increase in employment opportunities, wealth and a stable source of income for the beneficiaries of the programmes. EDP and TVET programmes are among the numerous poverty alleviation programmes utilised in Nigeria to assist deprived youths to be employable and self-reliant.

Youth poverty alleviation programmes are often used as an intervening measure or as a preventive measure. HIV education programmes (Kirby, Laris & Roller, 2007:206) comprise one of the poverty alleviation programmes utilised by NGOs to prevent and alleviate HIV/AIDS, which is a major problem for youths in Nigeria with adolescents occupying a large percentage of the population and a 3.7% prevalent rate among 15–49-year-old Nigerians (Amaugo, Papadopoulos, Ochieng & Ali, 2014:633). Onokerhoraye and Maticka-Tyndale (2012:35) examined HIV prevention for rural youths in Nigeria and found that young people are more likely to be infected with HIV/AIDS due to a lack of tools such as knowledge, finances and access to health care to fight the disease. It is through HIV/AIDS education programmes designed and implemented by key stakeholders such as government, international donors and NGOs, which provide the necessary support and structures that youths are enabled to protect themselves from the deadly scourge of HIV/AIDS and to live positively with the disease (Huaynoca, Chandra-Mouli, Yaqub & Denno, 2014:191; Onokerhoraye and Maticka-Tyndale, 2012:35). Furthermore, Amaugo et al. (2014:633) examined the effectiveness of school-based sexual health education programmes in Nigeria and found that an increase in HIV/AIDS knowledge, positive sexual attitudes and safe practices with sexual activities. Youth poverty alleviation programmes, such as HIV/AIDS education

programmes, enable youths to benefit from preventive and alleviative measures utilised by key stakeholders to fight the problem of poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of the benefits of youth poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria.

3.3.6 The benefits of youth poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria

There are several positive effects of youth poverty alleviation programmes. Some of them are discussed below as they applied to this study:

The next section will present a discussion of how youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial to the youths in Nigeria.

3.3.6.1 *Youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial to the youth in Nigeria*

Youth poverty alleviation programmes provide both economic and social benefits to the youth in Nigeria. Abdussalam (2015:35) examined the effect of youth empowerment schemes on poverty alleviation in Nigeria and found that youth empowerment schemes and poverty alleviation are positively correlated. Abdussalam (2015:35) further noted that the beneficiaries of the YES initiative were able to improve their standard of living. Furthermore, Solaja and Adenuga (2016:16) studied the effect of skills acquisition programmes on unemployed graduates in Lagos State (Nigeria) and found that skills acquisition reduces unemployment among graduates in Lagos State, promotes the cultivation of new initiatives and reduces youth dependency rates. It can be argued that youth poverty alleviation programmes improve the social skills, self-esteem and self-reliance ability of the youth, which enable them to survive in society. This view is supported by Ikegwu, Ajiboye, Aromolaran, Ayodeji and Orafor (2014:94) who affirm that an increase in individual self-esteem, expansion of knowledge base and productivity are among the key effects of skills acquisition programmes in the fight against poverty. Thus, youth poverty alleviation programmes provide all-around development and empowerment of the youth and enable the youth to function effectively in society.

The next section will present a discussion of how youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial to the Nigerian economy.

3.3.6.2 *Youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial to the Nigerian economy*

Youth poverty alleviation programmes enable the youth to participate positively in the Nigerian economy. Nwankwo, Obeta and Nwaogbe (2013:87) affirm that youth empowerment contributes to the development of the youth and nation building. Nwankwo et al. (2013:87) further state that the inclusion of vocational and technical education in youth empowerment programmes will lead to self-reliance, reduce underemployment and unemployment, and also improve the economic growth of the nation. Furthermore, Olokundun, Falola and Ibidunni (2014:46) affirm that youth empowerment using the agricultural sector could provide several opportunities for sustainable socio-economic development of a nation. It can be argued that youth poverty alleviation programmes impart the required skills to the youth and make them productive and better contributors to the Nigerian economy. This view is supported by Kolade, Towobola, Oresanya, Ayeni and Omodewu (2014:172) who affirm that youth empowerment in the form of entrepreneurship education could facilitate the improvement of the Nigerian economy and also the attainment of sustainable development in Nigeria. Youth poverty alleviation programmes thus prepare the youth both technically and socially to be productive and to contribute to the development of the Nigerian economy.

The next section will present a discussion of how youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial in reducing crime in Nigeria.

3.3.6.3 *Youth poverty alleviation programmes are beneficial in reducing crime in Nigeria*

Youth poverty alleviation programmes have the capacity to reduce crime in Nigeria. Olaleye (2010:104) studied youth empowerment as a strategy for reducing crime in society and found that youth empowerment and attitude to crime prevention are positively correlated. Olaleye (2010:110) further found that empowering the youth and improving their living conditions reduce youth involvement in crime. Omoera (2013:54) states that involving unemployed youths in film production at film production centres will have a positive effect on crime prevention by youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, Agu (2013:64) studied the need to empower Nigerian children and youth through IT and found that skills acquired through youth empowerment programmes

could limit youth involvement in crime and violence. It can be argued that the provision of necessities and a supportive environment and creating conditions for the youth to be gainfully employed and comfortable will reduce the incidence of youth involvement in crime in Nigeria. This view is supported by Olu-Obafemi and Onajinrin (2014:1–2) who affirm that youth poverty alleviation programmes, such as entrepreneurship education, are capable of empowering the youth and reducing their involvement in unrest activities. Youth poverty alleviation programmes empower the youth to make the right choices in life to be productive and socially responsible.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7 Measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths is a multidimensional construct consisting of two elements: the replication activities of youth-serving NGOs and youth poverty alleviation activities, which demonstrate the major activities in the spread of youth poverty alleviation programmes by youth-serving NGOs. Furthermore, the combination of these two elements (replication activities and youth poverty alleviation activities) reveals the progress of youth-serving NGOs in alleviating youth poverty in Nigeria. The replication construct involves the ability of youth-serving NGOs to –

- scale up their capabilities to address youth poverty;
- increases the number of individuals served by youth-serving NGOs; and
- increases the geographical areas (locations) served by youth-serving NGOs (Bloom & Smith, 2010:134 & 145; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51).

The youth poverty alleviation activities involve –

- all activities carried out to alleviate and eradicate youth poverty;
- activities focusing on youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria;
- activities focusing on female youths to reduce youth poverty based on gender discrimination; and
- activities adopting sustainable green practices aimed at alleviating youth poverty in Nigeria (Dibie & Okere, 2015:92; Enyioko, 2012:2, 16; Esiet, 2003:1–6; Nelson & Nelson, 2010:178; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48).

It is important to state that increased replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths by youth-serving NGOs will lead to increased progress in alleviating and eradicating youth poverty in Nigeria (Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51). Furthermore, focusing and targeting youths in the poorest locations and disadvantaged female youths and adopting sustainable green practices to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria will have a positive effect on the drive and progress in reducing and eradicating the scourge of youth poverty in Nigeria. These two elements are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the replication activities of youth-serving NGOs as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.1 Replication activities of youth-serving NGOs

The ability of NGOs to scale up their capabilities to alleviate youth poverty, increase the number of individuals they serve and access more geographical locations are the key components of the replication activities measurement of youth-serving NGOs, as discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of scaling up the capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to alleviate youth poverty as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.2 Scaling up the capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to alleviate youth poverty

Youth-serving NGOs have key capabilities that must be improved constantly to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. According to Berelowitz et al. (2013:19–24), access to funds, finding suitable partners, staffing, communication, sustainability, designing and systemising the replication procedure are some of the organisational capabilities, barriers and challenges limiting replication efforts. The ability of youth-serving NGOs to expand their organisational capabilities and limit the organisational barriers and challenges to meet present and future demands will reflect positively in their replication activities.

The next section will present a discussion of increasing the number of individuals served by youth-serving NGOs as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.3 *Increasing the number of individuals served by youth-serving NGOs*

Youth-serving NGOs will be able to improve their replication activities to alleviate youth poverty significantly if more youths are empowered. Due to the growing number of poor youths in Nigeria due to various social challenges, such as youth unemployment (NBS, 2017: Key indicators section), NGOs need to increase the number of youths they serve. Ohize and Adamu (2009:51) say that, based on the success of YES in empowering beneficiaries with vocational skills and uplifting their socio-economic status, there is need to introduce the scheme at local government level to benefit more deprived prospective beneficiaries. Therefore, the ability of youth-serving NGOs to increase the number of youth beneficiaries using various intervention programmes will reflect positively on the replication activities of youth-serving NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of NGOs to access more geographical locations as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.4 *Ability of NGOs to access more geographical locations*

The ability of youth-serving NGOs to access more locations will enable them increase their replication activities and make more impact in the fight to alleviate youth poverty. According to NACA (2014:8), Nigeria is divided into six geopolitical zones (North-West zone, North-East zone, North-Central Zone, South-West Zone, South-South Zone and South-East Zone and has 36 states (see NACA, 2014:8). Youth poverty is present in all 36 states and six geopolitical zones due to issues of youth unemployment (NBS, 2017: Key indicators section) and global health issues like HIV/AIDS (NACA, 2014:17), which affect the livelihood of youths in Nigeria (Iya et al., 2012:245, 248; Uddin & Uddin, 2013:399–400). Therefore, the ability of youth-serving NGOs to access more geographical locations using various intervention programmes will reflect positively on their replication activities.

The next section will present a discussion of youth poverty alleviation activities as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.5 *Youth poverty alleviation activities*

The ability of NGOs to make progress in eradicating youth poverty, target poor youths in the poorest rural communities, target female youths and adopt sustainable green practices is the key component of the youth poverty alleviation activities of youth-serving NGOs as discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of NGOs to make progress in eradicating youth poverty as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.6 *Ability of NGOs to make progress in eradicating youth poverty*

NGOs are able to make progress at eradicating poverty by reducing the challenges and sufferings of deprived youths. Esiet (2003:1–6) remarks that NGOs have played a key role in health advocacy for young people through the Action Health Incorporated (AHI) initiative by assisting in the development and progress of adolescent SRH in Nigeria. Sofowora (2009:131) further found that beneficiaries who benefited from ICT training provided by key stakeholders, such as youth-serving NGOs, were able to engage in successful mobile telephony business and make a sustainable income. Therefore, the goal of youth-serving NGOs is to have successful programmes that produce successful outcomes for their beneficiaries, and this reflects positively on the progress made by youth-serving NGOs to eradicate youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of targeting poor youths in rural communities to alleviate youth poverty as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.7 *Targeting poor youths in rural communities to alleviate youth poverty*

NGOs targeting poor youths in rural areas are able to reduce youth poverty in Nigeria significantly. Nelson and Nelson (2010:173–174) examined microcredit programmes and poverty in rural Nigeria focusing on Akwa Ibom State (a state in South-South Nigeria) and found that a youth-serving NGO known as Organisation for Youth Development (OFYD), established in 1995, was carrying out intervention activities in the areas of poverty reduction, HIV/AIDS intervention, youth and women empowerment and entrepreneurship development in rural areas in Akwa Ibom State. It is important to state that cases of youth poverty and other youth challenges are more

prominent in the rural areas (Adetola & Olufemi, 2012:39; Aliero & Ibrahim, 2013:31; Onokerhoraye & Maticka-Tyndale, 2012:35). The ability of youth-serving NGOs such as OFYD to target youths in rural communities to alleviate poverty will reflect positively on the youth poverty alleviation activities of the NGOs in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of focusing on female youths to reduce the incidence of youth poverty as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.8 *Focusing on female youths will reduce the incidence of youth poverty*

Youth-serving NGOs focusing on reducing the suffering by female youths are able to reduce youth poverty in Nigeria. Female poverty is a serious issue in Nigeria (Idris & Agbim, 2015:122–130; Mark & Asheazi, 2016:423) due to several limiting factors such as HIV/AIDS (NACA, 2014:17), gender inequality (Alao, 2015:18–19; Makama, 2013:115), family abuse and domestic violence (Chika, 2012:137) as some of the factors that limit the progress of women and increase the prevalence of poverty among female youths. Dibie and Okere (2015:92) affirm that NGOs focusing on female poverty have made impressive progress in empowering women and reducing the effect of poverty on women. Omofonmwan and Odia (2009:251) also found that an NGO named Girls' Power Initiative (GPI) is involved in empowering young girls and female adolescents through various female empowering programmes. Furthermore, Adelere and Olomukoro (2015:315) studied the influence of literacy education programmes on socio-economic empowerment of women in Edo and Delta States in Nigeria (in South-South Nigeria) and found that NGOs are among the stakeholders empowering women through the provision of basic, intermediate and post-literacy classes to reduce female poverty in Nigeria. Adelere and Olomukoro (2015:315) further state that the literacy education programmes were successful as women were able to access credit facilities for their business ventures, to plan their family successfully using family planning methods and it also affected their family's nutritional status positively. Therefore, youth-serving NGOs focusing on female poverty are able to empower deprived female youths and reduce the incidence of female poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of adopting sustainable green practices in the fight to alleviate youth poverty as a key aspect of measuring the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

3.3.7.9 Adopting sustainable green practices in the fight to alleviate youth poverty

Sustainable green practices play a key role in the ability of youth-serving NGOs to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The avoidance of wastage of resources provided by development partners in the form of donor resources is a vital area in this regard as some NGOs waste resources, which could have a positive effect on the social influence of NGOs as evidenced by Smith (2012:1–2) who found that some HIV/AIDS NGOs are involved in corrupt practices, such as scams, misappropriation of development funds and fraudulent activities, which hamper the fight against HIV/AIDS, which is a major contributor of health challenges affecting the youth in Nigeria (NACA, 2014:17). On the positive side and with respect to sustainable agricultural programmes, Enyioko (2012:2, 16) noted that youth-serving NGOs play a major role in the promotion of sustainable agriculture by being involved in sustainable agricultural initiatives, such as organic farming. It is important to add that NGOs play a key role in sustainability initiatives (Conroy & Litvinoff, 2013:53–55), which has positive effects on society. Therefore, youth-serving NGOs are able to empower deprived youths and reduce the incidence of youth poverty in Nigeria by adopting sustainable green practices, such as shunning corruption to prevent wastage of resources and the projection of green practices, such organic farming, in their sustainable agricultural programmes, which are beneficial to all stakeholders.

The next section will present a discussion of understanding organisational capabilities.

3.4 UNDERSTANDING ORGANISATIONAL CAPABILITIES

Organisational capabilities play a central role in the functions and activities of an organisation as tools used to respond to organisational needs (internal and external). According to Schienstock (2009: ii), organisational capabilities enable a firm to respond to social problems, unlike core technical capabilities that are used to resolve technical issues. In order to remain competitive in the business environment, firms must develop their organisational capabilities to respond to organisational problems (Schienstock, 2009: ii; Tichá, 2010:160).

To expand the understanding of organisational capabilities as they applied to this study, the following themes are discussed:

- the concept of organisational capabilities;

- understanding the concept of staffing;
- communication;
- alliance-building;
- lobbying;
- earnings-generation;
- replication and stimulating market forces as organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model; and
- challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of the concept of organisational capabilities.

3.4.1 The concept of organisational capabilities

Organisation scholars have identified organisational capabilities to be distinct from organisational competencies after much inter-changeability of meanings and usage in research and practice. According to Edgar and Lockwood (2008:21), scholars have done much to improve the understanding of organisational competencies construct since 1990 after the publication of “The core competence of the corporation” authored by Prahalad and Hamel (1990). In the same line of thought, Ulrich and Smallwood (2004: Paragraph4–18) have clarified the differences between organisational competencies and organisational capabilities. These authors affirm that **organisational capability** refers to the social skill sets of the organisation while **organisational competencies** refers to the technical skills sets of the organisation. According to Lynch and Simpson (2010:3), social skills “are behaviours that promote positive interaction with others and the environment”. Examples of some of these social skills are “showing empathy, participation in group activities, generosity, helpfulness, communicating with others, negotiating and problem solving” (Lynch & Simpson, 2010:3). Applying the definition of social skill set to the context of organisations in interpreting organisational capabilities as suggested by Ulrich and Smallwood (2004: Paragraph4), organisational capabilities are behaviours that promote positive interaction with others and the environment. Collis (1994:145), locating organisational capabilities in the resource-based view context, defines organisational capabilities as “the socially complex routines that determine the efficiency with which firms physically transform inputs into outputs”. In understanding technical skills as they relate to the constituents of competencies, Edgar and Lockwood (2008:21) reveal that components making up

competencies (technical skills) to include seven component categories of which “five involve understandings of core phenomena, intellectual disciplines, various technologies, and classes of products and services” and “two involve functional, technological and integrated skills”. Furthermore, Edgar and Lockwood (2008:28) define organisational competence as “a set of progressive, iterative understandings and skills held by corporate employees that collectively operate at the organisational level”. It is important to state that both skill sets are necessary for organisational survival and each can be deployed to support the other (Edgar & Lockwood, 2008:21, 30; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2004: Paragraph1–2).

Having provided a clear path towards understanding the meaning of organisational capabilities as they applied in this study and distinguishing it from organisational competencies, additional significant aspects of organisational capabilities are discussed further in detail.

Organisational capabilities serve different purposes for organisations. According to Inan and Bititci (2015:310), organisational capabilities play a strategic role in the competitive advantages and capacity of organisations to respond to internal and external change. According to Wang (2014:33), competitive advantage is achieved when an organisation develops superior characteristics that enable it to do better than its rivals. These characteristics can be in the form of the ability of the organisation to operate at low cost or to differentiate its products and services as suggested and identified as sources of competitive advantages (Porter, 1985:12–14). In utilising its capabilities and characteristics, an organisation is able to deploy its organisational strength to gain the needed advantage in a competitive business environment. In addition, López-Cabarcos, Göttling-Oliveira-Monteiro and Vázquez-Rodríguez (2015:1) found that the accomplishment of an organisation is hinged on the ability of the organisation to build, develop and utilise its organisational resources and capabilities effectively and efficiently. Another purpose of organisational capabilities is to meet customers’ needs. According to Martelo, Barroso and Cepeda (2013:1), organisational capabilities can increase customer value creation. Customers’ view of value is indicative of the benefits obtained from a product or service in relation to the cost of the product or service (Zeithaml, 1988:2–22). Organisations can increase the benefits that their customers desire by combining knowledge management processes in the form of absorptive

capacity (gained knowledge), knowledge transfer and knowledge application into an active organisational capability that delivers better-quality customer value to customers (Cepeda-Carrion, Martelo-Landroguéz, Leal-Rodríguez & Leal-Millán, 2017:1, 4–6). The utility value of organisational capabilities in key areas such as competitive advantage and meeting the needs of the customer are some of the distinctive functions of organisational capabilities and reasons why organisations build their capabilities.

According to Grant (1991:118–119), organisations use their resources to build their organisational capabilities. Hong, Liao, Sturman and Zhou (2014:124, 127–138) affirm that organisations utilise human resources to meet organisational goals and customers' needs via a linkage of human resources (HR) systems, workforce, strategic capabilities and customisation (customer-specific needs in the investigated study). This view is based on the combination of the multidimensional view of rent in addition to the theories of resources and capabilities in the study by Hong et al. (2014:124) in their article titled “competing through customization using human resource management to create strategic capabilities” (Hong et al., 2014:124). Hiring the right people to meet specific organisational needs is necessary to build organisational staffing capability to meet the dynamic demands of customers. Çalışkan (2010:100) affirms that there exists a causal link between human resources and organisational performance and that the management of human resources in an organisation is reflected in the performance of the organisation. Another resource that organisations use in building and managing their capabilities is financial resources. According to Smith (2008:2, 9), financial resources is one of the resources that play a key a role in the configuration of resources, competencies and capabilities to achieve organisational goals in terms of market penetration. Boonpattarakon (2012:15) affirms that financial resources are among the key resources identified key essentials of organisational resources that are required to build organisational capabilities. Financial resources include retained capital, debt capital and equity capital, among other financial instruments available to the organisation for use (Barney & Hesterly, 2006:131). Organisations build and manage their capabilities and organisational resources to enable them to have the necessary capabilities to carry out their organisational functions and meet the needs of key stakeholders.

Constituents of organisational capabilities exist in various forms and play different roles to enable the organisation achieve a common goal. Although several organisational capabilities exist (Bloom & Smith, 2010:128; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2004: Paragraph 4–18), the present study was limited to the organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model, namely staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replicating and stimulating market forces (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:115; Bloom & Smith, 2010:128).

Various challenges exist in relation to the different individual constituents of organisational capabilities. According to Ployhart (2006:868), organisations face staffing challenges in the 21st century and these staffing challenges come from “increased knowledge work, labour shortages, competition for workers and workforce shortages”. Staffing challenges are problems organisations face with their current staff or when they seek prospective staff (Ployhart, 2006:868). Staffing challenges can hamper the performance of a firm. According to Salleh, Rosline and Budin (2015:219), a lack of adequately skilled, experienced, knowledgeable and qualified staff can negatively affect the performance of an organisation. Another organisational capability challenge with dire consequences is the communicating capability of the organisation. According to Motwani (2012:41), organisations in India are having difficulty in their CSR communication and especially in communicating motives behind the CSR activities of the organisation and in reducing stakeholders’ doubt. Motwani (2012:41–42) further adds that social reports, CSR communication via the worldwide web and advertising were the three communication channels that have been investigated by researchers recently. The three communication channels have been criticised by the stakeholders for subjective reporting and not meeting stakeholders’ evaluation expectations. CSR communication is a key aspect of the activities of an organisation in meeting the United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (United Nations General Assembly, 2015). According to Holme and Watts (1999:1), CSR is “a duty of every corporate body to protect the interest of the society at large”. Furthermore, it is also important to add that in practice, organisations carry out organisational capability assessment in the form of gap analysis (see Channon & Sammut-Bonnici, 2015:1–2) to reveal issues relating to organisational capabilities or to ascertain that their organisational capabilities are up to standard and are meeting stakeholder demands (Rauffet, Da Cunha & Bernard, 2010:2). Challenges in terms of organisational

capabilities exist and organisations try to solve them in order to limit their negative influence on the organisation and stakeholders of the organisation.

To conclude, organisational capabilities are “the socially complex routines that determine the efficiency with which firms physically transform inputs into outputs” (Collis 1994:145).

The next section will present discussion on understanding the organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1 Understanding organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model

This section presents the discussion and analysis of the organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model.

The next section will present a discussion of staffing as an organisational capability contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1.1 Staffing

Staffing is a significant organisational capability that builds the workforce of the organisation to carry out various tasks for the organisation. According to Kim and Ployhart (2014:361), staffing is “a key human resource practice used to achieve firm performance through acquiring human capital resources”. HR practice and human capital resources are vital components of staffing. According to Tan and Nasurdin (2011:157), ‘HR management practices’ refer to a combination of defined practices, policies and guiding philosophies utilised by organisations to guide their HR management activities in order to remain efficient and achieve defined organisational goals. These practices are crucial as they are established formal procedures to which the organisation refers when hiring the best candidate to fill the vacancy. Some of these practices are refined recruitment processes, work-(re)designs for improved performance and mentoring (Sung & Ashton, 2005:6). In addition, the best candidate for the job is the acquired human capital resource as Armstrong (1999:68) opines that **human capital** refers to the intellectual and practical skills of the people employed in an organisation. Furthermore, Cotten (2007:6) affirms that human capital is a reflection of the significance of the human resources of the organisation. The essence of staffing is to get

the best employee that fits the job role and organisations should therefore be effective in meeting their staffing needs (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:117).

The purpose of staffing for an organisation informs the staffing policies, philosophies and activities of the organisation. According to Fadairo, Williams and Maggio (2013:34), the aspiration of an organisation is to utilise its staffing practices to have a quality workforce that meets current and future demands. Workforce planning has been identified as the strategic practice to achieve the goal (De Bruecker, Van den Bergh, Beliën & Demeulemeester, 2015: 2). Workforce planning enables the organisation to meet its workforce needs constantly in accordance with its organisational demands and goals (Cotten, 2007:13). The workforce of an organisation reflects the HR competencies at the disposal of the organisation and which in turn allows the organisation to run its operations efficiently. Another significant purpose of staffing is employee retention. According to Allen (2008:3–5), organisations today face a difficult issue of retaining their valued employees, while Das and Baruah (2013:8) affirm that the success of an organisation depends on its ability to retain its quality staff. According to Mehta, Kurbetti and Dhankhar (2014:154), employee retention is defined as “a technique adopted by businesses to maintain an effective workforce and at the same time meet operational requirement”. According to Samuel and Chipunza (2009:411), employees leaving an organisation could have negative consequences for the organisation and could be very costly at the same time. Employee retention is very important for organisations and organisations do much, such as training (Deery, 2008:792–806), career development and compensation (Ramlall, 2003:66) to keep their employees motivated and satisfied and to retain them. The purpose of staffing is strategic to an organisation as the organisation selects the right candidate to enable the organisation to achieve its goal while also ensuring that the employee remains in the organisation and contributes to the continuous realisation of the organisational goals.

The staffing process is an essential part of employment in an organisation. The staffing process reveals how the staffing capability of an organisation is built. According to Venkatakrishnan (2016:142– 143), the staffing process involves “manpower requirements, recruitment, selection, orientation and placement, training and development, remuneration, performance evaluation, promotion and transfer”. Each element of the staffing process plays a strategic role and is significant to the success of

the organisation. In addition, each element of the staffing process is also a sub-process within the staffing process. Studies show that recruitment and selection (Chaneta, 2014:289), learning and quality orientation (Kalmuk & Acar, 2015:455), training and development (Khan, Khan & Khan, 2011:63), performance evaluation (Wanjiku & Sakwa, 2013:46) and remuneration (Bell & Van Reenen, 2011:1), all are significant in the staffing process and could influence the performance of the organisation.

The nature of staffing in an organisation makes it a management function. According to Venkatakrishnan (2016:142), staffing is the responsibility of all managers. According to Ali (2013:38), management functions comprise “planning, organisation, leading and controlling”. The planning, organising, leading and controlling of the staff of an organisation enable the organisation to control the quality of the workforce of the organisation constantly to enable the organisation to achieve its goals and this represents the core essence of HR management (Oke, 2016:379).

Based on the understanding of staffing as an organisational capability and as it applied to this study, staffing is defined as the “effectiveness of the organisation in filling its labour needs, including its managerial posts, with people who have the requisite skills for the needed positions, whether they be paid staff or volunteers”(Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:117).

The next section will present a discussion of communicating as an organisational capability contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1.2 Communicating

Communication enables organisations to share information that is timely and beneficial to the organisation and its stakeholders (Spaho, 2011:390–393). According to Lunenburg (2010a:1), communication is an established process between two parties where information and general understanding are shared. Velentzas and Broni (2014:117) affirm that communication is a two-way process and effective communication is achieved when the communicating parties share the same understanding of the information being shared. Fedaghi, Alsaqa and Fadel (2009:29) view communication as a process that simply involves sending and receiving. Communication occurs within an organisation, such as workplace communication (Guo & Sanchez, 2009:78) and outside an organisation as the organisation interacts with

other stakeholders (Cornelissen, 2014:56, 93–118). Since communication is information-driven, communication between parties should achieve its purpose of mutual understanding.

Communication serves various purposes for an organisation. According to Spaho (2011:390), effective communication is the desired goal of an organisation. In this regard, organisations want to be understood and also want to understand their stakeholders when communicating. Husain (2013:48) affirms that effective communication leads to successful organisational change. Organisational change refers to “firm-level modifications of structures, work interactions and human resource practices, affecting both internal business processes as well as relationships with customers and other firms”(Murphy, 2002:5). Chen, Suen, Lin and Shieh (2010:1, 8) agree that organisational change is a process in which a firm improves performance in order to meet its organisational targets, and communication is one of the tools utilised by organisation to achieve the desired organisational change. Another aim of communication is social interaction between internal stakeholders (Ince & Gül, 2011:106–112). According to Spaho (2011:390), communication is vital to good human relationships. According to Ince and Gül (2011:106), communication and interactive justice (Karriker & Williams, 2009:112) are correlated. As employees interact and relate with one another communication is necessary to address any form of grievances or misunderstanding that may arise from the interaction and which will reflect in the employees’ perceptions of justice (Ince & Gül, 2011:109–113). In addition, Proctor (2014: i) affirms that effective communication contributes to job satisfaction. Communication contributes positively to an organisation and the purpose of communication influences the communication capability of the organisation.

The communication process plays an important role in the communication capability of the organisation. Men (2014:264) affirms that strategic internal communication processes and channels have been identified as key factors linking transformational leaders and employees with employee satisfaction being an effect. According to Lunenburg (2010a:2), there are five critical elements of a communication process, namely sender, message, medium, receiver and feedback. Koschmann (2012:2–6) remarks that communication follows an organisational process due to its coordination of the communication activities for organisational action. Furthermore, each of the

communication elements has strategic roles and contributes to the communication process, which results in the organisation realising the objective of the communication (Erven, 2002:1–2). Erven (2002: 1–2) explains that the communication process begins with the sender who has information meant for the receiver, and who sends the message to the receiver who receives the message and responds accordingly with a feedback that makes the initial sender to be the final receiver and the receiver to be the second sender. Furthermore, Erven (2002:2) indicates that the communication process is ended based on the effect on the receiver. The communication process is very significant as it shows the key elements of communication, which an organisation must adopt to build its communicating capability.

The nature of communication is an important consideration in the communicating capability of an organisation. Communication takes several forms of which formal or informal, written (letters and emails) or verbal (face to face) are among the widely used forms within an organisation (Lunenburg, 2010b:1; Spaho, 2011:391; Turkalj & Fosić, 2009:34–35). In distinguishing between formal and informal communication, Lunenburg (2010b:1) describes formal communication as the exchange of information or messages based on the official work of the organisation, while informal communication is the exchange of information that is not based on the official work or activities of the organisation. According to Altinöz (2009:217), formal communication is informed by organisational rules and goals, while Kandlousi, Ali and Abdollahi (2010:52) opine that formal communications are the officially recognised means of communication within the organisation, and play a strategic role in an organisation. It is important to state that informal communication also adds value to the organisation as Kraut, Fish, Root and Chalfonte (1993:2) found that informal communication is widely used in research and development organisations and its functions are to improve the social relations between colleagues and this type of communication also supports production work. The nature of communication is essential in building the communication capability of the organisation as both informal and formal communication are used by colleagues and between management and non-management staff to realise the communication goals of the organisation and consequently organisational general goals and objectives.

Based on the understanding of communicating as an organisational capability and as it applied to this study, communicating is defined as the “organisation’s ability to persuade key stakeholders that its change strategy is worth adopting and /or supporting” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:118).

The next section will present a discussion of alliance-building as an organisational capability contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1.3 Alliance-building

Alliance-building is a key organisational capability that enables organisations to form meaningful and beneficial relationships and alliances. According to Todeva and Knoke (2005:124), alliance-building represents strategic alliances that are formed and shown as inter-organisational relationships. Strategic alliance indicates a cooperative agreement between two or more organisations to unite and benefit from the union of individual organisational strengths to achieve a desired outcome (Isoraite, 2009:40). According to Zamir, Sahar and Zafar (2014:25), strategic alliances represent the sharing of different resources by independent organisations. These resources are both tangible and intangible resources (Dahan, Doh, Oetzel & Yaziji, 2010:330; Graf & Rothlauf, 2011:2; Todeva & Knoke, 2005:126–141). The strategic aspect of alliance-building is the resource advantage where resources are combined to achieve the alliance goal (Dahan et al., 2010:335–336). In addition to the resource-sharing perspective of alliance-building, another critical perspective of alliance-building is the established inter-organisational relationship. According to Zavala (2014:1), alliance-building involves growing genuine relationships, sharing common interests and finding opportunities for partnership ventures. Inter-organisational relationships are vital for alliance-building. According to Marchington and Vincent (2004:2), there exists evidence that a large number of businesses are being carried out based on long-term relationships instead of short-term complementing economic resources actions. This indicates that alliance-building is relationship-driven. Therefore, alliance-building as an organisational capability represents the ability of an organisation to build meaningful relationships with other organisations that share a common goal and have the resources to achieve the common goal.

The purpose of alliance-building is based on the need for the organisation to achieve set organisational goals using collaborative efforts, which serve as motives. Some

organisational goals require collaborative efforts for an organisation to achieve success with the goal. An example of an organisational goal that requires alliances is shown by Beamish and Luebbbers (2009:647), who affirm that alliance-building plays a significant role in social movements as it contributes to the practicability and capacity of social movements to affect social change positively. Social movements are “... organised yet informal social entities that are engaged in extra-institutional conflict that is oriented towards a goal” (Jonathan, 2009:2). According to Imhonopi, Onifade and Urim (2013:76), social movement and collective behaviour play significant roles in establishing various forms of social change in society. A typical example of alliance in social movement in Nigeria involved the collaboration of organised labour and civil society groups who fought the military regimes in Nigeria to entrench democracy in Nigeria (Imhonopi et al., 2013:76). In this case, social change in the form of democracy was the organisational goal and this determined the nature of alliance to be formed to achieve this goal. Another consideration is the collaborative effort required to enable the organisation to achieve its goal and which is driven by the motives of the organisation, which comprise the needed advantage required to achieve the set goal. Some of the motives for entering an alliance can be summarised into five categories, namely to increase organisational size, increase organisational speed, reduce organisational risks, benefit from skills and knowledge sharing and benefit from the available variety of options or products (Theurl, 2010:317). For every organisation that seeks alliances with other organisations, the purpose of the alliance is well defined with consideration given to the organisational goal and the organisational need, which reflects as the motive for the choice of a partner.

The alliance-building process is a key aspect of the alliance-building capability of the organisation. The goal of the alliance is to achieve organisational objectives effectively through partnerships instead of competition (Baranov, 2013:29). According to Rutledge (2011:23), there is a continuum of strategic alliances, which takes the form of –

- cooperation (independent groups share information to support each other’s activities);
- coordination (independent groups combine resources to achieve shared goals);
- collaboration (groups work together through similar strategies to achieve general goals); and

- coadunation (cultures of organisations are combined in one structure) with their formalisation and inter-dependence increasing from cooperation to coadunation.

Furthermore, Liebler and Ferri (2004:4) affirm that several networks exist and some of them refer to communities of practice and sectoral networks, which are created for different purposes. This means that organisations can enter into several alliances based on different purposes. In addition, Liebler and Ferri (2004:4) state that these networks can be informal or formal and can also be formed locally, nationally, regionally and globally. Therefore, the alliance-building process will depend on the specific type of alliance and the purpose for the alliance.

The nature of alliance-building and the organisational type entered into are significant considerations in alliance-building capability. Several types of alliance exist and some of them are joint ventures, outsourcing, franchising, licensing, cooperatives and networks (Abelson, 2003:2–6; Baranov, 2013:29–36; Isoraite, 2009:43–44; Rutledge, 2011:23; Todeva & Knoke, 2005:124). In addition, different types of organisational types exist in alliance-building and some of them are “firm to firm(s), firm to non-profit organisation/association, non-profit to non-profit, and firm to government agency” (Holmberg & Cummings, 2009:166; see also Kale & Singh, 2009:45–62). Furthermore, the type of alliance and the organisational types can be selected based on organisational goals and needs. An example of the nature of alliance-building is provided by Bonner and Carré (2013:1) who observe that global networking is being utilised as a strategy by informal workers through their associations, cooperatives and unions to fight for their rights and to be represented through networks and alliances with international organisations such as the ILO. This alliance depicts an NPO type of alliance-building and a networking type of alliance and partnership. The nature of alliance-building is important for organisations in order to select the right partner and to utilise the right type of alliance that leads to the achievement of the shared goal.

Based on the understanding of alliance-building as an organisational capability and as it applied to this study, alliance-building is defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation has forged partnerships, coalitions, joint ventures, and other linkages to bring about desired social changes” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:119).

The next section will present a discussion of lobbying as an organisational capability contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1.4 Lobbying

Lobbying is a necessary organisational capability that enables an organisation to influence policies and persuade key stakeholders to support defined activities. According to Zetter (2014:3), lobbying is “the process of seeking to influence government and its institutions by informing the public policy agenda”. According to Furman and Serikova (2007:111), public policy agenda have dual functions, namely representing a process that encourages participation and a multifaceted system of influence. Furman and Serikova (2007:111) also state that several participants are part of the public policy agenda process and some of these participants are interest groups, mass media and politicians. Furman and Serikova (2007:111) further noted that “the formation of the policy agenda is basically influenced by three forces: political parties, interest groups and institutions”. For this study, NGOs were regarded as institutions and their advocacy activities were the main focus of the study.

Berg (2009:2) affirms that lobbying is a legitimate and acknowledged process that allows various groups in society to project their views within the political space. Berg (2009:2) further states that lobbying is a “communication function”, which relates closely to activities carried out by public relations experts. Additionally, Dragojlović (2010:113) agrees that lobbying as a unique way of business communication should be utilised in business activities. In expanding the view of lobbying, Birch (2008:1) relates lobbying to advocacy, and indicates that advocacy involves projecting our views on what is important and discussing it with people who can influence and support our position on the views. Birch (2008:1) further reveals that lobbying is a key element of advocacy, although advocacy does not always contain the lobbying element. As a result, lobbying represents communicating our views with key public stakeholders with the intent of gathering support and influence to make our views relevant in society.

The purpose of lobbying is to effect the needed change in the causes about which we are positive and which are represented in society. According to Birch (2008:1), lobbying is “about making positive change to laws that affect us and the causes we serve”. Equally important, Mahoney (2007:37–38) and also Weiler and Brändli (2015:745) affirm that the aim of lobbying is to pressure key policy stakeholders to

influence public policy to benefit the cause of the lobbyist. Thus lobbying seeks to gather support and change to benefit a defined cause.

The lobbying process is an important part of lobbying as an organisational capability. The lobbying process begins with the lobbying goal. According to Victor (2007:834), the goal of lobbying is, for instance, to persuade relevant stakeholders (allies or adversaries) effectively about a cause such as speaking up for the arts (Birch, 2008:1), lobbying on European Union (EU) environmental policies (Junk, 2016:236) and fighting for the rights of women (Bingham, 2016:294). Once the cause is defined, the lobbyists in the form of pressure groups or interest groups (Crombez, 2002:7–10; Gilens & Page, 2014:564–565; Mihaila, 2011:150) undertake to reach out to key stakeholders using various lobbying strategies (Verčič & Verčič, 2012:17–18) and advocate their cause to relevance in society. It is important to add that interest or lobbying groups can be organisations such as NGOs, military groups and the church, for instance (Klüver, 2011:15; Stefanidis, 2001:12, 17). Stefanidis (2001:18) says national issues have always necessitated the involvement of various interest groups. Moreover, Dalziel (2010:867) explains that interest or pressure groups are very effective in promoting accountability of actions among stakeholders in a democratic society. Dalziel (2010:867) further emphasises the benefits of interest groups and indicates that individuals with mutual goals can combine to form interest groups to enable them to achieve their collective goals. In the end, the lobbying outcomes vary and might take the form of relative success in influencing the technical aspects of the target policies (De Jesus, 2010:69) among other lobbying outcomes.

The forms of lobbying and lobbying strategies are a significant consideration for the lobbying capability of the organisation and its effect. According to Dragojlović (2010:107), lobbying can be categorised as direct or indirect. Direct lobbying involves direct contacts with key policy stakeholders (Brown & Evens, 2000:322), while indirect lobbying involves contacts with individuals who are not key policy stakeholders (Brown & Evens, 2000:323; Sobbrío, 2011:235). In addition, Verčič and Verčič (2012:14–19) expand the understanding of the nature of lobbying using a communication process model of lobbying to show that lobbying can be direct and private, direct and public, indirect and private, and indirect and public. This shows the availability of different variants of the forms of lobbying with accompanying strategies

to suit defined lobbying needs. Weiler and Brändli (2015:745) and also Broscheid and Coen (2003:165–175) affirm that insider and outsider lobbying strategies are utilised by various groups to influence key policy stakeholders to support their causes. The nature of lobbying forms with their lobbying strategies serves defined purposes in the lobbying ambition of organisations to influence policies that are important to their organisations.

Based on the understanding of lobbying as an organisational capability and as it applied to this study, lobbying is defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation is able to advocate for government actions that may work in its favour” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:120).

The next section will present a discussion of earnings-generation as an organisational capability contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1.5 Earnings-generation

Earnings-generation is an important organisational capability that shows the ability of organisations to generate income or revenue to meet their organisational needs. Although a term associated with earned-income activities (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:121), **earnings-generation** reflects the ability of organisations such as NPOs (Parnetti, 2000:274; Vaceková & Svidroňová, 2014:122) to earn income from various sources through income-generating activities.

The purpose of earnings or revenue generation is for the organisation to achieve financial sustainability. According to León (2001:11), financial sustainability is “an organisation’s capacity to obtain revenues (grants or otherwise) in order to sustain productive processes (projects) at a steady or growing rate in order to produce results (accomplish the mission, goals or objectives)”. This reflects the importance of organisational revenue to cover operational costs in order to achieve set organisational goals, and organisational goals tend to differ with various organisations. Padilla, Staplefoote and Morganti (2012:2) affirm that financial sustainability may be viewed differently between for-profit organisations and not-for-profit organisations (NFPOs). Furthermore, Padilla et al. (2012:2) affirm that for NFPOs, financial sustainability is the use of “... excess revenues to achieve organisational goals instead of sharing them for profit or dividends”. Another perspective of financial sustainability is provided by Bowman (2011:37) who opines that financial sustainability is the ability of an

organisation to maintain continued financial capacity for a long time. This shows that organisations must generate enough income to meet not just their organisational needs but also to have excess income to allow it to protect its continuity in business for a very long time. Earnings-generation is critical for organisations, and the main goal of earnings-generation is to ensure the capacity of the organisation to meet its organisational goals.

The earnings-generation process of an organisation is determined by the revenue-generating activities of the organisation. A typical example is the NPO revenue-generating activity. According to Wexler and Petit (2006:7), NPOs can generate revenue from religious, charitable, scientific, literary and educational activities. Furthermore, Wexler and Petit (2006:7) affirm that these income-generating activities for NPOs are exempted from tax by the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) (Weisbrod & Cordes, 1998:195). NGOs as NFPOs carry out several development activities that can generate income in the process of meeting the development needs of their beneficiaries through sponsored or funded development activities (Viravaidya & Hayssen, 2001: i). Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001: i) affirm that NGOs can generate income from reaching out to donors, utilising cost-recovery components in their programmes to generate income from beneficiaries and/or clients or generate income from commercial activities. Thus, different earning-generating activities of organisations can produce earnings for the organisation and use their defined processes with inputs (various activities) and resultant outputs, which take the form of a service or product.

Earning generation take several forms in different organisations. The forms of earnings-generation differ across sectors and across organisations, namely –

- the public sector (government and its agencies), which obtains revenues from taxes, borrowings and collections (Alade, 2015:1349; Blöchliger & Petzold, 2009:2; Maquire, 2011:4; Marron & Morris:1, 2016; Uremadu & Ndulue, 2011:174);
- the private sector (corporations), which derives revenue from services and products (Krishnamurthy, 2003:279); and
- the non-profit sector, which obtains revenue from contributions from individuals, foundations, businesses and government (McKeever & Pettijohn,

2014:1; Sherlock & Gravelle, 2009:5) while also generating some revenue from commercially based activities (Vaceková & Svidroňová, 2014:123).

Based on the understanding of earnings-generation as an organisational capability and as it applied to this study, earnings-generation is defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation generates a stream of revenue that exceeds its expenses” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:121).

The next section will present a discussion of replicating as an organisational capability contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1.6 Replicating

Replicating as an organisational capability is an important organisational capability required to extend an effect to needy areas and needy beneficiaries. Replicating for this study is discussed in the context of social replication. Mavra (2011:9) states that social replication shares similarity with commercial replication in the area of language and structure. With regard to the shared similarity and structure of social replication and commercial replication, the meaning of social replication includes “the dissemination of information about a particular approach, the expansion of the geographic scope of an organisation’s activities, and running particular projects through affiliate organisations” (Mavra, 2011:9). This definition shows that information, activities and projects can be replicated with the aim of reaching out to more prospective beneficiaries and covering more geographical locations. In addition, Creech (2008:5) opines that replication relates to the “transfer to a different location of a tested concept, a pilot project, a small enterprise, and so forth, in order to repeat success elsewhere”. This shows that a key requirement for replication is the success of the project or concept. This view is further supported by Bradach (2003: Paragraph10) who affirms that replicating unsuccessful programmes is a waste of resources. Berelowitz et al. (2013:5) define social replication as “replicating a successful social purpose organisation or project in a new geographical location”. Gabriel (2014:10) views replication as a type of growth in social innovations that relates to copying. Furthermore, Van Oudenhoven and Wazir (1998:8) affirm that replication presents a connection of a new concept to different targeted beneficiaries in diverse locations. In addition, replication is argued to be a scaling mechanism and part of the scaling-up process (Clark et al., 2012:3, 5; Coffman, 2010:2; Jowett, 2010:1; Oddsdóttir, 2014:1–2). Coffman (2010:2) further states that replication is associated

with programmes. This shows that other social innovation forms can be spread using different outreach strategies other than replication, and some of them are adaptation (which can be used for programmes), communication (used for ideas or innovation), marketing (used for technology or skill) and implementation (used for policy) (Coffman, 2010:2). Leat (2003:1) defines replication as enabling the same project to be utilised by an expanded number of beneficiaries, enabling the same project to be available in other locations and allowing institutions to be more effective in their practice. Thus, replication is a strategic organisational capability, which allows an organisation to grow and spread its successful programmes to a new location and to benefit new beneficiaries while utilising more successful practices.

The aim of replicating is to access more needy areas and beneficiaries. According to Bradach (2003: Paragraph4), the main objective of replication is to “reproduce a successful programme’s results”. In replicating the results of a successful programme, more locations are accessed and more beneficiaries are reached, which results in the expansion of the social effect. Leat (2003:13–14) suggests three reasons why replication is an important issue for foundations, namely:

- “delivering successful outcomes which is within the policy context”;
- reproducing a standardised solution efficiently as a quick fix, which some organisations adopt from “business concepts and model” and
- “finishing the job they started”, which stems from the pressures on the foundations to conclude the job in line with organisational mandate”.

These reasons clearly identify the responsibility and goal of the foundations from various perspectives to make their programmes available for mass benefits. Thus, the aim of replication is seen from various perspectives but with one common goal, which is to reproduce a working and successful programme in order for the expansion of effects and benefits for all potential beneficiaries.

The replication process is a strategic process that involves key stages that allow for successful replication. Before the replication, Campbell, Taft-Pearman and Lee (2008:1) suggest that specific questions requiring positive answers need to be asked about available evidence that the programmes produce good results, knowledge of the elements of the programme that are required to be effective and whether the present organisation and finances are strong. Bradach (2003: Paragraph36) further argues that

replicating the operating model requires answers to three questions which are where and how to grow, what kind of network to build, and what the role of the 'centre' (home office) (Campbell et al., 2008:4) needs to be. These are critical questions that require sincere answers as they ensure that the decision to replicate the successful programme is justified and the possibility of replicating the same positive results in another location is highly possible. Focusing on the replication process, Berelowitz et al. (2013:7) affirm that there are five stages of social replication, namely:

- **Prove and promote:** In the prove stage, the business model and the social effect are validated (i.e. the business model and the social effect are confirmed to be successful and have achieved what it was created to achieve with tangible results. For the promote stage, funders and others who sponsor the replication provide the needed support.
- **Design:** The design process stage involves designing the social replication system for scale, preparing business plan and funding proposal and identifying the strength and weakness.
- **Systemise:** This stage involves packaging up all collateral required, from brand to systems, to have a full operational business system, creating legal documents and developing marketing materials.
- **Pilot:** This stage involves piloting the replication in 3–6 varied locations, monitoring and evaluating the replication, and generating a feedback loop to improve the systems.
- **Scale:** The scale stage is the final stage in the replication process, and it involves the rapid introduction of replications, providing ongoing support for network and continued learning and innovation.

However, Leat (2003:23) suggests that the replication process has seven stages, namely demonstration of the service or project, evaluation and dissection, communication, adoption, resourcing, implementing and sustaining. Berelowitz et al. (2013:7, 39–42) see the replication stages as mentioned and discussed above as more comprehensive and practical. Furthermore, as the replication process is ongoing, the progress of replication is monitored as contained in the stages as explained by Leat (2003:27) and Berelowitz et al. (2013:7). On the monitoring of the progress of replication, Van Oudenhoven and Wazir (1998:26) affirm that the progress of replication is considered by bearing in mind key criteria such as:

- the effect on the beneficiaries;
- the number of beneficiaries reached;
- the spread of project locations over the country, the region or the world; and
- the volume of services extended, of the institution or of its staff.

Thus, the replication process is a very important and strategic procedure where key questions are answered and key decisions are made in each stage of the replication process for a successful replication outcome.

Several forms of replication exist, and the choice of the replication form will depend on the nature of the concept or project. Some of the forms or models of replication are franchising (standard business and social), joint venture, partnership (collaboration agreement), dissemination, networking, licensing and wholly owned replication (Berelowitz et al., 2013:12; Jowett, 2010:6; Jowett & Dyer, 2012:733–736; Mavra, 2011:9–10). Furthermore, Berelowitz et al. (2013:12) state that these models were all being used in the social sector with wholly owned being the most popular. In addition, Mavra (2011:11) found that there still exists confusion about the meanings, legality and consequences of the various models and that having well-defined boundaries and definitions of the models is highly necessary. In leaning towards pathways, Leat (2003:11) suggests three pathways, namely spontaneous replication, replication with informal advice and planned and purposeful replication. Leat (2003:1–2) further states that the major difference between these pathways is whether the replication activity is being done by the original organisation or by a different organisation. The presence of so many replication models and pathways with different social organisations from different sectors (Mavra, 2011:9–10) seems to suggest that replication can be done in several ways and that it is possible to identify the model and pathway that suit the needs of the organisation to make the replication process less challenging and that will lead to positive results. The several forms of replication and pathways provide opportunities to replicate successful programmes and also present various challenges, which organisations that want to replicate should consider for a successful replication process. This is affirmed by Bradach (2003: Paragraph1–2), who explains that replication is a major challenge for both developing and developed economies. Bradach (2003:Paragraph 1–2) also mentions that there are several development programmes available to solve human social issues; yet, there are few replications and adaptations of

these programmes to meet the needs of the growing number of deprived persons. Thus, several forms of replication exist for organisations to expand their social influence; yet, replication is a challenge for developing and developed countries.

Based on the understanding of replicating as an organisational capability and as it applied to this study, replicating is defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation can reproduce the programs and initiatives that it has originated” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:122).

The next section will present a discussion of stimulating market forces as an organisational capability contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.1.1.7 Stimulating market forces

Stimulating market forces is a key organisational capability that enables an organisation to provide the right incentives that are beneficial to clients and beneficiaries, which is in the interest of society. Worsham (2011: Paragraph1) remarks that stimulating market forces enable an organisation to create a demand for a product or services through incentives. Frant (1996:366–367) and Murphy (2011:1–12) further state that using incentives influences behaviour to obtain a desired outcome, which is beneficial for all stakeholders. Stimulating market force capabilities provide an organisation with the capacity to use incentives to stimulate the right behaviour that is beneficial to all parties involved in the transaction.

The purpose of using stimulating market forces as an organisational capability is to provide the right incentives for key stakeholders to patronise services and products being offered by the organisation and which are in the best interest of the public. Frant (1996:367) asserts that the purpose of incentives is to provide an opportunity for benefits from economic institutions, such as markets. Frant (1996:366) further says that, under certain assumptions about human conduct, specific types of transactions will be more affordable using one institution or the other. This means that depending on the organisation (public, private or NPO) customers or clients are patronising, products may be affordable or expensive. Murphy (2011:18–19) adds that using incentives could encourage a defined expected behaviour such as compliance to a standard. The main purpose of stimulating market forces (using incentives) is to influence behaviour, which

may be in the form of encouraging compliance or providing mutual benefits that are beneficial to the parties involved in a transaction.

The process of stimulating market forces is informed by the type of organisation and the organisational transactions. Acemoglu, Kremer and Mian (2008:273–274) explain that there are different activities occurring in the business environment and these are based on high-powered incentives while there are other activities occurring within an organisation that are done without market incentives. Acemoglu et al. (2008:374) add that some activities conducted by organisations, such as government, are cut off from market forces. According to Frant (1996:366–371), the use of market incentives is based on transactions–cost economics, which is based in the various sectors (public, private or non-profit sector). Frant (1996:370–371) further explains that low-powered incentives are largely associated with the public sector while high-powered incentives are associated with the private sector.

Stimulating market forces take several incentive forms based on the demand by stakeholders and clients. Worsham (2011: Paragraph2) affirms that there are different incentives that appeal to the various stakeholders. Frant (1996:367) further says that incentives can be high-powered (provided by market transactions whereby parties to the transaction benefit) or low-powered incentives (present in hierarchical organisations and less potent due to limited benefits). Furthermore, Chang (2005:17) maintains there are three significant market forces that are important for businesses today, namely “customers’ responsiveness, information demand and cost pressure”. Stimulating market forces can thus take the form of high-powered and low-powered incentives, which appeal to different stakeholders, and can be based on customer responsiveness, information demand and cost pressure.

Based on the understanding of stimulating market forces as an organisational capability and as it applied to this study, stimulating market forces are defined as the “effectiveness with which the organisation can create incentives that encourage people or institutions to pursue private interests while also serving the public good” (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:123).

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs.

3.4.2 The importance of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs

Staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces are significant organisational capabilities of NGOs. Their importance in NGO management is further discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of staffing capability in NGO management.

3.4.2.1 The importance of staffing capability in NGO management

Staffing is very important in NGO management and plays strategic roles in the running and management of NGOs. The following are some of the important staffing aspects in NGO management.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO staffing and organisational performance.

3.4.2.1.1 NGO staffing and organisational performance

Staffing in NGOs is linked to organisational performance. Musyula (2014:41–42) indicates that there is a positive relationship between the performance of NGOs and staff management in NGOs. Batti (2014b:87) notes that performing organisations makes staff welfare a priority as they understand the significant contributions made by their staff in the realisation of organisational goals. According to Balaraju (2016:340), organisational effectiveness is influenced by the personal characteristics of NGO staff such as age, professional qualifications and gender. NGO staffing comprises management and non-management staff with volunteers and paid staff contributing in various roles that could increase the performance of the NGO. Bhiri, Ngwenya, Lunga and Musarurwa (2014:25) affirm that in Zimbabwe, community volunteers play a significant role in the sustainability of poverty reduction projects embarked upon by NGOs in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, Chalhoub (2009:51) noted that, in addition to other organisational internal factors, the corporate performance of NGOs is positively

influenced by senior management's ability to adjust to the business environment using market-based policies. This shows senior management's capability to contribute positively to NGOs' activities in the business environment and achieve superior performance. NGO staff contributes to the organisational performance of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO staffing and human resources needs.

3.4.2.1.2 NGO staffing and human resource needs

Staffing is a significant factor in the actualization of the HR needs of NGOs. Key human resources focuses in organisations are behaviours, responsibilities and functions of employees (Sharma, 2014:78) and organisations utilize the HR management function to manage their employees effectively (Itika, 2011:172–173; Legge, 1995:62). Batti (2014b:88) notes that operational HR management and strategic HR management are the two main categories of HR management. According to Batti (2014b:88), operational HR management deals with employee related matters such as recruitment, training and remuneration. By contrast, strategic HR management is concerned with the long-term objectives of the organisation and issues such as service quality, organisational culture and organisational structure are part of its coverage (Batti, 2014b:88). In NGO management, strategic management systems are utilized by NGOs to improve organisational performance and boost quality service delivery (Analoui & Samour, 2012:473). Staffing is a significant capability, and NGOs utilise staffing in the day-to-day activities embarked upon by the NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of communicating capability in NGO management.

3.4.2.2 The importance of communicating capability in NGO management

Communication plays a critical role within an organisation and its activities. According to Lunenburg (2010a:1), communication is significant in an organisation because it is the administrative tool that informs and guides activities within and beyond the organisation. There are several points of importance of communication and some of them are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of communication and decision-making.

3.4.2.2.1 Communication and decision-making

Communication assists in decision-making. According to Invernizzi and Romenti (2011:12), communication is an instrument in the decision-making process regarding a business process and products. According to Fülöp (2005:1), decision-making is the action of making a rational choice out of several alternatives based on the inclination and principles of the decision-maker. NGOs encounter several opportunities to make decisions regarding their operational activities and their stakeholder activities, and communication has been vital in making the required decisions. In terms of accountability, evidence by Eide and Stenderup (2015:1) affirms that NGOs communicate with beneficiaries. Eide and Stenderup (2015:99–101) further indicate that communicating with beneficiaries and involving them in the decision-making process enable the NGO to achieve more success in its development programmes and activities and this reflects forward accountability. In addition, Agyemang, Awumbila, Unerman and O'Dwyer (2009:5) affirm that NGOs use various accounting and accountability mechanisms for their stakeholders, such as annual reports and performance assessment reports (for donors), social auditing and community consultation (for beneficiaries). Stakeholders are important elements in the decision-making processes and NGOs utilise various forms of communication and communication mechanisms in their decision-making to address the specific needs of stakeholders.

The next section will present a discussion of communication and coordination of the activities of an organisation.

3.4.2.2.2 Communication and coordination of the activities of an organisation

Organisations utilise communication as an instrument of coordination in the organisation. NGO activities are diverse, and communication from management to employees and employees to fellow employees is made possible through appropriate communication channels. According to Balcik, Beamon, Krejci, Muramatsu and Ramirez (2010:23), **coordination** in the social relief context refers to interactional activities among parties within a defined relief environment. According to Abelson (2003:7), NGO partner networks use communication among themselves to coordinate their activities. In emphasising the importance of communication, evidence by Tchouakeu, Maldonado, Zhao, Robinson, Maitland and Tapia (2011:1) indicates that

information communication technology is being used by the IT coordination bodies of NGOs in humanitarian activities by applying coordination strategies. Furthermore, in emphasising the importance of communication in coordination, Balcik et al. (2010:23) identified language as a factor that may impede the coordination activities between local and foreign organisations. Ali and David (2015:207) affirm that the nature of the communication system of NGOs is a significant contributor to increased community participation in the social activities embarked upon by the NGOs. Communication is an important capability, and NGOs utilise communication in the coordination of organisational activities to achieve organisational goals.

The next section will present a discussion of communication and knowledge sharing.

3.4.2.2.3 Communication and knowledge sharing

Knowledge sharing and transfer are made easy through communication. According to Vasconcelos, Seixas, Chris and Lemos (2005:121), knowledge in an organisation is the gathering of various types of information utilised by employees in the course of participating in various organisational activities. Vasconcelos et al. (2005:121) further state that NGOs in the humanitarian aid and social development field are seriously concerned about various aspects of knowledge within their organisations. Heizmann (2008:65) adds that assisting knowledge sharing among employees and external stakeholders of NGOs remains a very serious concern. In the course of managing knowledge within NGOs (Hurley & Green, 2005:1; Smith & Lumba, 2008:167; Vasconcelos et al., 2005:121), effective communication (Bhati, 2013:338) is required for knowledge sharing (Tsui, 2006:5; Wang & Wang, 2012:8900) and knowledge transfer (Hasnain, Jasimuddin & Fuller-Love, 2016:39; Paulin & Suneson, 2012:81; Rocha, Da Silva Zembo, Da Veiga, Duclos, Quandt & Antonio, 2015:292–295), which leads to organisational learning in NGOs (Britton, 2005:4–12). According to Agyemang, O'Dwyer, Unerman and Awumbila (2012:3), NGO-funder accounting and accountability processes are able to derive significant influence on development aid by the sharing of situational knowledge to complement operational knowledge by fieldworkers. Effective communication plays a key role in knowledge sharing and transfer, and enables NGOs to meet their organisational goals.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of alliance-building capability in NGO management.

3.4.2.3 *The importance of alliance-building capability in NGO management*

There are several points of importance in terms of alliance-building by NGOs and some of them are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of alliance-building and NGO performance.

3.4.2.3.1 *Alliance-building and NGO performance*

Alliance-building affects NGO performance positively. Mitchell, O’Leary and Gerard (2015:684) affirm that NGOs and their partners enter into partnerships based on the perceived link between partnership and performance while viewing partnership as a management strategy. Zamir et al. (2014:25) affirm that alliances assist in performance. Van der Heul (2012:2–3) confirms that, based on the partnership with private businesses, the chances of NGOs achieving specific objectives improved and the potential for other activities such as scaling up their activities improved greatly when NGOs partner with businesses in NGO projects due to the additional competences that businesses contribute such as the ability of businesses to achieve efficiencies. Zamir et al. (2014:37) state that NGOs and businesses enjoy mutual benefits as depicted in the partnership between British American Tobacco (BAT) (a UK company) and an NGO named Earthwatch Europe (EE) in which the NGO was given £1 000 000 for its research, fellowship and educational programmes while EE endorsed BAT in terms of other NGOs and policymakers. Furthermore, Zamir et al. (2014:36–37) affirm that this partnership worked despite the non-alignment of the objectives and differences in resources and like-mindedness of the organisations involved. NGOs can improve their performance by building meaningful alliances and also by assisting their partners to achieve their organisational goals.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO alliance and increased NGO capacity.

3.4.2.3.2 *NGO alliance and increased NGO capacity*

The alliance relationships of an NGO increase the capacity of the NGO to achieve the desired social change in society. According to Liebler and Ferri (2004:4), effective networks are characterised by strong social capital, joint learning and mutually beneficial partnerships among other benefits. Furthermore, Liebler and Ferri (2004:5) affirm that networks provide benefits such as information, efficiency, multiplier effect,

reduced isolation, expertise and financial resources of which NGOs are able to benefit. Adele (2015:75) found that networking allowed NGOs to avoid resource constraints, increase their operational outreach and increase the value of their innovations. Triwibowo (2012:6–10) provides evidence that the alliance between the local mass media and NGOs has resulted in improving health care services for the poor in Makassar municipality in Indonesia. In this case, the local mass media provided the outreach that enabled the NGO to increase its capacity to produce the desired social change. In addition and with respect to humanitarian aid, Nightingale (2012:6) affirms that there are increasing disasters with diverse complexities, which have made local capacity very sensitive. Nightingale (2012:7) adds that partnership plays a strategic role in humanitarian response structures with local NGOs benefiting from capacity building from international partners through initiatives such as the Humanitarian Reform Project consortium (Mowjee, 2008:1). NGOs are able to increase their capacity to achieve their desired social influences through strategic partnerships.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of lobbying capability in NGO management.

3.4.2.4 The importance of lobbying capability in NGO management

Lobbying is very important in NGO management and plays a strategic role in the advocacy activities of NGOs. The following are some of the points of importance of lobbying by NGO management.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO lobbying and improved government decisions.

3.4.2.4.1 NGO lobbying and improving government decisions

NGOs lobbying activities are focused on improving government decisions. Josan (2010:84–85) affirms that lobbying is one of the techniques adopted by NGOs to influence policy. Kim (2011:1) argues that NGOs are able to influence the foreign policy behaviour of states towards other states. Foreign policy “is a behavioural pattern, which states adopt to conduct foreign and diplomatic relations with other states of the world” (Mushtaq & Choudhry, 2013:1). In revealing the role NGOs have on foreign policies, Kim (2011:1) further affirms that, as the number of United States- (US-) based NGOs take up operations in developing countries, so will the developing countries benefit from increased aid from the United States. US-based NGO activities also provide an increase in media interest in the benefiting aid country (Kim, 2011:1).

Woodward (2006:114, 117) affirms that NGOs are among the key influencers that have played a role in influencing US foreign policy towards Africa. Considering another country context in terms of foreign policy relations, evidence by Bevir, Daddow and Hall (2013:163–171) and also Gaskarth (2013: Chapter 2) affirms that NGOs have also played a major role in British foreign policy. In understanding how NGOs are able to influence foreign policy, Kim (2011:2) states that the role of NGOs in foreign policy includes being agenda setters, lobbying groups and information providers. NGOs are important influencers of the foreign policy of governments and play a significant role in moulding the foreign policy of developed countries towards developing countries in Africa.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO lobbying and protection of public interest.

3.4.2.4.2 NGO lobbying and protection of public interest

NGOs lobbying activities are of great importance in the protection of public interest. One of the focuses of public interest is the preservation of the environment. According to Rietig (2011:3), environmental NGOs have played a significant role in climate negotiations. Rietig (2011:3) says advocacy NGOs have great influence on the outcomes of negotiations on the climate when they generate public pressure with the support of the media. Climate negotiations are negotiations based on the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) (Breidenich, Magraw, Rowley & Rubin, 1998:315; Burns, 2016:419; Joshi, 2016:112–116) and the issues for negotiations centre on three key issues, namely “the level, nature and distribution of emission targets; commitments and approaches to technology transfer from developed to developing countries; the level, distribution and aims of climate finance”(Cantore, Peskett & Te Velde, 2009:2; see also Flannery, 2015:1). The advocacy functions that NGOs use in influencing climate negotiations are “issue framing, knowledge generation and dissemination, attribution of responsibility, lobbying, public mobilisation and agenda setting” (Szarka, 2013:12). NGOs are utilising their lobbying activities to protect public interest in terms of the environment, and climate negotiations to protect the environment, which is a key activity in environmental protection.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO lobbying and improved human rights conditions.

3.4.2.4.3 NGO lobbying and improved human rights conditions

NGO lobbying plays an important role in improving human rights conditions around the world, and their activities are well documented. According to McFarland (2014:2), the notion of human rights indicates that basic rights are the entitlement of humans of all races. In addition, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) (Brown, 2016:29–38; Hannum, 1995:292, 351–392; Waltz, 2001:44–45) stipulates various human rights that need to be respected at all times (Baehr, 2001:1–19). In order to illustrate how NGO lobbying is important in improving human living conditions, the discussion will focus on the improvement of women's rights. According to Esplen (2013:2, 4), there are women's rights organisations focusing on women's rights and gender equality (Breitenbach, Brown, Mackay & Webb, 2002:3) with various organisational forms of which advocacy is one. According to Bingham (2016:294), women NGOs have made significant positive contributions to the passage of statutes against the violence against women and human trafficking in Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Moldova from 1993–2008. On the same issue and in India, Colombini et al. (2016:493–497) affirm that women NGOs used their lobbying campaigns to place gender-based violence (GBV) on the national policy agenda. They further affirm that campaigning against GBV is significant in the fight to protect women. NGO lobbying is very important in society as it is an effective tool to improve the rights and conditions of humans in general and women specifically.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of earnings-generation capability in NGO management.

3.4.2.5 The importance of earnings-generation capability in NGO management

Earnings-generation is a significant aspect of NGO management and some of the important points regarding earnings-generation by NGOs are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of financial sustainability.

3.4.2.5.1 Financial sustainability

Earnings-generation plays a significant role in ensuring the financial sustainability of the NGO. Conradie (1999:291) states that financial sustainability is a necessity for NGOs to have the capacity to survive and sustain their development programmes. Alymkulova and Seipulnik (2005:2) examined NGO strategy for survival in Central

Asia and found that for NGOs to survive and achieve their organisational goals, they have to diversify their income as part of their sustainable financing strategy. Rhoden (2014:24–32) studied the capacity of NGOs to become sustainable by creating social enterprises and found that NGOs have the capacity to create social enterprises to be financially independent and to increase their activities in their host communities. It can be argued that one of the benefits of NGOs being able to generate income from various sources is financial sustainability. This view is supported by Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007:2) who studied managing NGOs in Botswana and found that adequate funding was among the key factors critical to the effectiveness and financial sustainability of NGOs. Thus, the ability of NGOs to generate income for their survival and activities enables the NGOs to achieve financial sustainability.

The next section will present a discussion of improved NGO capacities.

3.4.2.5.2 Improved NGO capacities

Earnings-generation plays a key role in the ability of an NGO to develop its capacities effectively to carry out its development activities. Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001: i) remark that inadequate funding affects the ability of NGOs to plan effectively for the long term and to achieve their organisational objectives in their host communities. Parks (2008:213) investigated the effects of the rise and fall of donor funding for advocacy NGOs in Asian countries and observed that one of the effects is a reduction in NGO effectiveness. Furthermore, Vacekova and Svidronova (2014:125) state that one of the benefits of NGOs that are able to generate income on their own is the ability to expand the range of products and/or services being offered as well as to increase the number of beneficiaries being served. This view is supported by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2014:109) who states that NGO finance is among the critical factors necessary for assisting disadvantaged and needy populations. Thus, earnings from various sources play a significant role in the effectiveness of NGOs and in building the capacities of NGOs to improve and respond to the development needs of their host communities.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of replicating capability in NGO management.

3.4.2.6 *The importance of replicating capability in NGO management*

Replicating has considerable significance in NGO management and some points of interest are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of replication as a source of NGO growth and social effect.

3.4.2.6.1 *Replication as a source of NGO growth and social effect*

A key importance of NGO replication of the activities of social programmes is the foundation and opportunity for growth of the NGO both in size and effect. According to Huggett (2012: Paragraph4), patterns of international NGOs take the form of replicators. For Huggett (2012: Paragraph4), replicators “are loose associations with a shared mission, but without a strong headquarters”. Another view of replication as a catalyst for NGO growth is presented by Kramer, Huggett and Milway (2010:15), who affirm that some global NGOs have achieved growth through ad hoc replication with loose partnerships that involved sharing the brand but with separate fundraising independence. Furthermore, evidence from Haider (2011:244–245) affirms that the replication strategy was utilised by the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh (Debnath & Mahmud, 2014:1025; Hossain, 1988:9), which found mass acceptance by the poor using its microcredit schemes to alleviate poverty and is now a global model for poverty alleviation. In terms of social outreach as a form of growth in the activities and influence of NGOs, Bradach (2003: Paragraph4) indicates that the goal of replication is to duplicate successful results. The link here is that duplication of successful results allows for increased outreach across geographical locations and accessing more beneficiaries. Jowett and Dyer (2012:733) affirm that replication plays a significant role in expanding the effect and influence of NGOs. Thus, replication is an effective tool for NGO growth and expansion.

The next section will present a discussion of building relationships and partnerships.

3.4.2.6.2 *Building relationships and partnerships*

Building network relationships and partnerships is of significant importance for social programmes and replicating activities of NGOs. According to Jowett (2010:11), replication offers an opportunity for NGOs and other stakeholders, like government, to come together to partner and replicate a programme through a replication path known

as mandated replication. Van Oudenhoven and Wazir (1998:13) see mandated replication as a top-down approach of replication sponsored by government, and is used when “a parent body wants to disseminate a prototype programme through the organisation under its jurisdiction”. Another view of replication aiding the building of partnerships is provided by Campbell et al. (2008:12–13) who affirm that local relationships and partnerships is a precondition for some organisations in their attempt to replicate their programmes. They further state that the success of a new site for replication is hinged on the leader’s ability to forge relationships among other important considerations. Furthermore, Weber, Leibniz and Demirtas (2015:22, 38) affirm that replicating through contractual partnerships allows the social organisation to share some responsibilities that assist in the new replication locations. Replication provides an opportunity for building new partnerships and networks with the goal to create the desired social effect.

The next section will present a discussion of the importance of stimulating market forces capability in NGO management.

3.4.2.7 The importance of stimulating market force capability in NGO management

The social effect or outcome is one of the major points of the importance of stimulating market forces in NGO management and this is discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of social effect or outcome.

3.4.2.7.1 Social effect or outcome

Stimulating market forces enable NGOs to attract more beneficiaries and stakeholders to create the desired social outcome. Bloom and Chatterji (2009:123) remark that stimulating market forces contribute positively to social change. Hassan (2015:28) states that in terms of economic market forces, civil society has a role to play as a new entrant in the provision of social and economic welfare services. Furthermore, O’Rourke (2005:115) studied market movements focusing on the strategies of NGOs to influence global production and consumption, and found that the initiatives led by NGOs are reducing markets for bad products while building new markets for products that are environmentally and socially friendly. It can be argued that NGOs are able to utilise several stimulating market force strategies to create the desired social outcome

that benefits society. This view is supported by Lyon and Maxwell (2008:4, 6–10) who affirm that NGOs are critical stakeholders who utilise both market and political forces to play a strategic role in CSR activities geared towards protecting the environment or creating social change. Thus, NGOs are able to have significant social influence in society by utilising effective stimulating market force strategies.

The next section will present a discussion of key determinants of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces as contained in the SCALERS model.

3.4.3 Key determinants of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces as contained in the SCALERS model

There are factors that influence the staffing, communicating, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs and these are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of factors that influence the staffing capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.1 Factors that influence the staffing capability of NGOs

The following are some of the factors that affect the staffing capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of available human resources as one of the factors that influences the staffing capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.1.1 Available human resources

Staffing capabilities is an essential part of the HR activities of NGOs. Staffing depends on human resources and is very important for an organisation (Venkatakrishnan, 2016:142). Human resources play a significant role in the staffing capability of the NGO. According to Kefis and Aspridis (2014:43), a key priority for managers of NGOs is the appropriate management of human resources. HR management involves the efficient management of employment relationships of the personnel or human resources of an organisation (Legge, 1995:62). In addition, Kefis and Aspridis (2014:46) affirm competitive advantage can be gained by NGOs who manage their human resources

correctly. Human resources comprise the foundation for the staffing capability of an NGO and if well managed it will enable the NGO to have the desired effect.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO type as one of the factors that influences the staffing capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.1.2 NGO type

The type of NGO plays a significant part in the staffing capability. This is significant because NGOs are known to be involved in diverse activities that require the reliance on human resources and various kinds of HR requirements. NGOs can be categorised based on their activities as either operational or campaign NGOs (Bromideh, 2011:198; Mostashari, 2005:3). According to Bromideh (2011:198), operational NGOs require vast resources in the form of voluntary labour, financial donations and other materials to boost their projects and programmes due to their large-scale activities, while campaign NGOs utilise similar kinds of resources with their campaigns with smaller quantities due to their small-scale activities (Willets, 2002: Paragraph32). These activities and NGO types play a key role in determining the staffing capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of available financial resources and non-financial motivations as one of the factors that influences the staffing capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.1.3 Available financial resources and non-financial motivations

The financial resources available to NGOs in terms of funding and motivations of NGO staff play a key role in the staffing capability of the NGO (Kefis & Aspridis, 2014:48–49; Lekorwe & Mpabanga, 2007:2). It is important to add that in Nigeria, NGOs can be self-funded or funded by donor agencies (Omfonmwan & Odia, 2009:247) and this can reflect in their ability to meet their staffing needs adequately. Other factors that influence NGO staffing are the motivations of staff as evidence suggests the staff of an NGO is motivated to work for the NGOs due to several reasons, such as unselfish interests and ideology (Werker & Ahmed, 2008:77), financial gains and skills acquisition (Uzuegbunam, 2013:209). Therefore, financial resources and personal motivations of staff contribute to the staffing capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of factors that influence the communicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.2 *Factors that influence the communicating capability of NGOs*

The following are some of the factors that affect the communicating capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of organisational goal as one of the factors that influences the communicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.2.1 *Organisational goal*

The organisational goal is a key factor in organisational communication. According to Grusenmeyer (2001:5–6), goals and objectives are the small steps taken by organisations and provide the road map utilised by the organisation to enable the organisation to achieve its mission and vision. Banihashemi (2011:14) affirms that for proper communication, managers must have a complete plan based on their host environment and organisational demand in addition to the choice of the communication channel of the organisation. Turkalj and Fosić (2009:33) affirm that for organisational objectives to be achieved, communication is necessary between employees and various levels of organisational command within the organisation. Organisational goals provide the direction for organisational communication as they contain the intention of the organisation and inform the required actions to be taken by the organisation. A typical example of an organisational goal is the communication of organisational values to employees through managerial communication (Malbašić & Brčić, 2012:99). For NGOs, the organisational goal may be informed by the kind of operations carried out by the NGO and the nature of engagement of the NGO, which include co-operation, confrontation, consultation and communication (which in this case is one-sided, i.e. corporate sustainability reporting) (Nelson, 2007:8). Organisational goals influence the type of communication utilised by the organisation and the expected feedback.

The next section will present a discussion of communication budget as one of the factors that influences the communicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.2.2 *Communication budget*

The communication budget is vital for the sustenance of effective communication in an organisation. According to Buratto (2002:89), budget allotment is the first stage of

planning when organising several communication tools, which constitute the marketing strategy of the organisation. Mulugeta (2015: v) affirms that budget plays a key role in communication. Silver (2003:47–48) explains that finance plays a key role in a strategic media campaign as money devoted to press relations will likely result in more media coverage. In addition, Silver (2003:48) further states that with limited budgets, organisations can rely on leadership commitment, which can also assist in getting good media coverage. Although a marketing budget is important for an NGO, Tavernier (2013:18) claims that some NGOs are adopting no-budget marketing because of a lack of resources to market their services. The communication budget as a planning tool is important as it allows NGOs with huge resources and NGOs that lack resources to adopt a communication medium that suits their objectives and at the same time meets the affordability requirement of the NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of organisational structure as one of the factors that influences the communicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.2.3 Organisational structure

Organisational structure plays a significant role in terms of how communication occurs within the organisation. According to Lunenburg (2010b:1), the communication patterns within an organisation can be attributed to the structure of the organisation. According to Lunenburg (2012:1), within an organisation structure, there are various departments such as the manufacturing department, sales department and marketing department. Lunenburg (2012:1) further emphasises that departments are connected to produce an organisational structure. According to Tran and Tian (2013:231), several organisational structures can be adopted by an organisation for communication purposes. The type of communication that takes place within an organisational structure can be characterised as downward communication, upward communication and horizontal communication, among others (Felle, 2011:9–11, 32; Lunenburg, 2010b:1; Verma, 2013:63–65). Verma (2013:64) affirms that in downward communication, the movement of information is from the top to the bottom. Verma (2013:64) further states that downward communication contains information that is of a management nature to implement and achieve the organisational goals, and this information can take the form of directives and instructions from the supervising authority to the staff of the organisation. Other features of downward communication is that it is the most significant type of communication in an organisation and it forms the basis for other

types of communication such as upward and horizontal communication (Verma, 2013:64). In distinguishing the other forms of communication, Felle (2011:10) affirms that upward communication represents information that flows upwards via various levels of management with the view to provide facts regarding an issue, while horizontal communication is coordination-based and may flow crossways or transversely across various forms of communication (Lunenburg, 2010b:5). The communication capability of an organisation reflects the organisational structures adopted by the organisation, which also suit the communication purpose of the organisation.

The next section presents a discussion of factors that influence the alliance-building capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.3 Factors that influence the alliance-building capability of NGOs

The following are some of the factors that affect the alliance-building capability of NGOs.

The next section presents a discussion of organisational culture as one of the factors that influences the alliance-building capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.3.1 Organisational culture

The organisational culture of NGOs determines how they relate with other organisations in the course of carrying out their social functions. Organisational culture “is the set of shared beliefs, values, norms that influence the way members think, feel, and behave” (Lunenburg, 2011:1). According to Dahan et al. (2010:336, 339), organisational culture is very important for collaboration between NGOs and corporate organisations. Dahan et al. (2010:336) further states that, in the past, several alliances between NGOs and corporate organisations failed due to fundamental differences in organisational culture and a lack of trust despite complementary organisational capabilities. Emphasising the importance of organisational culture in alliance-building, Østergaard and Nielsen (2005:2) affirm that an established culture of collaboration has an influence on the networking activities of NGOs. This shows that some organisations have a history of collaboration and have been learning from the collaborations, which have made these organisations experienced in matters of collaboration. Organisational culture is a very important consideration in alliances, and the alignment of organisational cultures is very important in the alliance-building capability of NGOs.

The next section presents a discussion of organisational objectives as one of the factors that influences the alliance-building capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.3.2 Organisational objectives

Organisational objectives play a key role in the alliance-building capability of NGOs. According to Holmberg and Cummings (2009:164), despite the importance of successful strategic business alliances in various industry settings, many strategic alliances are unable to satisfy the objectives of their collaborators. Organisational objectives are part of the organisational goals, and they represent incremental steps that show how organisations will actualise the defined organisational goals (Tosti & Jackson, 2003:3). According to Altenburg (2005:2), “strategic alliances in development cooperation pursue objectives in diverse fields ...” This shows clearly the importance of shared objectives in building alliances. In addition, Nelson (2007:29) affirms that there are partnerships between NGOs and other stakeholders with shared objectives of promoting enterprise development, reducing poverty and entrenching responsible and competitive business practices of big and small firms. The objectives of NGOs and those of their potential partner are critical for the forming and survival of established alliances or partnerships.

The next section will present a discussion of shared needs as one of the factors that influence the alliance-building capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.3.3 Shared needs

Shared needs of an NGO and its partner have a significant effect on the partnership relationship. For example, businesses partner with NGOs and this form of partnership is referred to as business–NGO partnership (Gray & Stites, 2013:22). In this relationship, both organisations (for profit and not for profit) have certain assets (tangible and intangible assets) while also deriving other required assets through collaboration (Dahan et al., 2010:327, 330–331; Graf & Rothlauf, 2011:2). Dahan et al. (2010: 330–331) affirm that in a partnership between NGOs and companies, they can assist each other with missing capabilities to complement each other’s business model or they can create new capabilities based on the partnership. In terms of assets, Graf and Rothlauf (2011:2) say that NGOs are well known for their ideological goals and have reputational and authenticity which are intangible assets that are difficult to quantify, that they bring to alliances. Dahan et al. (2010:330–331) affirm that NGOs could bring

market expertise, legitimacy with clients, civil society players and other assets to a partnership. It is the identification of individual organisational capacity and shared needs that determine the selection of the partner or the type of partnership. Furthermore, Gray and Stites (2013:18) affirm that NGOs offer a link between businesses and the community while Dahan et al. (2010: 330–331) reveal that multinational enterprises encounter challenges when accessing developing countries and partnering with NGOs, which provide an opportunity to aid new forms of value creation with mutual benefits for both organisations. NGOs also benefit from partnerships in terms of finance, knowledge and outreach (Dahan et al., 2010:330; Van der Heul, 2012:2; Zamir et al., 2014:37). In a partnership, both organisations have shared needs, which when met, allow for mutual benefits.

The next section will present a discussion of factors that influence the lobbying capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.4 Factors that influence the lobbying capability of NGOs

The following are some of the factors that affect the lobbying capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO leadership as one of the factors that influence the lobbying capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.4.1 NGO leadership

NGO leadership is a significant determinant in an NGO lobbying capability. According to Luff (2015:3), “strengthening NGO influence on policy, strategy, or plans” is among NGO leadership roles in clusters. Leadership “is a process of social influence, which maximises the efforts of others, towards the achievement of a goal” (Kruse, 2013:3). According to Hailey (2006:2), four types of NGO leaders exist, namely paternalistic, activist, managerialist and catalytic leaders. It is the activist leaders who focus on advocacy and lobbying activities (Hailey, 2006:3). Hailey (2006:3) affirms that activist leaders are able to advocate their views to the relevant stakeholders to achieve the expected lobbying outcome. Ghore (2013:10) carried out a study on NGO leadership and human rights, and indicates that NGO leadership must show that the NGO’s advocacy activities among other activities are credible and also necessary in the pursuit of the NGO’s core mandate in society. NGO leadership manages the lobbying

capability process of the NGO while ensuring that credibility is guaranteed in all the activities of the NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of networking with other NGOs as one of the factors that influence the lobbying capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.4.2 Networking with other NGOs

Networking with other NGOs has a positive influence on NGO lobbying capability. According to Ivanov (1997:1), networking is “broadly defined as a structured communication for the achievement of similar goals in the conditions of interdependence”. According to Holmén (2002:1), networking is a recommended strategy for NGOs to achieve performance and to create the desired social effect. Abelson (2003:9) affirms that networks play a strategic role in representing their members to advocate for policy change. Abelson (2003:9) further states that some networks mediate with their government for favourable legislation to enable their members to work effectively in achieving their goals. Moreover, Hennieke (2014:1) says there is evidence that NGOs benefit from indirect ties to networks and the positive side-effects come from indirect relationships with powerful NGOs that serve as advisers to expert groups of the European Commission. According to Hennieke (2014:4), the European Commission “created a system of advisory expert panels across its various policy areas to acquire technical information for their function in the EU institutions to develop political and legal initiatives”. In addition and considering the networking effect on NGOs in the EU, Lee (2006:4) affirm that NGOs and national NGO networks have contributed considerably to the development of European policy. Lee (2006:4) further state that due to the structure of the EU, small NGOs are unable to be part of policy cycles that are influential as in terms of finance, only very large NGOs can maintain a major presence in the EU headquarters in Brussels. Using networks is one of the key strategies utilised by NGOs (Yasuda, 2015:17) and the sharing of resources is one of the major reasons for the creation of networks (Rhodes, 2007:1243–1250). This shows that NGOs in a network can have a bigger effect compared to NGOs who are lobbying independently for a cause with collaborative support. Networking offers many advantages for NGOs and increased lobbying capability is one of these.

The next section will present a discussion of financial resources as one of the factors that influence the lobbying capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.4.3 Financial resources

Financial resources play a significant role in the running of an NGO and, more specifically, its lobbying activities. Financial resources represent funds available for immediate use.

The lack of financial resources has negative consequences as Lekorwe and Mpabanga (2007:2) affirm that inadequate financial resources could negatively affect the capability of an NGO to lobby among other NGO functions. On the other hand and focusing on NGOs with financial resources, Fitzgerald (2007:2) affirms that NGOs that are well funded and powerful wield considerable political influence in Australia. In addition, Carey (2009:p.iii) states that the NGO advocacy process needs both adequate staff and financial resources and proper preparation in the form of budgeting and fundraising. Schmid, Bar and Nirel (2008:597) suggest that in order to start the process of social and political change, NGOs must focus their resources on political activities using various sources of funds to increase their financial independence. Financial resources are essential for all NGO activities and the availability of a lobbying budget with adequate financial resources available enables an NGO to lobby effectively.

The next section will present a discussion of factors that influence the earning generation capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.5 Factors that influence the earning generation capability of NGOs

The following are some of the factors that affect the earnings-generation capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of strategic financial planning as one of the factors that influence the earning generation capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.5.1 Strategic financial planning

Strategic planning increases the earnings-generation capability of an NGO. MacLeod, León and Esquivias (2001:11) opine that strategic planning involves an organisation stating how they intend to work within a defined period while integrated strategic financial planning reveals the comparison of the implementation cost of the activities of the organisation with the available organisational resources to accomplish them. This means that strategic financial planning involves the detailed planning of the activities of an organisation and ensuring that they align with the available resources of the

organisation. Furthermore, León (2001:7) suggests the need for organisations to know the amount of resources required to achieve their respective missions and to take care of their administrative cost. In emphasising the importance of strategic financial planning in NGO financial sustainability, Bray (2010:46, 45–69) affirms that one of the main challenges that non-profit organisations are encountering today stems from the lack of strategic financial planning. In a study carried out by NGOs in Malawi, Malunga (2009: ix) found that only 46% of the NGO sampled implemented its strategic financial plans. The lack of financial planning reduces the ability of NGOs to manage their expenses and available resources. Malunga (2009: ix) suggests that for NGOs to improve their effectiveness with strategic financial planning, they must be less dependent on non-developmental donor funding. A lack of strategic financial planning hampers the capability of an NGO to manage its resources carefully and affects the earning generation capability of the NGO due to the inability of the NGO to identify the amount of resources required for its operations.

The next section will present a discussion of diversification of sources of funds as one of the factors that influence the earning generation capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.5.2 Diversification of sources of funds

The diversification of sources of funds is a key determinant of the earnings-generation capability of NGOs. According to León (2001:16), **income diversification** refers to the number of income sources that contributes to the income of an organisation. Furthermore, Carroll and Stater (2009:947) observe that revenue diversification has a positive effect on income by stabilising the income and ensuring that the organisation remains viable for a long time. Alymkulova and Seipulnik (2005:2) assert that sustainability in NGO funding relies on reducing the dependency on any single source of income whether it is generated internally or externally. Income diversification expands the funding options of an NGO with the ability to maintain its financial sustainability. Income diversification further focuses on different kinds of sources of funding, such as donors or government funding (León, 2001:16; McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014:1; Sherlock & Gravelle, 2009:5; Viravaidya & Hayssen, 2001:i). León (2001:16) suggests that for NGOs to get income diversification correct, their funding strategy should not reflect the same source of funding by just increasing the number of funders (e.g. having more than five donors). Furthermore, Omeri (2015:713) affirms that there

is difficulty in ascertaining the mix of different income sources to achieve the right mix for the diversification of fund sources. Thus, diversification of funds is significant to NGOs, and NGOs should adopt the right diversification strategy that eliminates total dependence on a particular source of income in order to boost their earnings-generation capability.

The next section will present a discussion of the competence levels of the staff as one of the factors that influence the earning generation capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.5.3 Competence levels of the staff

Competent staff plays a leading role in the earnings-generation capability of an NGO. According to León (2001:17), managing organisational resources is very important in attaining financial sustainability. This is so because an organisation requires efficient management of available and scarce resources to achieve defined organisational goals. In addition, Omeri (2015:704) opines that NGOs require competent organisational and operational capacities to attain a high level of financial sustainability among other financial sustainability requirements. Furthermore, Omeri (2015:718) indicates, “there exists a causal relationship between financial sustainability and key factors associated with NGO management, leadership, ...”. Hailey (2006:3–4) distinguishes leadership from management and states that leadership provides strategic focus while the manager’s roles are operational and administrative with specific focus on planning, implementing and monitoring. Still focusing on the influences of leadership and management staff on financial sustainability with regard to earnings-generation, Okorley and Nkrumah (2012:330) affirm that supportive leadership and effective management are among the key organisational factors influencing the sustainability of local NGOs in Ghana. Kamaria and Lewis (2009:296) confirm that in the not-for-profit (NFP) sector, senior management staff holds crucial responsibilities with respect to addressing issues relating to fiscal management issues. Kamaria and Lewis (2009:296) further affirm that sought-after competencies for NFPOs with respect to senior management positions are fundraising experiences and skills, governance, interpersonal skills, communication and budget, among other competencies necessary for the efficient management of the organisation. The staff competencies of NGOs are crucial to financial sustainability with management and leadership playing a leading role.

The next section will present a discussion of factors that influence the replicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.6 *Factors that influence the replicating capability of NGOs*

The following are some of the factors that affect the replicating capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of access to finance/availability of funds as one of the factors that influence the replicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.6.1 *Access to finance/availability*

Finance is a significant organisational resource and determinant in the capability of NGOs to replicate. Abok, Waititu, Ogutu and Ragui (2013:296) affirm that there is a relationship between implementation of strategic plans and resources among NGOs in Kenya. Access to finance plays a key role in the replication of social programmes (Berelowitz et al., 2013:19). Furthermore, evidence from Campbell et al. (2008:2) affirms that in getting replication right, NPOs must ensure that their organisations and finances are strong. Finance has a strategic role in the ability of an NGO to replicate effectively due to the logistics involved and the operational cost (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph 32–34). Thus, finance plays a critical role in affecting the capacity of an NGO to replicate successfully.

The next section will present a discussion of human resources and NGO staff management as one of the factors that influence the replicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.6.2 *Human resources and NGO staff management*

The availability of quality human resources in an NGO plays a significant role in determining the replicating capability of an NGO. According to Mavra (2011:19), the internal support of different categories of staff (management and non-management) of a social enterprise with the idea of replication is significant for the replication process. Mavra (2011:19) further states that staff who sense that they are alone in championing the replication drive without the support of other staff, experiences serious challenges in the form of “personal commitment and capacity demanded of them”. This shows the need for internal cooperation among management and non-management staff in the replication of successful programmes. Moreover, Berelowitz et al. (2013:24) observe that a significant number of organisations will want to replicate with existing staff, but due to the nature of additional work associated with certain forms of replication they

require more staff inputs and more staff is often required. Staff strength matters in replication activities as there is a need to have more project personnel (Campbell et al., 2008:5, 13–14). Campbell et al. (2008:17–18) affirm that in the beginning of replication, staff support in the form of training for the inexperienced and assistance with the management structure should be provided. In terms of training for replication activities, Jowett (2010:16) affirms there is a need to set standards for teachers and support staff when replicating educational programmes. In emphasising the importance of training for NGOs and knowledge management, Hurley and Green (2005:1–2) assert that a major issue associated with the replication of successful programmes by NGOs is the lack of critical knowledge to manage the replication of the programmes. Hurley and Green (2005:1–2) argue that, without a dedicated system that encourages the extraction and sharing of relevant knowledge, NGOs might not constantly have a competitive advantage in society.

NGO' staff plays a critical role in the replication of successful programmes and key attention should be paid to in entrenching a cooperative culture among staff, increasing staff strength, training and proper knowledge management to enable the staff contribute positively to the replication process.

The next section will present a discussion of networks and partnerships as one of the factors that influence the replicating capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.6.3 Networks and partnerships

The network of NGOs plays a key role as a determinant in the replicating capability of NGOs. The network relationship indicates the partnership, and cooperation with other likeminded NGOs (Dershem, Dagargulia, Saganelidze & Roels, 2011:5, 9) and other partners (Bobenrieth & Stibbe, 2010:1; Clark, 1993:Abstract section, paragraph 2; Dahan et al., 2010:330–331; Lister, 2000:227–231) allows NGOs to obtain the necessary capabilities to achieve their desired social effect (Bobenrieth et al., 2010:6; Liebler & Ferri, 2004:4–7). In emphasising the importance of partnerships and positive interactions, Edwards and Hulme (1995:1–2) argue that it will be difficult for NGOs to achieve their objectives without any form of partnership. In addition, evidence by Van Oudenhoven and Wazir (1998:24) and also Jowett and Dyer (2012:733) suggests that networking, such as outcome-oriented networking can be a tool for replication despite the issues of the network (Van Oudenhoven & Wazir, 1998:24). Van Oudenhoven and

Wazir (1998:25) further add that guidance from a centralised power is required to organise the activities of the network in order to sustain the process and solve some issues, such as high costs of meetings. Still on partnership and specifically partnership with government, Klees (1998:53) says that, for NGOs to achieve successful replication across communities, they will need support from government.

The next section will present a discussion of factors that influence the stimulating market force capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.7 Factors that influence stimulating market force capability of NGOs

The following are some of the factors that affect the stimulating market force capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of relevant products and services as one of the factors that influence the stimulating market force capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.7.1 Relevant products and services

Relevant products and services offered by NGOs to meet the needs of their beneficiaries or clients are a key factor that influence the stimulating market force capability of NGOs. Gneiting (2008:38) remarks that, based on the market goal to provide welfare for several people, some persons will not benefit from the market forces because they do not fit into the demand and supply criteria of the market actors. Gneiting (2008:38) further states that the response of NGOs to this situation where not all the welfare needs of prospective beneficiaries or clients can be met is to move their resources to prospective beneficiaries or clients and locations, which their available resources can assist. Furthermore, Worsham (2011: Paragraph 3) asserts that stimulating market forces extend over other organisational capabilities, such as communicating, alliance-building and the ability to show the influence of products or services. Relevant products or services enable NGOs to provide the right incentives for beneficiaries or clients and expand the benefits for all key stakeholders.

The next section will present a discussion of NGO independence from donor funding as one of the factors that influence the stimulating market force capability of NGOs.

3.4.3.7.2 NGO independence from donor funding

The ability of NGOs to be financially independent from donor funding greatly influences the stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs. Werker and Ahmed (2008:89–90) affirm that, as NGOs generate their own income and become less reliant on donor funding, they are better positioned for the utilisation of market forces beyond donor preferences. Aldashev and Navarra (2014:21) affirm that the dependence on donor funding by NGOs (international and local) have negative consequences for NGOs as the incentives of NGOs are greatly influenced by the donors. Donor funding influences and restricts the capability of NGOs to be innovative and to respond to the changing market demands of their clients and beneficiaries.

The next section will present a discussion of understanding challenges in terms of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces of NGOs as reflected in the SCALERS model.

3.4.4 Understanding challenges in terms of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces of NGOs as reflected in the SCALERS model

NGOs face several challenges in their attempt to have a positive influence in society. According to Aksel and Baran (2006:67–71) and Bromideh (2011:197), NGOs experience diverse organisational problems as they carry out various forms of development activities in general. Aksel and Baran (2006:67–71) and Bromideh (2011:197) further state that some of the organisational challenges that NGOs face can be summarised as internal and external management challenges. Internal management challenges are related to human resources, governing structure of the organisation, financial and strategic planning, budgeting as well as growth and change within the organisation. With regard to external management challenges that NGOs face, Aksel and Baran (2006:67–71) and Bromideh (2011:197) indicate that NGOs face issues of registration, management of relations with other NGOs, corporate bodies, communities and government and internationalisation issues. These internal and external management challenges are discussed further to provide the background to and relationship with the specific organisational capabilities as contained in the adapted SCALERS model utilised in this study.

In terms of staffing, Padaki (2007:65) remarks that staffing is a very important matter for NGOs and the “failure to develop the staff on whom a development organisation ultimately depends carries far greater risks” for organisations that depend on external funding rather than being self reliant. Staffing is a significant organisational capability that reflects the ability of an organisation to acquire quality human resources to meet the organisational needs (Kim & Ployhart, 2014:361). Staffing challenges for NGOs take the form of an inability to recruit and retain competent staff, inadequate HR policies and procedures, inadequate HR skills among supervisors, the presence of leadership gaps or a leadership crisis, among other forms of staffing challenges (Batti, 2014b:90–92; Desai, 2003:27–33; Padaki, 2007:65). Based on staffing challenges experienced by NGOs, the negative outcomes and consequences of staffing challenges affect the performance and sustainability of the NGO (Batti, 2014b:87). The possible steps to resolve these HR challenges as suggested by Padaki (2007:65) require “vision, leadership and hands-on engagement”. To sum up, staffing remains an important issue for NGOs and there is a need to address the challenges associated with staffing in order to maintain organisational performance and sustainability.

In terms of communication and with reference to the importance of stakeholder relationships, Jeffery (2009:8) says, “organisations can no longer choose if they want to engage with stakeholders or not; the only decision they need to take is when and how successfully to engage”. Stakeholder interaction plays a significant role in effective communication between NGOs and their stakeholders. According to Jeffery (2009:33–38), stakeholder engagement allows the NGO to understand the needs of the stakeholders and to fashion out the right strategies to meet the various needs of the stakeholders. Stakeholders’ communication challenges with beneficiaries take the form of:

- non-beneficiary-friendly organisational systems (e.g. bureaucratic systems and a lack of learning systems);
- operational constraints (e.g. programme adaptation and not prioritising communication);
- non-beneficiary-friendly policies (e.g. a policy of accountability to the beneficiaries);
- HR constraints (e.g. a lack of appropriate or knowledgeable field staff);
- a lack of access to information by beneficiaries;

- a lack of speed (e.g. increasing the speed of information management); and
- relevance of information (Boas, 2008:61; International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, 2011:2).

The communication challenges between NGOs and donors take the form of inadequate networking skills, negligible communication and branding and a lack of awareness of funding opportunities (Batti, 2014a:60). Based on these communication challenges, NGOs are unable to work effectively with donors to access the required funding for their programmes (Batti, 2014a:60) and also with beneficiaries in order to provide quality services to their beneficiaries (Boas, 2008:3–4, 59–69). As part of measures to solve NGO communication challenges with donors and beneficiaries, Batti (2014a:61) advocates for more effective communication and an active leadership role in the NGO–donor relationship while Boas (2008:78–79) suggests that clear policies and guidelines supporting communication with beneficiaries should be developed in addition to using well-trained supportive staff. Thus, NGO communication is very important to beneficiaries as it increases NGO visibility and accountability to beneficiaries and donors, programme quality and NGO sustainability (Batti, 2014a:60; Boas, 2008:3–4, 59–69; Ngini, 2004:183).

In terms of alliance-building, Lombard and Du Preez (2014:231) affirm, “the primary goal of partnerships in social development is to strategically join efforts to reduce poverty, address inequalities and social injustices through the redistribution of resources, and through social and economic development programmes”. NGOs are known to partner with government (Avolio-Toly, 2010:3; Smillie, Helmich, Randel & German, 2013:3–7), corporate bodies (Amadi, 2013:Paragraph 1–4; Dahan et al., 2010: 330–331; Idemudia, 2016:265; Leite & Latifi, 2016:83) and other NGOs (Dershem et al., 2011:5, 9; Liebler & Ferri, 2004:4–7; Østergaard & Nielsen, 2005:2). In the course of collaborating with other organisations, NGOs encounter several partnership challenges. These partnership challenges take the form of –

- redefining partnerships;
- agreement on the social development agenda;
- differences between the two sectors on the significance of innovation;
- disagreement relating to the value of corporate non-financial support and shared measurements;

- communication on the outcomes of the partnership; and
- compatibility of goals and culture (Amadi, 2013: Paragraph 8–9; Dahan et al., 2010:336; Lombard and Du Preez, 2014:231).

In addition, these alliance-building challenges can affect the capability of NGOs to build successful alliances and network relationships (Amadi, 2013: Paragraph 8–9; Dahan et al., 2010:336). In order to resolve alliance-building challenges, Lombard and Du Preez (2014:234–238) suggest each form and type of partnership should be treated differently by carefully planning, designing, negotiating and maintaining the partnership. Thus, alliance-building remains an important consideration for NGOs and there is a need to tackle challenges associated with alliance-building effectively to enable NGOs to maintain long-term beneficial alliances.

In terms of lobbying, Stoddard (2009:3) affirms, “NGOs’ efforts in advocacy are directed at governments, to effect policy change, and at the general public, to educate and build constituencies behind certain values and ideas”. NGO lobbying plays an important role in society and enables NGOs to influence policies, protect public interest and improve human rights conditions (Bevir et al., 2013:163–171; Bingham, 2016:294; Rietig, 2011:3; Szarka, 2013:12). In the course of their lobbying activities, NGOs encounter several challenges. These lobbying challenges take the form of inefficient lobbying strategies, a lack of sharing of information voluntarily, time-consuming processes, foreign funding, technical expertise (Arifon, 2016:119; Holmén, 2002:1; Omungo, 2013:77; Shah, 1996:48–51). In addition, these challenges can affect the lobbying capability of NGOs to influence policies and protect public interests in society (Arifon, 2016:119; Holmén, 2002:1; Omungo, 2013:77; Shah, 1996:48–51). In order to resolve NGO lobbying challenges, Arifon (2016:142) suggests that NGOs should have well-defined activities and goals and their actions should be precise and of high quality to achieve efficient lobbying.

In terms of earnings-generation, Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001: i) affirm that NGOs are known to rely on “the goodwill and generosity of others to cover the costs of their activities through grants and donations”. Furthermore, evidence by Omofonmwan and Odia (2009:247) and also Vaceková and Svidroňová (2014:122–123) affirms that some NGOs are able to self-finance themselves. For NGOs, earnings and revenue generation from various sources plays an important role in providing the necessary financial

resources for the financial sustainability of the NGOs (Hendrickse, 2008: iii; Omeri, 2015:704). In the course of their earning or revenue generating activities, NGOs have been known to encounter difficulty in generating sustainable funding. Some of the earnings-generation challenges faced by NGOs across various countries are decreased donor funding, reduced amounts for social programmes, donor focus on new markets, difficult donor requirements and a lack of domestic sources of funding (Alymkulova & Seipulnik, 2005:2; Barasa, Sang & Wawire, 2015:79; Parks, 2008:213). In addition, these challenges and instability in NGO funding could affect the capability to carry out their defined social programmes to create the desired social outcomes in society (Parks, 2008:213). Furthermore, Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001: i) affirm that inadequate funding cause NGOs to reduce the quantity or quality of work being done while requiring the NGO to look for alternative sources of funding. Hofisi and Hofisi (2013:523) argue that a reduction of funding and complex funding requirements have forced rural NGOs in the health sector in South Africa to reduce the size of their workforce while others have shut down operations. In order to resolve NGO earning generation challenges and increase their sustainability, Ramakrishna (2013:45, 51) suggests that NGOs must be developed (i.e. have a focus on humanitarian issues, developmental aid and sustainable development), and they must prepare to face fresh challenges such as shortages and stoppages of funds. Furthermore, Omeri (2015:704) identifies the diversification of funds, competence levels of staff and strategic financial planning as having a significant influence on the sustainability of NGOs.

In terms of replication, Jowett and Dyer (2012:733–736) affirm that replication is a significant approach in increasing the influence of an NGO. Replication plays a critical role in enabling an NGO achieve its social outcome goals using its intervention programmes to benefit more geographical locations and access more beneficiaries. An example of replicated programmes in various sectors and areas are:

- environmental programmes (Creech, 2008:17; Mohan, Castro, Pullanikkatil, Savitzky, Teklu, De Souza & Fisher, 2014:5);
- educational programmes (Jagannathan, 2001:4, 11; Jowett, 2010:19, 31–34; Pick, Givaudan & Reich, 2008:164); and
- health-based programmes, like HIV/AIDS intervention programmes (Han et al., 2010:ii49; Rachlis et al., 2013:13–16).

In the course of carrying out their replicating activities, NGOs have been known to encounter several challenges regarding the replication processes. These replicating challenges faced by NGOs in various sectors and countries take the form of extra resources and funding for new sites, adapting to new contexts, limited government support, limited donor funding, rapid time scales and disagreements at management level (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph3; Chambers, 2009:3–4; Díaz, Simmons, Díaz, Cabral & Chinaglia, 2007:139–149; Hossain & Sengupta, 2009:3; Nsutebu, Walley, Mataka & Simon, 2001:240, 246). These aforementioned replicating challenges could also affect the capability of NGOs to replicate successful social programmes for the benefit of more beneficiaries and more locations (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph3; Chambers, 2009:3–4; Díaz et al., 2007:139–149). In order to resolve NGO replication challenges, Samoff, Dembélé and Sebatane (2011: iii) suggest consideration for the replication of educational initiatives, which include having charismatic leadership, adequate funding, strong local demand for programmes or interventions. These could be adopted in other sectors to reduce replication challenges and to boost replication activities.

In order to resolve NGO replication challenges and increase replication success, Oddsdóttir (2014:2) says serious consideration must be given to politics, implementing partners, capacity, leadership and evidence as key factors that aid successful replication.

In terms of stimulating market forces, Bloom and Chatterji (2009:123) affirm that these forces enable a social organisation to influence individuals or organisations using incentives to carry out personal activities to benefit society. Worsham (2011: Paragraph1) views stimulating market forces as a continuing engagement. Ramakrishna (2013:43) opines that NGOs could use incentives to reach the poor, such as providing information on market opportunities, information on sources of credit and training facilities to maintain engagement with beneficiaries. NGOs providing the right incentives play a key role in influencing NGO performance positively (Green & Huttner, 2014: Paragraph3, 4). In the course of providing incentives for their beneficiaries and partners, NGOs have been known to encounter several difficulties with their stimulating market force activities. Some of the stimulating market force challenges faced by NGOs take the form of beneficiaries not being able to use market forces to reward or penalise NGOs (inadequate feedback) and market failures, multiple accountability (Alexander, 2007:29; Gneiting, 2008:38; Werker & Ahmed, 2008:78). In

addition, these stimulating market force (incentive) challenges could affect the ability of NGOs to create the right incentives that encourage persons or institutions to pursue private interest while also serving public good (Werker & Ahmed, 2008:77–78; Williamson, 2010:17).

In order to resolve the stimulating market challenges of NGOs, Gneiting (2008:40) suggests that incentives bordering on empowerment and feedback (new rating mechanisms for NGOs) of beneficiaries must be encouraged. Furthermore, Edwards, Hulme and Wallace (1999:4–5) suggest that NGOs must carry out their activities on a large scale, which involves linking micro-and macro-forces together in a logical way (e.g. encouraging ethical consumption and encouraging other stakeholders to be socially responsible) and removing intermediaries by having direct consultations with beneficiaries to increase the benefits for beneficiaries.

In conclusion, organisational capability challenges are very serious issues affecting NGOs and their activities in general. Although a general view of organisational capability challenges across various contexts have been provided, some of these organisational capability challenges affect youth-serving NGOs and their activities in Nigeria and these are specifically discussed in the next section. This study focused on the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in terms of the SCALERS model, namely staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces.

The next section will present a discussion of challenges in terms of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces experienced by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

3.4.5 Challenges in terms of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces experienced by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria

The following are some of the organisational capability challenges with regard to staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces experienced by youth-serving NGOs in their attempt to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of staffing challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.

3.4.5.1 Staffing challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs

Staffing challenges are one of the organisational capability challenges that youth-serving NGOs face in Nigeria. Aransiola (2013:175) found that NGOs offering support services for street children were poorly staffed with “some of the NGOs having 2 staff and others at most having 7 staff members”. Iwuchukwu, Nwankwo and Igbokwe (2014:26) mention that one of the limitations hampering the activities of youth poverty alleviation-focused NGOs is poor remuneration of NGO staff. Furthermore, Arum (2010:278) studied women NGOs and women empowerment in Nigeria and found that some of the founders of the women NGOs lacked managerial skills to pilot the affairs of NGOs and to have a positive effect on the lives of women (including young women). It can be argued that staffing has been a major challenge facing youth-serving NGOs in their attempt to carry out meaningful activities to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. This view is supported by Odukoya et al. (2006:28, 41) who studied the contributions of non-formal education in terms of HIV prevention in Nigeria with a focus on an inventory of NGO practices. They found that several NGOs using NFE interventions to combat HIV/AIDS in Nigeria, which have youths as the major beneficiaries, were experiencing several challenges with inadequate staffing being one of the challenges. Thus, youth-serving NGOs encounter staffing challenges such as inadequate staff in their quest to alleviate the suffering of the youth.

The next section will present a discussion of communication challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.

3.4.5.2 Communication challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs

Youth-serving NGOs involved in youth poverty alleviation activities in Nigeria experience some communication challenges as they embark on these activities. Nwogu (2014:10) studied anti-trafficking interventions in Nigeria using the principal agent model (Laffont & Martimort, 2009:8) and noted one of the issues of anti-trafficking intervention in Nigeria is the lack of accountability whereby key actors – which include youth-serving NGOs – are not accountable to beneficiaries. This results in them missing out on critical feedback that could inform the design of useful interventions or the rendering of quality services. Youth-serving NGOs thus encounter communication

challenges in the form of a lack of accountability to beneficiaries where the necessary feedback is not received from the beneficiaries to improve stakeholders such as interventions by youth-serving NGOs to alleviate the suffering of the youth in Nigeria with regard to anti-trafficking issues.

The next section will present a discussion of alliance-building challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.

3.4.5.3 Alliance-building challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs

Youth-serving NGOs have some alliance-building challenges in their attempt to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. Kasali et al. (2015:65) explored whether microfinance has an effect on poverty alleviation in Nigeria, and found that NGOs, such as LAPO and the YES initiative in Minna (Minna is the capital of Niger State in North-Central Nigeria) were witnessing reduced support from development partners and this have affected their capability to provide the necessary microfinance loans to prospective beneficiaries. Thus youth-serving NGOs encounter alliance-building challenges in the form of reduced support from development partners in their drive to alleviate the suffering of youths using microfinance.

The next section will present a discussion of lobbying challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.

3.4.5.4 Lobbying challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs

Youth-serving NGOs encounter challenges in their attempt to lobby key stakeholders to assist in alleviating youth poverty in Nigeria. Momoh et al. (2015:1–2) considered the outcome of a reproductive health advocacy mentoring intervention by staff of selected NGOs in Nigeria and found that some of the NGOs lacked the capacity to negotiate with the state government. They also lacked a working system for influencing the policy formulation process and were unable to work together to act as an agent of change and to influence the political and social system to act for the benefit of their cause. Other major challenges were financial and time limitations (Momoh et al., 2015:6–7). Momoh et al. (2015:8) further state that the lobbying and advocacy challenges affected the effectiveness of NGOs to contribute positively to the reproductive health issues of adolescents and youths in Nigeria. Among the outcomes of the reproductive health advocacy mentoring for NGO staff were the provision of free

airtime by a television station to educate the public on reproductive and maternal health issues and the donation of a landed property to build a youth-friendly centre (Momoh et al., 2015:1). Youth-serving NGOs encounter lobbying challenges in the form of financial challenges, time limitations, a lack of capacity to negotiate with state government, a lack of an effective operational system for influencing the policy formulation process among other challenges in their drive to alleviate the suffering of the youth with regard to reproductive health issues.

The next section will present a discussion of earnings-generation challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.

3.4.5.5 *Earnings-generation challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs*

Youth-serving NGOs face the problem of inadequate funds in their attempt to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. Oyelude and Bamigbola (2013:106, 113–114) indicate that inadequate funding is a major constraint for NGOs providing empowerment to women, children and youths through the provision of access to information. Aransiola (2013:175) further adds that, due to a lack of government sponsorship, they had to rely “on personal funds, donations from willing individuals/organisations and occasional grants from international agencies”. Furthermore, Nwogu (2014:7–8) states that anti-trafficking NGOs focusing on at-risk youths have funding issues with donated funds not being sufficient to make a positive impression on the issue of trafficking Nigerian youths. In addition, Odukoya et al. (2006:31, 33–42) also state that a lack of funding is a major issue for NGOs focusing on youths with respect to NFE interventions to combat HIV/AIDS in Nigeria. It can be argued that youth-serving NGOs encounter earnings-generation challenges in their quest to alleviate the sufferings of the youth in Nigeria. This view is supported by Iwuchukwu et al. (2014:21) who interviewed beneficiaries on the factors limiting NGO activities with regard to agricultural training and other development initiatives, and found that inadequate funding was one of the constraints limiting the activities of the NGOs in Anambra State (in South-East Nigeria). Thus youth-serving NGOs encounter earnings-generation challenges such as inadequate funding, a lack of financial sponsorship from government and insufficient donations, which affect their capabilities to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of replication challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.

3.4.5.6 *Replication challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs*

Youth-serving NGOs face replication challenges in their quest to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. Mac-Ikemenjima (2005:1, 4) studied e-education in Nigeria focusing on the challenges and prospects and found that there was a need to replicate the efforts of the NGOs to make e-education available for the less privileged population, which includes the youth. Ohize and Adamu (2009:50–51) affirm the success of the YES initiative in providing training to the youth in some parts of Niger State, which has made them self-reliant, and advocated for the need to replicate the efforts of the NGOs in other local governments within the state. Furthermore, Patrick and Ijah (2012:1) remark that adult education practitioners have expressed their concerns about developing, implementing and replicating adult and NFE programmes to alleviate developmental challenges in developing countries like Nigeria. This affirms the non-replication of successful initiatives in needy areas despite the successes recorded in the various operating locations, thus comprising a challenge which hampers the fight against youth poverty. Focusing on HIV/AIDS and poverty alleviation intervention programmes, Samuels, Blake and Akinrimisi (2012:26–32) remark that NGOs play an active role by collaboration with key stakeholders to provide HIV/AIDS intervention programmes. These authors also affirm the need to build on existing successful programmes to replicate and scale up the successful social outcomes in order to expand the social protection for the deprived in society. On anti-trafficking, Nwogu (2014:11) says an NGO named Women Consortium of Nigeria (WOCON) located in Lagos State (in south-west Nigeria) was involved in replicating successful anti-trafficking programmes of NGOs in rural communities in Nigeria but there is a need for an impact assessment to ascertain the continued success of the programmes. Furthermore and on microfinance, Adepoju and Oyesanya (2014:53–58) studied the poverty alleviation strategies of Al-Hayat Relief Foundation (an NGO in Ijebu-Ode, Ogun State, Nigeria), which provides an interest-free loan scheme and a self-development scheme among other poverty alleviation schemes to about 6 000 members and found that there is a need to replicate the initiatives in other Muslim communities in Nigeria. It is important to add that the Al-Hayat Relief Foundation has 41 branches in south-west states in Nigeria, namely Ogun, Oyo, Lagos, Osun and Ondo, while they have one in Kwara State in North-Central Nigeria (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:53). This is one of the rare cases of replication that is worth emulating by all youth-serving NGOs. Despite this exemplary case, replication is still a challenge in Nigeria due to the

number of states, the geographical regions that need to be covered and the increasing number of poor youths who require urgent interventions to alleviate their unfortunate conditions. Therefore, replication challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs are an inability to replicate successful intervention programmes timely and non-provision of impact assessment of ongoing replication in other locations and with other beneficiaries. These challenges have affected the fight to eradicate youth poverty in Nigeria negatively.

The next section will present a discussion of stimulating market force challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs.

3.4.5.7 Stimulating market force challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs

Youth-serving NGOs encounter challenges in the use of incentives to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. Akpan, Patrick, James and Agom (2015:37) studied the determinants of decision and participation of rural youth in agricultural production with a focus on youths in the South-Western region of Nigeria and found that the incentives provided by key stakeholders in the sector – which include youth-serving NGOs – to encourage youths to participate in the agricultural sector were ineffective. Akpan et al. (2015:37) further state that the incentives were ineffective due insufficient involvement of youths in the agricultural sector in Nigeria. Therefore, some youth-serving NGOs experience stimulating market force challenges in the form of low youth involvement in intervention areas like the agricultural sector, which affect their capabilities to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs.

3.4.6 Measuring staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market force capabilities of NGOs

The organisational capabilities construct as contained in the SCALERS model (see Bloom & Smith, 2010:128) is a multi-dimensional concept consisting of staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, and replication and stimulating market forces. Three items were used to measure these organisational

capabilities as contained in the SCALERS model study (Bloom & Smith, 2010:128) and their measurements are based on the discussions below.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring staffing.

3.4.6.1 *Measuring staffing*

The ability of NGOs to meet their HR needs and fill organisational positions are the key components of measuring staffing and these are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of the NGO to meet human resource needs as a key aspect of measuring staffing.

3.4.6.1.1 *Ability of the NGO to meet human resource needs*

NGOs have specific HR requirements due to their sector form (NPOs) and these are very distinct. The labour requirements of NGOs are a function of NGO social sector activities and nature. In meeting the needs of the NGOs, managers of NGOs draw up the workforce requirements. According to Desai (2003:28–29) and Bloom and Chatterji (2009:117), staffing requirements in NGOs and social organisations involve paid staff, volunteers or a combination of paid staff and volunteers. According to Abushadi, Moore, Selim and Tutwiler (2015:6–7), paid staff working for an NGO gets paid for the time worked while a volunteer offers a selfless service for the benefit of others without getting paid for his or her services. Handy, Mook and Quarter (2008:76) affirm that paid staff and volunteers are collaborative components of the workforce of social sector organisations. Baride (2013:110) affirms that paid staff and voluntary staff are used by NGOs based on the level of professionalism of the NGO and formal structure of the NGO. Baride (2013:110) further indicates that professional NGOs make use of paid staff while less formalised NGOs use mostly volunteers. Volunteers and paid staff are significant aspects of NGO human resources, and the ability of NGOs to meet current staffing needs reflects positively on the staffing capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of the NGO to fill staff positions (management and non-management) as a key aspect of measuring staffing.

3.4.6.1.2 Ability of the NGO to fill staff positions (management and non-management)

Another aspect of HR requirements is the positions these staff occupy in the organisations. For the present study, NGO staff was classified based on positions they hold within the organisation, namely management and non-management positions. Management positions in NGOs are an important component of the staffing capability for social organisations (Bloom & Smith, 2010:132). According to Dukić (2009:329–330), management positions are filled by the management personnel who take up managing roles and functions within an organisation, such as HR management. Mostashari (2005:6), emphasising the need for management personnel, affirms that constituting an NGO board has a profound effect on the effectiveness and productivity of an NGO. According to Analoui and Samour (2012:473) and Brière, Proulx, Flores and Laporte (2015:116), staffing in NGOs is an HR capacity and function, which enable the NGO to benefit from management activities to supervise the operations of the NGO. In addition, Mostashari (2005:6–7) opines that the board functions include setting policies and strategies, managing the NGO internally, which includes performance monitoring, and representing the NGO in the community. These board functions are critical for the smooth running of the NGO. Focusing on non-management staff, Dukić(2009:330) refers to non-management staff as non-managing employees whose functions are distinct from those of managers who are empowered with management functions. This means that non-managing employees are key human resources being managed by the managers in for-profit organisations or NFPOs. It is important to note that the team effort of the managing and non-managing staff will enable the organisation (for profit or not for profit) to realise their organisational goals (Dukić, 2009:329). NGO staffing requirements refer to management and non-management staff who can be paid staff or volunteers and who are significant contributors to the HR content of an NGO and which represents its staffing capability. The ability of NGOs to fill their management and non-management staff needs reflects positively on the staffing capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring communication.

3.4.6.2 *Measuring communication*

The ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with key stakeholders in society about their activities and services is the key component of measuring communication, and this is discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with clients and beneficiaries as a key aspect of measuring communication.

3.4.6.2.1 *Ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with clients and beneficiaries*

An important stakeholder requirement for NGOs is to inform beneficiaries of the benefit of their programmes to the beneficiaries. Beneficiaries are recipients of the interventions of NGOs. According to Ebrahim (2003:814–815), beneficiaries are individuals who are indirect or direct receivers of the outcomes of an NGO activity or programme. According to O'Dwyer and Unerman (2010:451–453), a significant requirement for NGOs in relation to their beneficiaries is to be accountable to the beneficiaries. This is referred to as downward accountability (Jacobs & Wilford, 2010: 799). Furthermore, O'Dwyer and Unerman (2010:451–453) affirm that downward accountability has numerous benefits for the NGO. Some of these benefits are improving the outcome of limited aid deployed to the beneficiaries and providing an opportunity for the NGO to learn more about their beneficiaries. In addition, BOND (British Overseas NGOs for Development) (2006: v–vi) affirms that involving beneficiaries in NGO consultations reflects positively on the work of NGOs. Informing beneficiaries of programme benefits allows the beneficiaries to make informed decisions about the NGO intervention or programme and anticipate the expected outcomes while NGOs also benefit knowledge-wise. Therefore, the ability of an NGO to communicate effectively with clients or beneficiaries reflects positively on the communication capability of the NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with donors and sponsors as a key aspect of measuring communication.

3.4.6.2.2 *Ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with donors and sponsors*

Convincing donors of the significance of the social activities embarked upon by NGOs is very important in getting the attention of donors. According to Bloom and Chatterji (2009:122), donors are providers of funds to the organisation. Lee (2004:6) identifies

donors as among those who form the working environment of NGOs. Bougheas, Isopi and Owens (2012:3) affirm that the expectations local donors have from NGOs in Uganda in order to support the NGOs are based on the ability of NGOs to access more beneficiaries while the expectations of international donors of NGOs in Uganda relate to the efficiency of NGOs in carrying out their social activities. This indicates that donors require certain information in order to assist NGOs. Groves (2007: Paragraph5) affirms that donors require assurances of NGO efficiency in utilising donor funds while Nelson (2007:24) agrees that impact assessment and evaluations are done regularly by NGOs in order to obtain funding from the public sector for their projects. The importance of convincing donors in social work and the needed financial assistance they provide for NGOs cannot be overemphasised. The ability of the NGO to communicate effectively with donors and sponsors thus reflects positively on the communication capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring alliance-building.

3.4.6.3 Measuring alliance-building

The ability of NGOs to build mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations for different organisational reasons and outcomes is a key component of measuring alliance-building and this is discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability to build positive relationships with other organisations as a key aspect of measuring alliance-building.

3.4.6.3.1 Ability to build positive relationships with other organisations

A significant attribute of effective alliance-building in NGOs is the ability to build mutually beneficial relationships with other organisations. NGOs are known to engage in several relationships in their attempt to contribute to the development of society (Dahan et al., 2010: 330–331; Gray & Stites, 2013:22; Nelson, 2007:26; Ramanath & Ebrahim, 2010:21) with varying outcomes. In terms of the NGO relationship with government, several studies on non-profit research focusing on the relationship between NGOs and government have described the relationship as cooperative, co-optive, complementary and confrontational (Krishnan, 2007:237; Najam, 2000:375; Ramanath & Ebrahim, 2010:21). Yagub (2014:561) observes that the NGO relationship with government has not been strong despite NGOs in Sudan making significant

contributions in the area of curative health services delivery. Yagub (2014:561) affirms that security issues and a lack of trust account for the weak relationship experienced between NGOs and the government in Sudan. On the other hand, Research on Poverty Alleviation (REPOA) (2007: ix) confirms that the relationship between NGOs who were involved in youth poverty alleviation at that stage and the government in Tanzania is improving. REPOA (2007: x) further adds that trust, communication and interaction accounted for the improvement. This shows that the relationship between NGOs and governments varies across different countries with trust, communication and positive interaction being key drivers of a good relationship between an NGO and government. Focusing on the relationship between NGOs and the private sector, Baur and Schmitz (2012:9) found that partnerships between NGOs and businesses are on the increase and these partnerships are driven by the interest of business organisations who are concerned with building their CSR profile and reputation. In addition, when measuring the outcomes of the NGO–business partnership with regard to social benefits, Hansen and Spitzeck (2011:1) affirm that “community benefits are best developed and monitored in collaboration with the NGO partner”. Mutually beneficial relationships are essential in various relationships entered by NGOs in order for the NGOs to create the desired social outcomes. Therefore, the ability of the NGO to build positive relationships with other organisations in their operating environment reflects positively on the alliance-building capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability to partner with other organisations when implementing programmes as a key aspect of measuring alliance-building.

3.4.6.3.2 Ability to partner with other organisations when implementing programmes

Partnership with other organisations when implementing new programmes is a core requirement and strategy of some NGOs to achieve significant social outcomes. NGOs have been known to partner with many organisations on development objectives (Avolio-Toly, 2010:3; Damlamian, 2006:5–12, 22, 44; Kelly & Roche, 2014:3; Nelson, 2007:24, 26). According to Kelly and Roche (2014:3), NGOs have learnt through partnerships that there is a need to understand partnerships with a specific focus on the purpose and value of the partnership for the NGO. An NGO partnership provides a learning experience for the NGO, which enables the NGO to learn and be prepared for

future partnerships. In implementing educational programmes with respect to universal primary education, Avolio-Toly (2010:4) found that NGOs in consultative status utilised several models when implementing educational programmes, which have been successful and one of them is “forming partnership with local civil society and government”, which allows the partners to be involved in the design and implementation of the educational programmes. Avolio-Toly (2010:4) further states that NGO partnerships with key stakeholders such as governments or civil society enables the NGO to expand its capacity in planning, managing and funding the programmes, and this makes the programmes more effective and efficient. Implementing new programmes provides opportunities for NGOs to build solid relationships, increase their learning experiences of partnership and enables NGOs to achieve their organisational goals and achieve the desired social outcome. Therefore, the ability of the NGO to partner with other organisations when implementing programmes reflects positively on the alliance-building capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring lobbying.

3.4.6.4 Measuring lobbying

The ability of NGOs to attract financial support from government agencies and to lobby government to make supportive policies are key components of measuring lobbying, and these are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of the NGO to attract financial support from government agencies as a key aspect of measuring lobbying.

3.4.6.4.1 Ability of the NGO to attract financial support from government agencies

Attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for its efforts is a significant advocacy requirement of NGOs. Government is a key stakeholder in the social sector based on its relationship with the sector (Clark, 1993: Abstract section, paragraph 2–3; Essia & Yearoo, 2009:369; Smillie et al., 2013:3–7). An example of NGOs being able to attract financial support from government is shown by Omofonmwan and Odia (2009:251–252) who affirm that the Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC), which is a government agency set up to carry out development projects in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria is a key funder of NGOs. Omofonmwan and Odia (2009:252) further state that the NDDC in collaboration with Pro Health

International (an NGO) assisted in the provision of free general health care services for Ehor (a village) in Uhunmwode local government area and Fugar (a village) in the local government area in Edo State, Nigeria. Another example of attracting government agencies to provide financial support for NGO activities is in the health sector to assist HIV/AIDS-focused NGOs to carry out activities to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS. According to NACA (2015:Paragraph 4), there is a collaboration with government, NGOs and other stakeholders to mobilise resources to fight HIV/AIDS in Nigeria. Shiffman and Okonofua (2007:129) and Presly, Akpan and Rishante (2013:727–735) state that funding for HIV/AIDS is a collaborative effort with the Nigerian government, NGOs, international organisations playing a key role. Government is key partner in the social sector and NGOs that are able to attract government support are able to achieve their goals in the social sector. Therefore, the ability of the NGO to attract financial support from government agencies reflects positively on the lobbying capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of NGOs to convince government to provide supportive policies as a key aspect of measuring lobbying.

3.4.6.4.2 Ability of NGOs to convince government to provide supportive policies

Convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for its efforts is a strategic activity for NGO outcome in society. Government has been identified as being capable of supporting the activities of NGOs in diverse ways (Clark, 1993:Abstract section, paragraph 3), and providing supportive policies is one of them (Brinkerhoff, 2004:2–8). In addition, evidence by Gemmill and Bamidele-Izu (2002:1) affirm that NGOs can have an effect on environmental governance via the following roles:

- collecting, disseminating and analysing information;
- providing input to agenda-setting and policy development processes;
- performing operational functions;
- assessing environmental conditions and monitoring compliance with environmental agreements; and
- advocating environmental justice.

This shows that NGOs can advocate their cause to priority relevance on the public agenda by participation in the policy formulation process. Hammer, Rooney and

Warren (2010:1–2) affirm that NGOs play distinctive and growing roles in policy formulation at national and global level. Focusing on government, Brinkerhoff (2004:7) affirms that the role of government in assisting the function of policy advocacy and monitoring of NGOs in the contribution to public good involves the following roles:

- **mandating:** provision of law and regulation for access of information;
- **facilitating:** making policy and budgets easy;
- **resourcing:** providing funding for NGO involvement in policy monitoring;
- **partnering:** creation of public mediums for joint policy dialogue; and
- **endorsing:** supporting media reporting of the role of NGOs in advocacy and accountability.

In convincing government agencies to provide supportive policies, NGOs must play active roles in the policy formulation processes while government will provide the enabling conditions to support NGO activities. Therefore, the ability of NGOs to convince government to provide supportive policies reflects positively on the lobbying capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring earnings-generation.

3.4.6.5 Measuring earnings-generation

The ability of NGOs to maintain donor and sponsor relationships, achieve financial sustainability and increase their income diversification ability are key components of the earnings-generation measurement, and these are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability to achieve financial sustainability as a key aspect of measuring earnings-generation.

3.4.6.5.1 Ability to achieve financial sustainability

In terms of ensuring their financial sustainability, NGOs need to have sustainable income from products and services that they offer at a price. According to Batti (2014a:57), NGOs are increasingly aware of the insufficiency of relying on donor funding to meet their project demands due to rising costs of project implementation. Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001: i) affirm that constraints in the form of restrictions placed on grants and donations make it difficult for NGOs to benefit from long-term funding and achieve their organisational goals. Furthermore, Karanja and Karuti

(2014:1) state that NGOs encounter challenges with funding, and government policies tend to make NGO funding difficult. These challenges tend to make NGOs encounter various limiting challenges that hamper their efforts to alleviate the situations of the beneficiaries that they target and serve. Based on the aforementioned issues and in order to survive and continue their mission mandate, NGOs now resort to commercial incomes despite NGOs not being commercially driven (Vaceková & Svidroňová, 2014:122). According to Vaceková and Svidroňová (2014:122), commercial incomes are “incomes from activities not related to the mission of an NGO”. Specifically, these commercial incomes are derived from investment activity or yield activity (e.g. income from renting its assets) (Vaceková & Svidroňová, 2014:122). Viravaidya and Hayssen (2001: i) opine that generating income from commercial ventures is an alternative for NGOs to solve their funding problems. This means that NGOs now have to utilise their capacities in commercial ventures that would add value to their social activities and goals. Vaceková and Svidroňová (2014:124–125, 128) affirm that there are more benefits in NGO self-financing their activities from their commercial activities compared to any risks. Thus, NGOs could engage in commercial activities in order to be financially sustainable and carry out their mandated social activities effectively. Therefore, the ability of NGOs to achieve financial sustainability reflects positively on the earnings-generation capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability to maintain donor and sponsor relationships as a key aspect of measuring earnings-generation.

3.4.6.5.2 Ability to maintain donor and sponsor relationships

In terms of having and maintaining long-term donor relationships, NGOs need to ensure that they have long-term donors and sponsors who have been major sources of income for the organisation in order to keep their projects funded by donors. Donors and sponsors are very important features of NGO revenue structures (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014:1; Sherlock & Gravelle, 2009:5; Viravaidya & Hayssen, 2001: i). Maintaining long-term relationships with donors is a critical task for NGOs due to several donor requirements and constraints. NGO accountability is a significant requirement and determinant of NGO–donor relationship survival (O’Dwyer & Boomsma, 2015:36). According to O’Dwyer and Boomsma (2015:36–45), accountable NGOs benefit from improved funding from donors and are able to carry out their

developmental activities effectively. O'Dwyer and Boomsma (2015:36–45) also state that accountability mechanisms put in place by NGOs determine the funding the NGO receives. Furthermore, Ebrahim (2003:813) identifies the five broad accountability mechanisms utilised by NGOs, namely social audits, self-regulation, participation, performance assessments and evaluations, and reports and disclosure statements. On the other hand, these requirements are demanded by donors and are used to assess the reputation of NGOs with dire consequences. Gent, Crescenzi, Menninga and Reid (2015:426) affirm that the reputation of an NGO can be an essential consideration for donors to fund the NGO. Gent et al. (2015:426) further state that NGOs giving their reputation so much attention can impede their long-term policy goals. Thus, NGO–donor relationships are improved and sustained with NGO accountability while still showing signs of hampering the relationship due to stringent enforcement by donors. Therefore, the ability of NGOs to maintain donor and sponsor relationships reflects positively on the earnings-generation capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of income diversification ability as a key aspect of measuring earnings-generation.

3.4.6.5.3 Income diversification ability

In terms of showing evidence of their income diversification ability, NGOs are utilising other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for their programmes. Finding such sources of funding for NGO programmes is a key issue as evidenced by Carrol and Stater (2009:947) who assert that NPOs depending solely on contributions will encounter instability with their income generation. Froelich (1999:246) affirms that private funding, government funding and funding from commercial activities are the three major sources of fund and revenue strategies for NPOs. In addition, Mitchell (2014:67) shows that NGOs adopt several strategies in their attempt to avoid resource dependence (Khieng & Dahles, 2015:1412; Wang & Yao, 2016:31–41), such as alignment, diversification, commercialisation, funding liberation, geostrategic arbitrage. Evidence by Herzer and Nunnenkamp (2013:234) shows that NGOs utilise private donations as a complementing source of income in addition to government funding. Thus, NGOs are adopting alternative income diversification strategies in addition to traditional funding sources to remain financially sustainable. Therefore, the ability of

NGOs to have an income diversification ability reflects positively on the earnings-generation capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring replication.

3.4.6.6 *Measuring replication*

The ability of NGOs to have a successful programme and the ability to replicate effectively are the key components of the replication measurement, and these are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability to have a successful programme as a key aspect of measuring replication.

3.4.6.6.1 *Ability to have a successful programme*

An organisation having a model or system that can work effectively in multiple locations has a high probability of being successful at replication (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph4). According to Bradach (2003: Paragraph10), for a model to be replicated, the model must be successful. The success of the model is determined by assessing the generated value for its key constituents (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph12). In providing an example of a successful system or model that can work in multiple locations, evidence by Jagannathan (2001:4, 11) shows that NGOs played a major role in primary education in India. According to Jagannathan (2001:11), the MV foundation is a private charitable trust in Andhra Pradesh in India focused on tackling child labour (children between 5 and 11 years old) in India using education. The foundation was founded in 1991 and has scaled its activities from the initial three villages in Ranga Reddy district of Pradesh to 500 villages within India with 5 000 children benefiting (Jagannathan, 2001:12). This example shows a successful model working in several locations with more children benefiting and which allows the NGO to achieve its objectives of reducing child labour. Another example is one relating to environmental projects. According to Creech (2008:18–19), access to clean water, which involves payment for a secondary water network was solved using the Agua para Todos (Water for All) initiative in Bolivia (Ioris, 2015:89–101). Creech (2008:18–19) further states that this project was made possible by the collaboration of local communities, an NGO and other partners who have taken the project from being able to cater for 100–500 households in Cochabamba to 3 000 people in the village. Thus, successful replication is achieved by taking a very

successful model and replicating it in multiple locations for the benefit of more beneficiaries. Therefore, the ability of NGOs to have a successful programme reflects positively on the replication capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability to replicate effectively as a key aspect of measuring replication.

3.4.6.6.2 Ability to replicate effectively

NGOs finding it very easy to replicate their programmes are able to overcome replication challenges. Replicating programmes of NGOs comes with challenges such as extra funding and additional manpower (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph 29, 30, 32–34) and an NGO that finds the replication process easy is one that has been able to reduce these challenges to the minimum. From a management perspective, Bradach (2003: Paragraph 21) affirms that one of the challenges management faces is to establish whether the complicated nature of their programme is defensible. Bradach (2003: Paragraph 21) further indicates that managers scrutinise their programmes to identify the aspects that create value and the aspects that do not. This indicates a careful process adopted by managers to ensure that their programmes add value to the present location and that it has the potential to add value to a prospective site. In emphasising the importance of management in the replication process, Awoonor-Williams, Sory, Nyongator, Phillips, Wang and Schmitt (2013:118) affirm that the leadership that develops the innovations differs from the type of managerial and political leadership required to effect the change in the systems at scale. In addition, Weber et al. (2015:16) affirm that during the process of replication, the founder's role changes as the founder begins to delegate responsibilities due to the increase in employees and the involvement of more collaborative partners. Thus, NGOs finding the replication of their programmes to be easy have been able to manage their replication challenges effectively with leadership and management playing a key role in the replication process. Therefore, the ability of NGOs to replicate effectively reflects positively on the replication capability of NGOs.

The next section will present a discussion of measuring stimulating market forces.

3.4.6.7 *Measuring stimulating market forces*

The ability of NGOs to show that businesses can generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation, beneficiaries and clients can save money through patronising their products and services, and the ability of NGOs to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems are the main components of measuring stimulating market forces and these are discussed below.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of NGOs to show that businesses can generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation as a key aspect of measuring stimulating market forces.

3.4.6.7.1 *Ability of NGOs to show that businesses can generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation*

NGOs are able to show that businesses can generate income by supporting programmes and activities of NGOs. Svatikova et al. (2012:10) remarks that reputational incentives influence a firm's change in behaviour based on the focus of the firm on organisational performance and perceptions of relevant stakeholders. Poret (2014:8) affirms that NGO–business partnerships with regard to strategic CSR enables the firm to improve upon its profit position and gain competitive advantage in the business environment based on the provision by NGOs of knowledge and access to geographic locations and communities. Furthermore, Hansen and Spitzack (2011:5) note that one of the measurable outcomes of NGO partnerships with businesses in terms of output metrics is the financial indicators of the firm, such as turnover. It can be argued that NGOs are able to show that businesses could improve their organisational finances by supporting NGOs and by partnering with NGOs. This view is supported by Ménascé (2016:66) who affirms that in NGO–business partnerships, both partners benefit and one of the main benefits for the firm is the access to a wider population that could benefit from their products and services. Thus, businesses could benefit from NGO partnerships financially and improve their brand reputation in society. The ability of NGOs to show that businesses could generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation reflects positively on the stimulating market force capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of NGOs to show that beneficiaries and clients could save money through patronising its products and services as a key aspect of measuring stimulating market forces.

3.4.6.7.2 Ability of NGOs to show that beneficiaries and clients could save money through patronising its products and services

Beneficiaries and clients could save money by patronising the products and services of NGOs. Kindness and Gordon (2001:14–20) studied agricultural marketing in developing countries focusing on NGOs and community-based organisations (CBOs) and found beneficiaries are able to benefit financially from the direct marketing role of NGOs using out-grower schemes to provide access to agricultural markets, credit programmes, agricultural inputs, skills and training. Numeh and Ejike (2004:339–348) found that beneficiaries benefited from NGO-subsidised HIV/AIDS preventive materials such as condoms. Beneficiaries and clients could benefit from patronising NGO products and services as NGOs are not profit-driven. This view is supported by Omofonmwan and Odia (2009:247) who remark that NGOs are non-profit entities. Beneficiaries and clients could meet some of their needs and save money by patronising NGOs. Therefore, the ability of NGOs to show that beneficiaries and clients could save money through patronising the products and services of an NGO reflects positively on the stimulating market force capability of the NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the ability of NGOs to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems as a key aspect of measuring stimulating market forces.

3.4.6.7.3 Ability of NGOs to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems

NGOs rely on market forces to solve social problems. Grieg-Gran and Wilson (2007:2–5) affirm that NGOs as market actors play a significant role in the alleviation of social problems. Marter and Wandschneider (2002:11) studied the roles of NGOs and CBOs in Uganda, focusing on the potential in remote regions and in reaching the poor, and found that NGOs have the capacity for market intervention by intervening directly through inputs supply, storage, trading and processing activities while they could also intervene indirectly through training, information provision and market linkage to support poor farmers in Uganda. It may thus be argued that NGOs could rely on several market force strategies directly and indirectly to solve social problems. This view is supported by Bräuer et al. (2006:18, 39) who studied the use of market incentives to preserve biodiversity, and found that NGOs are among the key stakeholders in the conservation finance alliance using market-based instruments and financial mechanisms

to finance protected environmental areas. NGOs could therefore use market forces effectively and independently and as part of a collaborative effort to solve social problems. Therefore, the ability of NGOs to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems reflects positively on the stimulating market force capability of an NGO.

The next section will present a discussion of the relationship between organisational capabilities and replication of programmes.

3.5 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL CAPABILITIES AND REPLICATION OF PROGRAMMES

Notable studies (see Lau, Man & Chow, 2004:221–229; López-Cabarcos, Göttling-Oliveira-Monteiro & Vázquez-Rodríguez, 2015:1–13; Van Oppen & Brugman, 2009:1–4) have shown that organisational capabilities are correlated with several outcomes, such as business performance and social influence in different organisations. Regarding the effect of organisational capabilities on business performance, Zehir and Acar (2006:163) examined organisational capabilities and its effect on business performance in a survey. They found that, increasing the level on organisational capabilities has a positive effect on business performance. They organised the organisational capabilities in eight sub-dimensions, namely “global capability, upper management capability, product/service capability, marketing capability, technological capability, information systems capability, order fulfilment capability and external relationship capability (Zehir & Acar, 2006:164–166) and investigated each organisational capability effect on business performance. In terms of research methodology, 456 owners and senior managers of 121 Turkish manufacturers and exporters of medium-sized firms were used as the research sample in Turkey while parametric statistical methods were used in the data analysis (Zehir & Acar, 2006:166). Zehir and Acar (2006:168) used correlational analysis to reveal the relationship among the aforementioned organisational capabilities relations and business performance and found that the independent relationships of all variables in the study were significantly and positively correlated with each other. They also utilised multiple regression analysis to examine the effect of organisational capabilities on business performance based on their research hypothesis and found that global capabilities ($\beta=0,240$, $p < 0,001$), product/service capabilities ($\beta=0,137$, $p < 0,05$), marketing capabilities ($\beta=0,127$, $p < 0,05$), and technological capabilities

($\beta=0,118$, $p < 0,05$) had a significant effect on the firm while the others did not have a significant effect on the firm. In addition, Zehir and Acar (2006:168–169) mention that all the variables correlated with each other and with business performance while 36% of the variance of the business performance could be explained by the independent dimensions of the study. Thus, organisational capabilities such as global capabilities, product or service capabilities, marketing capabilities and technological capabilities have positive effects on business performance.

Based upon the aforementioned study, it is clear that global capabilities, product or service capabilities, marketing capabilities and technological capabilities have positive effects on business performance (Zehir & Acar, 2006:170). In other organisations, such as social entrepreneurial organisations, other organisational capabilities have a positive on social entrepreneurial outcomes.

Bloom and Smith (2010:126) considered the drivers of social entrepreneurial effect using the SCALERS model. They found that staffing, communicating, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces are positively related to the scaling of social outcomes. This relationship remained after taking into consideration the year the organisation was founded controlling for year the organisation was founded. They also found that earnings-generation has a stronger effect than the rest of the organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model when a comparison of the standard beta coefficient was carried out. Furthermore, Bloom and Smith (2010:138) say “individual support was found for the effect of staffing, communicating, lobbying, earnings-generation, replicating and stimulating market forces on scaling of social impact, with marginal support for effect of alliance-building on scaling of social impact”. In terms of research methodology, 591 social entrepreneurial organisations were used as the research sample in the United States while parametric statistical methods were used in the data analysis (Bloom & Smith, 2010:135). Bloom and Smith (2010:136 & 137) utilised correlations to establish the relationship between the SCALERS model and the scaling of social effect and found that the date on which the organisation was founded was positively and significantly related to lobbying ($r=0.17$, $p < 0.01$) indicating that older organisations tend to participate in more lobbying activities compared to younger organisations. In addition, Bloom and Smith (2010:138) say that the date on which the organisation was founded

was negatively and significantly related to alliance-building ($r=-0.12$, $p < 0.01$) and scaling of social effect ($r=-0.12$, $p < 0.01$) indicating that the length of time since founding affects the organisational capabilities (SCALERS) while using the linear regression analysis. The SCALERS combined explained 38% of the variance in the scaling of social effect (Bloom & Smith, 2010:140). Furthermore, using the T-test, Bloom and Smith (2010:138) were able to identify low and high SCALERS with respect to scaling social effect. Bloom and Smith (2010:140) also found that alliance-building and lobbying became irrelevant when the SCALERS were combined in a model. Lastly, Bloom and Smith (2010:138) affirm that staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replicating and stimulating market forces could influence the scaling of social outcomes by social entrepreneurial organisations. However, since the past study was focused on social entrepreneurial organisations in the social sector, investigating the effect of organisational capabilities of NGOs on the influence of NGOs using voluntary sector programmes or initiatives in society becomes necessary and relevant. This is to expand the discussion on the influence and effects of organisational capabilities on organisational performance and social outcomes further using different organisations.

In expanding the discussion on voluntary sector programmes and initiatives by social sector organisations, Mulgan (2006:159) found that there are few studies on the discourse of replicating successful voluntary sector initiatives. Although studies on the relationship between the organisational capabilities of NGO and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths are non-existent, there is evidence that the organisational capabilities of social enterprises' could influence the scaling of social effect (Bloom & Smith, 2010:138). In expanding this effect and with regard to the organisational capabilities of NGOs in relation to the influence of NGOs in society, it is suggested that some organisational capabilities of NGOs as contained in the SCALERS model may influence the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, while others may not have this influence. Bloom and Smith (2010:138) empirically tested the SCALERS model and confirm the organisational capabilities that could drive the scaling of social effect. Their observation of the SCALERS model provided the background and support for the present study, which found that there is a relationship between the organisational capabilities of NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

This observation propelled the need to ascertain the relationship and identify the predictors of the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present the summary.

3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a comprehensive literature review on themes related to the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (SCALERS) and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Discussions centred on youth poverty, youth-serving NGOs, youth poverty alleviation programmes, and organisational capabilities as contained in the SCALERS model. Finally, the hypothesised relationship between the organisational capabilities of NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was discussed.

The next chapter presents the research methodology for this study.

CHAPTER FOUR:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research methodology used to collate and analyse data for this study. According to Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi (2006:5), research methodology is “a systematic way to solve a problem”. This chapter re-states the research problem, the objectives of the study, key research questions pertaining to the study and the hypotheses, and presents the research philosophy, research design, research setting, population, sampling method, sources of data, data collection instrument, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations of the study.

The next section will present the statement of the problem.

4.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The research problem and sub-problems that were investigated are re-stated to inform the choice of the research design and methodology.

The next section will present the research problem.

4.2.1 Research problem

The rising problem of youth poverty in Nigeria (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61; Curtain, 2003:7; Oduwole, 2015:23–29) and its attendant negative consequences, namely crime (Hansen, 2016:Paragraph 26; Uyang et al., 2016:82), youth homelessness (Kehinde, 2014:237), and psychological ailments (mental illness) (Famakinwa et al., 2016:59, 61) among other negative consequences is becoming worrisome. This is so despite several interventions by key stakeholders, such as the presence of many youth-serving NGOs with numerous youth poverty alleviation programmes in the areas of vocational training (Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48), SME advisory services (Iwu & Nzeako, 2012:128), and women development services (Dibie & Okere, 2015:92). Documented evidence points to the fact that some of these youth empowerment and youth poverty alleviation programmes have been used effectively to address the problem of youth poverty in some locations in Nigeria (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:53–58; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:50; Omofonmwan & Odia, 2009:251; Sofowora, 2009:131) and yet it may seem

that these youth poverty alleviation programmes are designed for a selected few beneficiaries and locations. There is urgent need to make other deprived beneficiaries and locations to benefit from these solutions and ‘social replication’ is the identified approach to spread the benefits of these solutions to more beneficiaries and locations (Berelowitz et al., 2013:5; Mavra, 2011:5–6; Van Oudenhoven & Wazir, 1998:10). Evidence by Berelowitz et al. (2013:12), Mavra (2011:9–10) and Van Oudenhoven and Wazir (1998:12–13) have also shown that various forms of social replications have been identified and standardised. However, despite the presence of available information, Nigeria still has a high rate of youth poverty (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61; Akpan et al., 2016:168; Arogundade, 2011:26; Ilemona et al., 2013:1).

Further investigation has revealed that youth-serving NGOs experience several organisational capability challenges in their attempt to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria (Kasali et al., 2015:65; Nwogu, 2014:7–8, 10; Odukoya et al., 2006: 28, 31–42). Based on these organisational capability challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs and the low replication activities associated with youth-serving NGOs, there is great concern that there may be a link between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the resultant non-replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The resultant concern informed the need to investigate the effectiveness of youth-serving NGOs in meeting their organisational capability needs and also to identify the progress made in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths while also establishing the correlation between youth-serving NGOs’ organisational capabilities and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. The present study addressed this concern by investigating the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths using the SCALERS model as a theoretical framework.

The next section will present the sub-problems.

4.2.2 Sub-problem

From the research problem above, the sub-problems listed below were addressed, namely –

- the extent to which there exists a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths; and
- the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present the objectives of the study.

4.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following were the objectives of the study:

- to determine the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria;
- to assess the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria;
- to determine the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;
- to determine the extent to which there exists a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;
- to determine the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs that predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria; and
- to make useful recommendations that have both managerial and policy formulation relevance to stakeholders in the social sector.

The next section will present the key research questions.

4.4 KEY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions below were investigated in the study.

- What are the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria?
- How effective are youth-serving NGOs in meeting their organisational capabilities needs as contained in the adapted SCALERS model?
 - How effective are youth-serving NGOs in meeting their staffing needs?
 - To what extent are youth-serving NGOs able to communicate effectively with all their stakeholders?

- To what extent are youth-serving NGOs able to build effective partnerships with relevant organisations in Nigeria?
- To what extent are youth-serving NGOs able to lobby successfully for support in order to implement organisational objectives effectively?
- To what extent do youth-serving NGOs generate sufficient income to remain sustainable?
- To what extent are youth-serving NGOs able to replicate youth poverty alleviation programmes effectively within new locations in Nigeria?
- To what extent do youth-serving NGOs provide attractive incentives to attract prospective beneficiaries?
- What is the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?
- To what extent is there a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model) and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths?
- To what extent are the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model) able to predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?

The next section will present the hypotheses.

4.5 HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses below were tested during this research study to confirm their validity for the study. If valid, the hypotheses were retained and if not valid, the hypotheses were rejected.

- H₁: Staffing is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₂: Communication is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₃: Alliance-building is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- H₄: Lobbying is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₅: Earnings-generation is positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₆: Replicating is positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₇: Stimulating market forces are positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

During this exploratory-correlational study, youth-serving NGOs were surveyed for their organisational and demographic profile, perceptions of their organisational capabilities and the progress made in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of the research philosophy.

4.6 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

The research philosophy plays a very significant role in the research process as it informs the researcher and other stakeholders of the guiding principles on which the study is based. It also provides a direction for the adopted research methodology, which produces the research outcomes of the study. The significance of the research philosophy in a study is obvious as Creswell (2013:31) affirms that a research philosophical worldview is a prerequisite for the choice of research approach for a study. There are various research philosophies available to the researcher in social sciences (Creswell, 2013:36) with the attendant characteristics with accompanied research approaches. This study adopted post-positivism as research philosophy as it reflected the intention and role of the researcher in this study.

The next section will present a discussion of postpositivist research philosophy.

4.6.1 Postpositivist research philosophy

According to Creswell (2013:293–294), “postpositivists reflect a deterministic philosophy about research in which causes probably determine effects or outcomes”. This view is rooted in the scientific method of carrying out research (Creswell, 2013:36; Ryan, 2006:17; Scotland, 2012:10). This view enabled the researcher to investigate the capabilities of Nigerian NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths using an established scientific method and the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) as theoretical framework for this study. Outcomes of this study

provide information on the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Other outcomes are in the form of revealing perceptions of the capabilities of youth-serving NGO, and the progress made in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The characteristics of the postpositivist approach as they applied to this study were determination, reductionism, theory verification, empirical observation and measurement (Creswell, 2013:36). The characteristics of the postpositivist approach were further analysed to situate and identify the characteristics as they applied to this study.

For this study, ‘determination’ was reflected in the aim of the study and it was achieved by investigating the relationship of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGO in replicating successful youth poverty alleviation programmes. This ‘determination’ depicts the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable and is based on a hypothetical cause and effect or outcome relationship (Creswell, 2013:36). For this study, determination was considered a process, and this study applied the determination process in establishing the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (independent variables) and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable).

‘Reductionism’, reduces the research idea into measurable variables (Creswell, 2013:36). For this study and based on the reductionist characteristics of the postpositivist philosophy, organisational capabilities were reduce to seven independent variables, namely staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces (Bloom & Smith, 2010:128) while the social outcome was defined as the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

In terms of one of the postpositivist philosophy characteristics, namely ‘theory verification’, the scientific nature of research allows for theory and model testing to provide more insights and understanding on the issues being investigated. In this study, the postpositivist philosophy allowed the researcher to apply and test the adapted

SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) using a different unit of analysis and research context. Youth-serving NGOs were the unit of analysis and their organisational capabilities were investigated in relation to replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

Lastly, based on the postpositivist characteristics of empirical observation and measurement, insights and knowledge (subject perceptions, behaviour and other characteristics) were gained from observing research subjects in their natural locations and being able to measure what was being observed (Creswell, 2013:36). In applying the aforementioned characteristics to this study, the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs were being observed using their perceptions, which were measured with respect to the replication of successful youth poverty alleviation programme that would eventually assist in reducing the high rate of youth poverty in Nigeria.

The following are some of the features of post-positivism philosophy as applied in this study:

- its research focus is extensive;
- it emphasises the union of theory and practice; and
- it promotes ethical considerations of research subjects (Ryan, 2006:12, 17).

The next section will present a discussion of the research design.

4.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

De Vaus (2001:9) affirms that the function of a research design is to ascertain that the research evidence obtained from the study enables the researcher to answer the research question in a comprehensible manner. The research design plays a significant role in the success of a study. It reflects the procedures used to gather information for a study (Creswell, 2013:41, 295). According to Sekaran (2003:29), the research design is mainly initiated by the researcher “to decide on, among other issues, how to collect further data, analyze and interpret them, and finally to provide an answer to the problem”. There are different research designs available for the researcher (Van Wyk, 2012:8–10). The present study used an exploratory-correlational study design to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes. This enabled the researcher to:

- collect further data in order to analyse and interpret it, and finally to provide an answer on the extent to which the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs are correlated with the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths;
- determine the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs that predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria; and
- identify the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs that were lagging behind at the time of this research, and might have been hindering the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths – despite the presence of numerous successful poverty alleviation programmes – thus not being able to stop the growing scourge of youth poverty in Nigeria.

It is also important to add that previous studies that investigated the relationship between organisational capabilities and scaling of social outcomes and business performance utilised an exploratory-correlational study design to achieve their research goals and objectives (Bloom & Smith, 2010:135 & 137; Zehir & Acar, 2006:168–169). This provided further justification for the adoption of the exploratory-correlational study design for the present study.

The SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) was adapted and used as the theoretical framework for collecting data in the form of perceptions of the capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria, namely staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replicating and stimulating market forces (independent variables). These were investigated in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable) to understand the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs, their effects and the affecting roles in the established correlation.

The next section will present a discussion of quantitative research.

4.7.1 Quantitative research

According to Creswell (2013:48) and Nenty (2009:21), a quantitative approach allows the researcher to test a theory or apply a model with the intention of gaining insights into the relationships between defined variables in the theory and the model. It enables

the researcher to use statistical techniques to analyse numerical data from the measurable variables on the administered research instrument (Creswell, 2013:48; Kothari, 2004:5; Sukamolson, 2010:2–3). The characteristics of the quantitative approach are “pre-determined, instrument based questions, data (performance, attitude, observational, and census) statistical analysis and statistical interpretation” (Creswell, 2013:45). The characteristics of the quantitative method are further analysed to show why this was the method of choice for this study.

The quantitative approach is predetermined due to its nature to follow a well-established pattern of study and report style (Creswell, 2013:45; Kumar, 2005:103–104). According to Creswell (2013:83–97), in a quantitative approach, the theory or model being tested informs every aspect of the study in the form of a theoretical framework. Kumar (2005:103–104) affirms that the structured approach is a key feature of quantitative research. In this study, this was reflected in the application, re-contextualisation and testing of the adapted SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (independent variables, namely staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) to reveal the relationship between the organisational capabilities in the adapted SCALERS model and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable). The quantitative approach is also reflected in the adapted SCALERS model questionnaire (Bloom & Smith, 2010:144–145).

The instrument-based questions are closed-ended questions (see appendix A for the research instrument) and reflect the hypothesis-testing nature of the study in line with the quantitative approach adopted for the study (Creswell, 2013:48; Sekaran, 2003:31; Sukamolson, 2010:9–10). The research instrument was further subjected to established standards of validity and reliability tests to confirm their suitability for the research study (Creswell, 2013:200).

According to Kothari (2004:5), the quantitative approach utilises quantitative data for rigorous statistical analysis and interpretation. In line with the quantitative approach characteristics, the adapted SCALERS research instrument also generates numerical data from the adapted SCALERS variables (which are in the form of Likert-type items and measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale) and was administered to the research

respondents for onward data analysis. The numerical data collected from the research instrument reflected measurements of the perceptions of the capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in relation to replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. The statistical analysis of the data provided both descriptive and inferential statistical outcomes that furthered the understanding of the research problem. The quantitative research reporting pattern is straightforward and includes research information contained in key parts of the report, which begins with the research “introduction, literature review and adopted theory, methods adopted for the study, results and discussion of the study outcomes” (Creswell, 2013:32). This reporting style is reflected in this dissertation and serves as a confirmation and justification of the adopted quantitative approach for this study.

Other considerations were based on the usage of the quantitative approach by scholars investigating issues associated with the relationship between organisational capabilities and business performance and scaling for social effect (Bloom & Smith, 2010:128; Zehir & Acar, 2006:168–169).

The next section will present a discussion of exploratory-correlational research.

4.7.2 Exploratory-correlational research

The study was explorative in nature as it explored the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. According to Sekaran (2003:119), an exploratory study is carried out when “not much is known about the situation at hand, or no information is available on how similar problems or research issues have been solved in the past”. Sekaran (2003:120) further states that exploratory study could also be carried out when “some facts are known, but more information is needed for developing a viable theoretical framework”. Van Wyk (2012:8) affirms that an exploratory study seeks to identify the boundary of the investigated research problem and the variables that will be significant to the study.

The researcher adopted this research design based on the research problem meeting the set preconditions suggested by Sekaran (2003:119–120) as reasons for an exploratory study. Some of the preconditions met by this study are stated in the research objectives and research questions and they informed the problem statement which was to

investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The characteristics of an exploratory research study design applicable to this study are the following:

- It is very useful in obtaining a good knowledge of the investigated phenomena and progressing knowledge through later theory building and hypothesis testing (Sekaran, 2003:119–120).
- It is useful in obtaining new ideas and assumptions (Labaree, 2009: Paragraph 30).
- It is used to provide a scope of the problem being investigated (Bhattacharjee, 2012:6).
- It can serve as a basis for undertaking more extensive study regarding the investigated phenomenon (Bhattacharjee, 2012:6).

In the exploratory-correlational study design adopted for the present study, the correlational aspect played a very significant role. Correlational study design is a non-experimental form of quantitative research (Bhattacharjee, 2012:83; Creswell, 2013:41). According to Kumar (2005:333), the aim of a correlational study is to ascertain the existence of a relationship between two or more parts of an investigated phenomenon. Sekaran (2003:126) affirms that a correlational study enables the researcher to describe “the important variables associated with the problem”. In a correlational study, the degree of relationship between two or more variables can be determined and explained by a researcher by the interpretation of a correlational statistic obtained from the investigated relationship (Creswell, 2012:347). In the present study, this was very important in order to determine the level of association between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present a discussion of the research setting.

4.8 RESEARCH SETTING

The **research setting** refers to the environment where the data is obtained (Kumar, 2005:208). The data was collected at locations where youth-serving NGOs held scheduled association meetings. The first location where the research data was obtained

involved the NNNGO via a conference themed “Global Good Practices in NGO Regulations”, which was held on 9 December 2015 in Lagos, Nigeria. Other locations where venues were, are CONGO (Edo State chapter), CiSHAN (Edo State chapter) and the NYCN (Edo State chapter), which held various meetings and had youth-serving NGOs in large attendance.

The next section will present a discussion of the population for the study.

4.9 POPULATION

The population of a study is defined as the entire number of subjects or objects investigated by the researcher, such as “groups of people, events or things of interest” (Sekaran, 2003:265). The population for this study comprised youth-serving NGOs. According to NNNGO (a private organisation that has a database of NGOs in Nigeria and which is based in Lagos), there were about 400 active and registered youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria as at December 2015.

A significant number of youth-serving NGOs also belong to state associations in addition to their membership with NNNGO. Some of the state associations are CONGO and CiSHAN. The NYCN regularly partners with youth-serving NGOs to assist the less privileged youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of sampling and sampling design.

4.10 SAMPLING AND SAMPLING DESIGN

According to Connaway and Powell (2010:119), the main aim of sampling is to select representative constituents from a defined population. Sekaran (2003:266–267) affirms that sampling is a method of selecting a defined number of members from an earmarked population with the intention of gaining more insights about the population, which could lead to reaching an informed conclusion about the selected members of the population and its constituents. Cohen et al. (2013:100), suggests that access, size, representativeness and the sampling strategy to be used should be considered when choosing a sample. In this study, access to youth-serving NGOs was gained via NNNGO, CONGO, CiSHAN and NYCN. The size and representativeness of the sample were achieved using Cohen et al.’s (2013:104) table of sample size for the defined population figure (see Cohen et al., 2013:104).

The procedure adopted in the selection of constituents of a sample from the sampling frame is known as the sampling design (Kothari, 2004:153). There are different types of sampling designs available to a researcher, and these sampling designs have been grouped as probability and non-probability sample designs (Cohen et al., 2013:110). The present study utilised the probability sampling method known as simple random sampling (see Thompson, 2012:9–37). Probability sampling enables the researcher to access potential research participants based on random selection (Bhattacharjee, 2012:67). Kumar (2005:347) defines simple random sampling as “a process of selecting the required sample size from the sample population, providing each element with an equal and independent chance of selection by any method designed to select a random sample”. Simple random sampling is a widely used method of selecting a random sample (Kumar, 2005:348). In the present study, the simple random sampling design enabled the researcher to ensure that all youth-serving NGOs in the research population had an equal chance to be selected and to participate in the study.

The next section will present a discussion of sample size.

4.10.1 Sample size

Sample size refers to the “actual number of subjects chosen as a sample to represent the population characteristics” (Sekaran, 2003:423). According to Kumar (2005:177), sample size is denoted by the letter **n** and it reflects the number of research subjects that provide the required information for the study. The study utilised Cohen et al.’s (2013:104) table on sample size for a defined population figure to determine the sample size for the research population of 400 youth-serving NGOs available for the study from the sampling frame provided by the NNNGO. The sample contained 196 youth-serving NGOs based on the 95% confidence level and the 5% margin of error.

The sample size of 196 research respondents was adequate to investigate the research problem. In addition, the sample also adequately represented the population and enabled the researcher to gain valuable insights from the perceptions of the research variables investigated to solve the research problem. A total of 187 completed research questionnaires were returned after issues of improperly filled questionnaires had been addressed indicating a response rate of 95.4%, which was very good for the study (Baruch & Holtom, 2008:1141, 1155).

The next section will present a discussion of the sample.

4.10.2 Sample

A sample is a well-defined and selected part of a population (Sekaran, 2003:423). It is a representative part of the population, reflecting all characteristics of the population. A sample size of 196 research respondents was chosen for this study based on the 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error (Cohen et al., 2013:104). The sample possessed the organisational capabilities (independent variables), namely staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces (Bloom & Smith, 2010:128) (see Table 4.1) that were investigated in the study and as contained in the adapted SCALERS model, to reveal their relationship and effect in the replication of successful youth poverty alleviation programmes.

Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria

NGO type	Years of operation	Sample size and % representation of population	Location of headquarters and operations	Organisational capabilities	Areas of expertise	NGO focus (beneficiaries)	Nationality of NGO and operating location
Youth-serving NGO	From less than one year to more than six years	196 (based on 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error of a population of 400 NGOs that are involved in youth poverty alleviation)	Within any of the six geopolitical zones (North-West Zone, North-East Zone, North-Central Zone, South-West Zone, South-South Zone and South-East Zone), and operating within Nigeria	Staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces	ICT, education and training, agriculture, legal representation services, financial services, SME advisory services, health services, women development services, vocational training and others	Youths (male and female)	Local and international (but had to be operating within Nigeria and data provided had to be based on its operations in Nigeria)

Source: Author's compilation

The next section will present a discussion of research data.

4.11 RESEARCH DATA

Data plays an important role in research (Ellis & Levi, 2012:406–407). The availability of electronic data makes access to data easy as there is a need to evaluate the sources of data to achieve data quality and data fit for usage (Kaushik, 2012:61). Data quality is an important consideration for using and obtaining value from data (Cai & Zhu, 2015:1). Therefore, authority, accuracy, objectivity, currency and coverage as traditional evaluation criteria for information selection in both the usage of web and print materials (Alexander & Tate, 1999:37) are very relevant today. In order to maintain data quality and value for this study, the selection of the sources of data was guided by the data selection criteria as suggested by Alexander and Tate (1999:37).

According to Kumar (2005:132), data can be categorised as primary and secondary sources of data. Secondary sources are information sources that provide secondary data, such as books, journals, previous research studies already in existence (Kumar, 2005:133). Primary sources are informational sources such as interviews, questionnaires and observations (Kumar, 2005:132–133). Data serves various purposes for the researcher, such as –

- to describe contemporary and historical attributes;
- for comparative research or replication of the original research;
- for re-analysis (asking new questions of the data that had not been addressed yet);
- for research design and methodological advancement; and
- for teaching and learning (Hox & Boeijs, 2005:593).

The present study utilised both secondary sources (books, journals and previous research studies) and primary sources (data obtained from the research questionnaire was also used).

The next section will present a discussion of types of data.

4.11.1 Types of data

Data can be categorised as secondary and primary data with distinctive characteristics.

The next section will present a discussion of secondary data.

4.11.1.1 *Secondary data*

According to Walliman (2011:78), secondary data is a significant part of all research studies as it provides the essential background to the study. Secondary data comprises storage of

primary data collected from other researchers in previous studies (Hox & Boeije, 2005:594). According to Johnston (2014:619), technological advances have had a positive influence on the storage of data as large amounts of data are easily stored and readily available for research. Various types of secondary data exist and Walliman (2011:79) affirms that survey data, written and non-written materials are all part of the main source of secondary data, which is the documentary source of secondary data (Mogalakwe, 2006:222–223). Examples of secondary data in various forms are for instance journal supplements, authors' websites, large government-funded data sets and university records (Kozioł & Arthur, 2011:6).

The present study utilised secondary data in the form of survey data, academic articles and other relevant written materials, which provided the necessary background for this study. In addition, the secondary data played a significant role in the adopted theoretical framework, which was the foundation for this study. The foundation for this study was the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:126), which identified the “drivers of social entrepreneurial impact”. In this study, the SCALERS model was adapted to investigate the capabilities of Nigerian NGOs to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes.

The next section will present a discussion of primary data.

4.11.1.2 Primary data

According to Hox and Boeije (2005:593), primary data is data collected based on the research problem being investigated using data collection methods that meet the needs of the research problem being investigated. The aim of primary research is to produce verifiable new information using a process that is free from personal bias (Driscoll, 2011:154). The present study utilised an exploratory-correlational study design to generate numerical data on the demographical profiles of youth-serving NGOs, perceptions of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and perceptions of the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of data collection.

4.11.2 Data collection

Data collection refers to the processes and procedures adopted by the researcher to collect data from the sources of data (Sekaran, 2003:223). For this study, a questionnaire was used to obtain information in line with the research questions and objectives.

For the main study, data was first collected from youth-serving NGOs at the 15th Annual NNNGO conference themed “Global Good Practices in NGO Regulations”, which was held on 9 December 2015 in Lagos, Nigeria. This conference proved to be strategic for the present study as it provided the opportunity of having a geographical mix of youth-serving NGOs from the six geopolitical zones (North-West Zone, North-East Zone, North-Central Zone, South-West Zone, South-South Zone and South-East Zone) representing 36 states of Nigeria. Data was also collected from youth-serving NGOs through CONGO (Edo State chapter), CiSHAN (Edo State chapter) and the NYCN (Edo State chapter) at various times during their association and organisation meeting periods between January and February 2016.

During the data gathering exercise, certain precautions were taken, and a major precaution was ensuring that the research respondents were youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. This was achieved in various data gathering sites, such as the NNNGO conference where the researcher asked the delegates questions about their NGO interests (confirming whether they were involved in youth welfare activities) before the research questionnaire was handed to them. At the meetings with CONGO (Edo State chapter), CiSHAN (Edo State chapter) and the NYCN (Edo State chapter), the researcher had the opportunity to address the members collectively and individually before the data gathering exercise to ensure that only youth-serving NGOs or NGOs that had youth poverty alleviation or youth empowerment as one of its stipulated social interests and activities participated in the research exercise. Another precaution was that the researcher was readily available to answer any question pertaining to the research. A very clear introduction, informed consent page, instructions and guidelines were provided on the research instrument to inform the research participants of the aim and ethics of the study, their right to participate or not and how their anonymity and confidentiality would be protected, and how to answer the research questions (see Appendix A – Research questionnaire). These precautions effectively reduced the data collection errors that might have affected the quality of data collected from the research respondents at the various research sites.

The next section will present a discussion of the data collection instrument.

4.11.2.1 Data collection instrument

Data collection instruments are a key part of the data collection process. Due to the vital role data plays in a study, Sukamolson (2010:3) opines that it is very important to use the right data collection instrument. In the present study, data collection instruments were defined in

the context of research as tools used to obtain relevant information for a research activity (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003:7–8). There are different standardised data collection instruments available and the questionnaire is the most common data collection instrument used by researchers (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003:5).

According to Walliman (2011:97), the questionnaire is a very useful instrument for collecting quantitative data. Sukamolson (2010:8–9) affirms that quantitative research is suited to answer the following types of research questions:

- questions that require a quantitative answer;
- numerical change questions;
- questions relating to audience segmentation (dividing a population into groups and audience estimation);
- questions that seek to quantify opinions, attitudes and behaviours;
- questions that seek to generate responses from a population about a problem or a situation; and
- questions seeking responses to explain a phenomenon.

There are different types of questionnaires available, such as the self-administered questionnaire (Meadows, 2003:562). The self-administered questionnaire is defined as a research questionnaire that is completed by the research respondents for the study (Sekaran, 2003:236). Below are some of the key features of a self-administered questionnaire that informed the adoption by the researcher:

- low cost;
- providing a wider coverage of the population; and
- elimination of interviewer bias (Meadows, 2003:562).

The present study utilised the self-administered questionnaire to collect quantitative data on the organisational demographic profile and perceptions of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present a discussion of the design of questionnaire.

4.11.2.2 Design of questionnaire

For the present study, the design process of the questionnaire was informed by the research aims and objectives of the study. The instrument utilised was a self-administered questionnaire adapted from the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:144–145) (see Appendix A). The research instrument by Bloom and Smith (2010:144–145) was adopted and adapted based on the research problem being investigated in this study and the adapted SCALERS model being tested in a new research context (Nigeria) and with youth-serving NGOs.

In order to state the process adopted by the researcher in this study, there was a need to state the design process adopted by Bloom and Smith (2010:135 & 137) in constructing the SCALERS questionnaire. A summary of the items in the main SCALERS questionnaire is presented as 25 Likert-type items as stated by Bloom and Smith (2010:135) in their theoretical development and exploratory empirical test of the SCALERS model (Bloom & Smith, 2010:126 & 128). Among the 25 Likert-type items, four items measured scaling for social impact, while three items measured each of the seven constructs in the SCALERS model (staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) (Bloom & Smith, 2010:135). According to Bloom and Smith (2010:135 & 137), the procedure that was used for the construction and measurement properties of items in the SCALERS research questionnaire involved utilising formative measures to develop the scale item by focusing on content and indicator specifications as depicted in a guideline by Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001:271–272). For the content specification, the effectiveness of organisational capabilities with respect to the constructs of the SCALERS model was the standard as defined in the aforementioned guideline, while for the indicator specification, the items needed to reflect a total coverage of the formative constructs in the defined area of concentration (Bloom & Smith, 2010:137). Initially, six items were identified and utilised for each construct from the literature reviewed, and this was eventually reduced to three after seeking the input of three established social entrepreneurial organisations who confirmed the three items to reflect the main constructs (Bloom & Smith, 2010:137). This was done to improve the construct and external validity (Bloom & Smith, 2010:137). Other validation tests carried out by Bloom and Smith (2010:137) included –

- a confirmatory factor analysis (to assess the fit of the measurement model);

- Harman's one-factor test (see Podsakoff & Organ, 1986:536–537) (to assess common method variance); and
- a factor analysis on all 25 items on the research instrument for the study.

The outcomes were good and satisfactory (Bloom & Smith, 2010:137). These tests were all carried out to reduce the possibility of issues that might arise in the study (Bloom & Smith, 2010:137). Other validation tests carried out on the SCALERS instrument included a confirmatory factor test with this result:

$X^2=837.70$, $df=247$, $p < 0.001$; $RMSEA=0.063$; $NFI=0.92$; $CFI=0.94$, which showed that the model is a good fit for data, Harman's one-factor test to check for single factor covariance in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables and lastly a factor analysis on all 25 items, including 8 factors with eigenvalues near or greater than one was discovered with no single factor accounting for more than 26% of the variance (Bloom & Smith, 2010:12).

It is important to state that the questionnaire was designed to investigate the capabilities of social entrepreneurial organisations to scale social effect (Bloom & Smith, 2010:135).

Based on adopting the SCALERS research instrument and adapting it to this study, the research questionnaire was designed to have two sections, section A (Organisational Demographic Questions) with eight questions on a nominal scale (dichotomous and multi-choice questions) and section B (Main Research Questions – NGO Perceptions) with 28 questions on a 5-point Likert-type scale.

In section A (Organisational Demographic Questions), eight items were identified to reflect the organisational characteristics with respect to –

- how long the NGO had been in existence;
- the location of its head office within the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria;
- the current number of beneficiaries being assisted;
- the target beneficiaries' gender (if it was a gender-sensitive NGO, for example focusing on young women and girls' development issues);
- educational status of target beneficiaries;
- target beneficiaries' age group;
- major area of organisational expertise; and

- nationality of NGO (local/indigenous or international).

In section B (Main Research Questions – NGO Perceptions), 7 items were identified to reflect and measure the main construct of replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable in the adapted SCALERS model) by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria, which was shortened to ‘youth poverty alleviation’ in the research instrument. Three items each were used to measure the seven constructs of the organisational capabilities of the adapted SCALERS model – staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces (independent variables in the adapted SCALERS model) while some of the wordings were changed to reflect the situations that were applicable to youth-serving NGOs and the research aims and objectives.

The Likert-type scale used was a 5-point scale with 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (undecided), 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree). According to Sekaran (2003:419), a Likert-type scale is an interval and point scale that measures the level of disagreement or agreement with a research statement. The research instrument items followed the specifications of the capabilities of effective youth-serving NGOs with respect to the constructs in terms of their content and indication specifications and based on an extensive and rigorous literature review on youth-serving NGOs as adopted from Bloom and Smith (2010:135 & 137).

In addition to adapting the SCALERS model questionnaire for this study, the following considerations as suggested by Cohen et al. (2013:317, 318) also informed the research questionnaire design:

- **Ethical issues:** The ethical standards and guidelines for this study were informed by the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) ethics guidelines as advised by the UKZN Ethics Committee and postpositivist philosophy (Ryan, 2006:17). The researcher ensured that a covering letter was attached to the research instrument, which informed the research respondents of the purpose of the research and their right to voluntary participation or to withdraw from the study at any time they wished to do so. Intrusive questions were seldom asked as the research questions were of a general nature. An informed consent letter was also attached to seek the consent of the research participants despite writing personally to the head of their various associations to seek permission to conduct the study. In addition, respondents’ anonymity, confidentiality, and non-traceability to the study were guaranteed.

- **Planning the questionnaire:** The objective of the questionnaire was to assist the researcher in solving the research problem by gathering meaningful data for the study. This informed the choice of adapting the SCALERS model and questionnaire to suit the data requirements. In addition, the research population and the sample, topics, constructs, kinds of measures, questionnaire items, pilot study and the final administration of the questionnaire were all considered and informed by the literature reviewed which indicated that youth poverty was on the increase in Nigeria. NGO efforts at alleviating youth poverty in Nigeria were not having the expected positive outcome and the presence of challenges in terms of the organisational capabilities of various NGOs was hampering the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.
- **Types of questionnaire items:** The adapted questionnaire had nominal (dichotomous and multi-choice questions) and 5-point Likert-type questions in order to achieve the study aim and objectives.
- **Asking sensitive questions:** Sensitive questions were not asked to protect the respondents from issues associated with sensitive questions.
- **Avoiding pitfalls in question writing:** Complex questions were avoided and technical words used were words well known to the research respondents and part of their social sector activities. Ambiguous questions were avoided.
- **Sequencing the questions:** The questions were well sequenced. The questions were grouped into parts. Section A (organisational demographic questions) and Section B (Main research questions – NGO perceptions). All questions asked were well ordered and relevant to the study.
- **Questionnaires containing few verbal items:** The questionnaire did not have many verbal items and these were well tailored to the characteristics of the sample. This strategy enabled the sample to respond adequately to the questions asked in the questionnaire leading to a response rate of 95.4%.
- **The layout of the questionnaire:** The study questionnaire looked easy and attractive.
- **Covering letter:** A covering letter was attached to the questionnaire with relevant and necessary information about the research as part of the strict ethical guidelines followed by this study.
- **Piloting the questionnaire:** A pilot test was carried out on the research instrument and the reliability check indicated a Cronbach alpha of .800, showing that the research instrument was good to be utilised for the study.

- **Administering the questionnaire:** The questionnaire for this study was designed to be self-administered. The questionnaires were completed by the research respondents with the researcher being available to answer queries about the study and the questionnaire.
- **Processing the questionnaire data:** In processing the data for this study, the questionnaire was checked for completeness, accuracy and uniformity. Few issues of improperly completed questionnaires were discovered and addressed.

The next section will present a discussion of the validity and reliability of the data collection instrument.

4.11.2.3 Validity and reliability of the data collection instrument

There are tests to be carried out to confirm the suitability, reliability and usefulness of a research instrument for a research. This was done in the present study to enable the researcher to achieve the research aims and objectives. These tests are known as **validity** and **reliability tests** (Weiner, 2007:7, 6).

The next section will present a discussion of the validity of the data collection instrument.

4.11.2.3.1 Validity of the data collection instrument

According to Krishnaswamy, Sivakumar and Mathirajan (2009:265), a measuring instrument is determined to have validity “to the extent to which differences in measured values reflect true differences in the characteristics or properties being measured”. Weiner (2007:7) affirms that the validity of a measure “is the degree to which any measurement approach or instrument succeeds in describing or quantifying what it is designed to measure”. Drost (2011:114) affirms that validity is “concerned with the meaningfulness of research components”. Validity can be classified into two categories: external and internal validity (Krishnaswamy et al., 2009:145).

- **External validity:** Krishnaswamy et al. (2009:147) explain that external validity “is extent the results of a causal can be generalised to other people, events or settings”. According to Krishnaswamy et al. (2009:148), a representative sample increases external validity.

For the present study, the external validity was expected to be high as simple random sampling was used to access the youth poverty alleviation focus of NGOs who were

the research respondents for this study. In addition, the research data was collected at the natural settings of the NGOs where they met to deliberate on solving social issues.

- **Internal validity:** **Internal validity** refers to the extent “to which differences found with a measuring tool reflect through differences among those being tested” (Krishnaswamy et al., 2009:265). Furthermore, Krishnaswamy et al. (2009:145) affirm that the internal validity of a research instrument is based on its capacity to achieve its measurement aims. There are three major forms of validity and these are discussed below:

- **Content validity:** According to Krishnaswamy et al. (2009:265), content validity of a research instrument “is the extent to which it provides adequate coverage of the topic under study”. Weiner (2007:22) suggests that for content validity, items included in the measurement instrument should adequately cover all questions that are necessary to be asked.

For the present study, the measuring instrument used for this study was adapted from the Bloom and Smith (2010:144–145) SCALERS model questionnaire. The research variables pertaining to the questionnaire were consistent with variables found in the literature reviewed relating to the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The content validity of the questionnaire was validated during the pilot study exercise using 10 NGOs registered with the NNNGO.

- **Criterion-related validity:** According to Weiner (2007:23), criteria-related validity is indicative of new measures being in agreement with an external criterion such as an established measure. Krishnaswamy et al. (2009:265) agree that criterion-related validity is indicative of the “success of measures used for empirical estimating purposes”.

For the present study, the dependent variable (replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths) was in agreement with the established dependent variable **scale of social impact** in the SCALERS model. There was also predictive evidence of the outcome of interest as suggested by Weiner (2007:23) of the independent variables of the present study (organisational capabilities of the youth-serving NGO) significantly predicting the dependent variable (replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths) and having established the correlation.

- **Construct validity:** According to Weiner (2007:24), **construct validity** refers to the measure of consistency between the construct and the theoretical concept being measured. Krishnaswamy et al. (2009:555) affirm that construct validity is also referred to as the **validity of a theory**.

For this study, the constructs of organisational capabilities for youth-serving NGOs and replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria were consistent with the theoretical concept being measured (the SCALERS adapted model). Hence, this study validated the SCALERS model.

Finally, construct validity of the data collection instrument was established to a reasonable extent.

The next section will present a discussion of the reliability of the data collection instrument.

4.11.2.3.2 Reliability of the data collection instrument

According to Drost (2011:106), reliability is “the extent to which measurements are repeatable”. Weiner (2007:6) opines that the reliability of a measure is “the degree to which a measurement technique can be dependent upon to secure consistent results upon repeated application”. In, ascertaining the reliability of a research instruments, there are a number of reliability tests that could be used to confirm the usefulness of the research instrument. According to Sullivan (2011:119), reliability may be calculated using different methods, and the preferred method will be influenced by the type of measurement instrument.

For this study, the Cronbach’s alpha was the adopted method used to ascertain the reliability of the research instrument for the study. According to Bland and Altman (1997:572), “Cronbach’s alpha is a measure of internal consistency”.

The reliability test for the set of scale items on the research instrument for this study was done using the Cronbach coefficient alpha after a pilot test of the adapted SCALERS model instrument. The pilot test was carried out between 5 and 10 November 2015 using 10 NGOs registered with the NNNGO in Nigeria. A Cronbach coefficient alpha of .800 was found for the 28 items on the research instrument showing that the instrument was reliable. According to Kline (2000:15), a reliability coefficient of 0.7 is a “minimum standard for a good test” and this was obtained by the present study. However, considerations were also made for the use of some constructs with reliability coefficients of less than 0.7 based on “their meaningful

content coverage of some domain and reasonable unidimensionality” as suggested by Schmitt (1996:352).

The results of the reliability coefficients for the RSY PAP (dependent variable) and organisational capabilities (independent variables) for youth-serving NGOs are shown in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2: Reliability statistics (dependent and independent variables)

Variables	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items	Remarks
Replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable)	.807	7	Good
Staffing (independent variable)	.702	3	Good
Communication (independent variable)	.782	3	Good
Alliance-building (independent variable)	.492	3	Poor, but useable based on meaningful content coverage of some domain and reasonable unidimensionality.
Lobbying (independent variable)	.701	3	Good
Earnings-generation (independent variable)	.678	3	Good, based on meaningful content coverage of some domain and reasonable unidimensionality.
Replicating (independent variable)	.834	3	Good
Stimulating market forces (independent variable)	.786	3	Good

Source: Author's own compilation.

Finally, the reliability of the data collection instrument was established to a reasonable extent.

The next section will present a discussion of data analysis.

4.11.3 Data analysis

This study utilised both descriptive and inferential statistics in the data analysis.

The next section will present a discussion of descriptive statistics.

4.11.3.1 Descriptive statistics

According to Sekaran (2003:394), descriptive statistics involves the “transformation of raw data into a form that would provide information to describe a set of factors in a situation”. Isotalo (2001:5) affirms that descriptive statistics involves the summarization and description of data. Descriptive statistics take the form of frequencies, measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion (Sekaran, 2003:312–313). Descriptive statistics was used to sum up and describe the data obtained in this study.

The next section will present a discussion of frequencies and percentages.

4.11.3.2 Frequencies and percentages

Frequencies represent the number of times a phenomenon occurs. According to Larson (2006:76), frequency statistics are “the main descriptive statistics used with discrete variables”. These include absolute frequencies (raw counts), relative frequencies (proportions or percentages) and cumulative frequencies (Larson, 2006:76).

According to Sekaran (2003:313), frequencies can be graphically displayed as bar charts, histograms or pie charts. According to Spriestersbach, Gerhold-Ay, Du Prel, Röhrig and Blettner (2009:580), “the bar chart is an alternative form of presentation and the frequency values are located on the y-axis”. In the present study, frequency distributions in the form of bar charts were used for all the organisational demographic information provided by youth-serving NGOs who participated in the study.

The next section will present a discussion of measures of central tendencies.

4.11.4 Measures of central tendencies

The measures of central tendencies are the mean, median and mode (Sekaran, 2003:420). In the present study, only the mean was used.

The next section will present a discussion of the mean.

4.11.4.1 Mean

According to Cohen et al. (2013:503), the mean represents the average. According to Berenson, Levine, Szabat and Krehbiel (2012:61), the mean is the most widely used measure of central tendency. The mean is calculated by summing up all the values of variables in a defined data set and then dividing the total by the number of variable values in the data set (Berenson et al., 2012:61). The mean enables the researcher to note where the bulk of the data values is grouped (Berenson et al., 2012:61).

The next section will present a discussion of measures of dispersion.

4.11.5 Measures of dispersion

The measures of dispersion that are linked to the mean are the range, variance and standard deviation (SD) (Sekaran, 2003:420). In the present study, only the SD was used in order to ascertain the spread of the data (Cohen et al., 2013:504).

The next section will present a discussion of the standard deviation.

4.11.5.1 Standard deviation

According to Cohen et al. (2013:504), the SD represents a measure of “the dispersal or range of scores, calculated as the square root of the variance”. According to Sekaran (2003:398), the SD is one of the most widely used measures of dispersion. The SD, just like the mean, enables the researcher to note where the bulk of the data values is grouped (Berenson et al., 2012:61).

The next section will present a discussion of inferential statistics.

4.11.5.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics allow for inferences to be made from the sample data to the population of data (Isotalo, 2001:5). These inferences include “identifying the relationships between two variables, differences in a variable among subgroups and how several independent variable might explain the variance in a dependent variable”(Sekaran, 2003:399). Inferential statistics can be “categorised as parametric and non-parametric”(Sekaran, 2003:394). The present study used parametric statistics to identify the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (independent variables) and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (dependent variable). Furthermore, the study utilised parametric statistics in exploring how the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs might explain the variance in the replication of successful programme designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present a discussion of parametric statistics.

4.11.5.3 Parametric statistics

According to Sekaran (2003:421), parametric statistics are statistics used “to test hypotheses when the population from which the sample is drawn is assumed to be normally distributed”. Cohen et al. (2013:414) affirm that the parametric test is planned to represent the research population earmarked for the study. Cohen et al. (2013:414) further state that parametric tests enable the researcher to build theories about the research population and the characteristics of the research population. Below are some advantages of the parametric test:

- parametric tests are powerful tests as they enable the researcher to compare the research sample with the research population; and

- these tests enable the researcher to use powerful statistics to analyse the research data and make deductions about the result (Cohen et al., 2013:415).

Parametric tests used in this study were the one sample t-test (see Chaffin & Rhiel, 1993:79–90), Pearson’s correlation (see Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002:4, 44–45) and regression analysis (see Schroeder, Sjoquist & Stephan, 1986:12, 31). The choice of the parametric test was informed by the criteria stated for the use of a parametric test and the parametric test criteria, which were satisfied by the research data. This also served as justifications for the choice of parametric tests for the study. The following are the criteria and justifications for the use of parametric tests:

- large sample size where $n > 30$ or 40, as suggested by Elliott and Woodward (2007:26–27, 57) and Pallant (2007:295). For this study, $n=187$;
- interval scale variables (dependent and independent) as suggested by Cohen et al. (2013:415) and Sekaran (2003:394); and
- statistical means (M) from a random sample will naturally have a normal distribution based on the central limit theorem as observed by Altman and Bland (1995:298). The present study data was consistent with this theory.

The next section will present a discussion of the one sample t-test.

4.11.5.3.1 One sample t-test

One sample t-test is used to compare a sample mean to an identified population mean without the knowledge of the dispersion of the population (Lin & Perissin, 2017: Paragraph14). According to Park (2009:4), the one sample t-test confirms whether “the population mean is different from a hypothesized value (oftentimes zero)”.

The next section will present a discussion of Pearson’s correlation.

4.11.5.3.2 Pearson’s correlation

Pearson’s correlation is a general measure of the relationship between two variables (Macdonald & Headlam, 2008:30). In interpreting the results, a correlation with numerical value of +1 indicates that there is a perfect positive linear relationship between the variables being investigated (Macdonald & Headlam, 2008:30). A correlation with numerical value of -1 indicates that there is a perfect negative linear relationship between the variables being investigated (Macdonald & Headlam, 2008:30). The present study utilised Pearson’s

correlation to investigate the relationship between the dependent variable (replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths) and independent variables (organisational capabilities: staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) of youth-serving NGOs by testing the research hypotheses.

The next section will present a discussion of regression analysis.

4.11.5.3.3 Regression analysis

According to Kothari (2004:130), regression analysis is the study of the practical relationship existing between two or more variables in order to determine how the variables influence changes in another variable. The present study utilised multiple regression analysis to investigate the influencing role of the independent variables (organisational capabilities, namely staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) of youth-serving NGOs in terms of the dependent variable (replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths). According to Kothari (2004:130), multiple regression analysis is utilised by the researcher when there are several independent variables influencing a dependent variable.

The next section will present a discussion of ethical considerations.

4.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The present study conformed to the rules and guidelines expressed in the ethical approval obtained from the UKZN Ethics Committee. A gatekeeper's letter was obtained from the NNNGO, which provided access to various registered youth-serving NGOs and their associated state networks such as CONGO (Edo State chapter) and CiSHAN (Edo State chapter), and the NYCN (Edo State chapter), which are key partners for youth issues. The various heads of the aforementioned organisations were duly briefed about the research intent, and the research questionnaire contained an introductory letter and an informed consent page that were distributed to the various youth-serving NGOs who participated in the study. The respondents signed the informed consent page and retained the introductory letter signed by the researcher. This letter introduced the researcher, informed the research participants of the research aim and explained intentions, indicated that participation in the study was voluntary with no adverse effect and also that there was no monetary gain for participating in the study. It further stated the necessary ethical considerations and the contact

details of the researcher, the research supervisor and the research office. Issues of confidentiality and privacy of the research respondents (managers and key representatives of youth-serving NGOs earmarked for the study) were strictly considered and respected as contained in the UKZN ethical rules and guidelines for academic research.

The next section will present the summary.

4.13 SUMMARY

This chapter provided information on the research methodology for the study. The research problem, sub-problems, objectives of the study, key research questions pertaining to the study and hypotheses that were tested in the study were stated. The research philosophy, research design, research setting, population, sampling method, sources of data, data collection instrument, data analysis techniques and ethical considerations of the study were also presented and discussed.

The next chapter presents the data analysis and interpretation of the results for this study.

CHAPTER FIVE:

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results obtained during the study. The results are presented using descriptive and inferential statistics. The data for the study was obtained by analysing the respondents' responses to the questionnaire in terms of their organisational demographic profile, replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths and organisational capabilities obtained from managers of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 for Windows was used for the analysis and presentation of the research data.

For this study, the target population was 400 youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. Using Cohen et al.'s (2013:104) table on sample size (see Cohen et al., 2013:104; also see 3.10.1) for a defined population, a sample of 196 youth-serving NGOs was selected for this study. A total of 187 managers of youth-serving NGOs completed the questionnaires representing a 95.4% response rate, which was deemed adequate to draw meaningful conclusions about the population of youth-serving NGOs with respect to the organisational demographic profile, RSPDEPY and organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs.

The data accessed for this study was from both nominal and interval scales. Two types of analyses were carried out on the collated data. The first part of the analyses presents the organisational demographic variables for this study. Descriptive statistics in the form of bar charts are used to reflect results. The second part of the analyses presents the perceptions of NGOs of the dependent variable (replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (RSPDEPY) and the independent variables (organisational capabilities: staffing, communicating, alliance-building; lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) in this study. Inferential statistics in the form of one sample t-tests, Pearson's correlation and regression analysis were used. Comprehensive analyses and interpretation of these results are presented in order to identify significant patterns and relationships that may be present among the variables.

The next section will present the analysis of results of the organisational demographic information of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2 ORGANISATIONAL DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF YOUTH-SERVING NGOS (DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS)

Descriptive statistics of the profile of youth-serving NGOs are presented in the form of bar charts.

The next section will present the analysis of results of the profile of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1 Profile of youth-serving NGOs

The study focused on youth-serving NGOs carrying out youth poverty alleviation activities in Nigeria.

The next section will present the analysis of results of the profile of a sample of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1.1 Profile of a sample of youth-serving NGOs

The graphical displays in this section refer to the organisational demographic information of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

The next section will present the analysis of results of the years of existence of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1.1.1 Years of existence of youth-serving NGOs

The years of existence of youth-serving NGOs are shown in Figure 5.1.

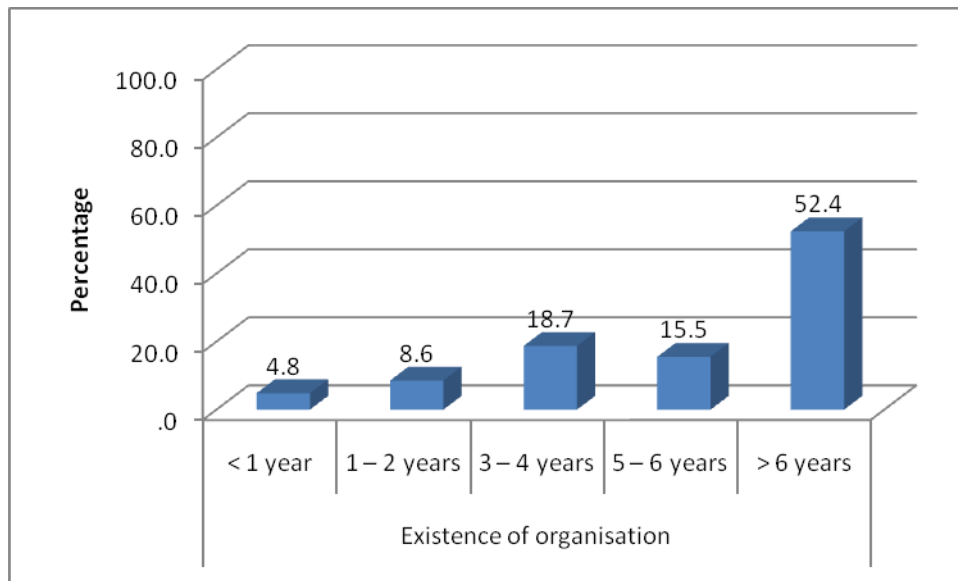


Figure 5.1: Frequency distribution of years of existence of youth-serving NGOs

As is evident in Figure 5.1, the majority of youth-serving NGOs (52%) have been in existence for more than 6 years. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their NGO had been in existence for 3–4 years (18.7%), 5–6 years (15.5%), 1–2 years (8.6%), and less than 1 year (4.8%). This shows that the majority of the sample group had been in existence for more than 6 years (52%).

The next section will present the analysis of results of the region of youth-serving NGO head office.

5.2.1.1.2 Region of youth-serving NGO head office

Frequency distribution of the regions of youth-serving NGO head office is shown in Figure 5.2.

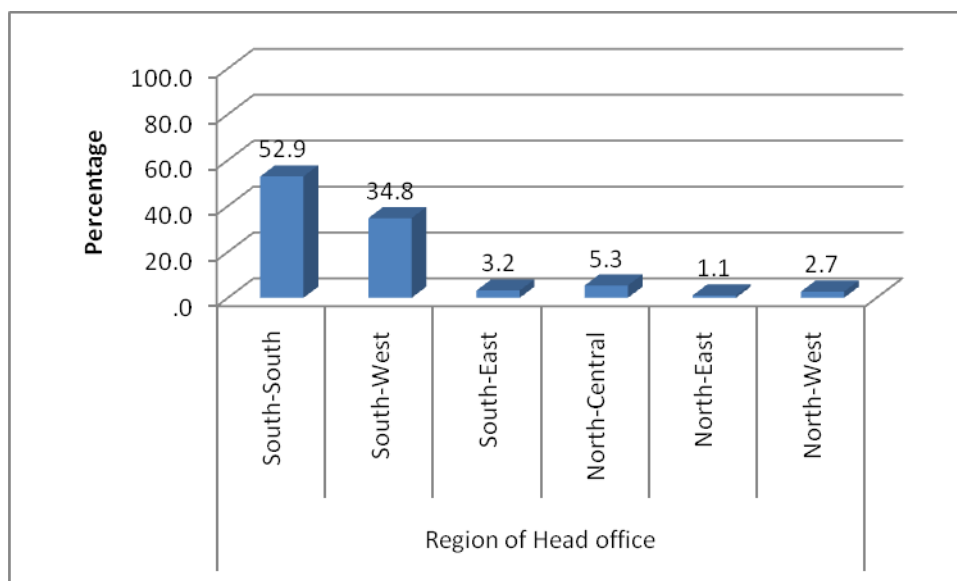


Figure 5.2: Frequency distribution of the region of youth-serving NGOs' head office

As is evident in Figure 5.2, at the time of this research, the majority of youth-serving NGOs (52.9%) had their head office located in the South-South region. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their head office was located in the South-West region (34.8%), North-Central (5.3%), South-East (3.2%), North-West (2.7%) and North-East (1.1). This shows that majority of the sample group had their head office located in the South-South region (52.9%).

The next section will present the analysis of results of the current number of beneficiaries of youth-serving NGO.

5.2.1.1.3 Current number of beneficiaries of youth-serving NGO

The current number of beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs is shown in Figure 5.3.

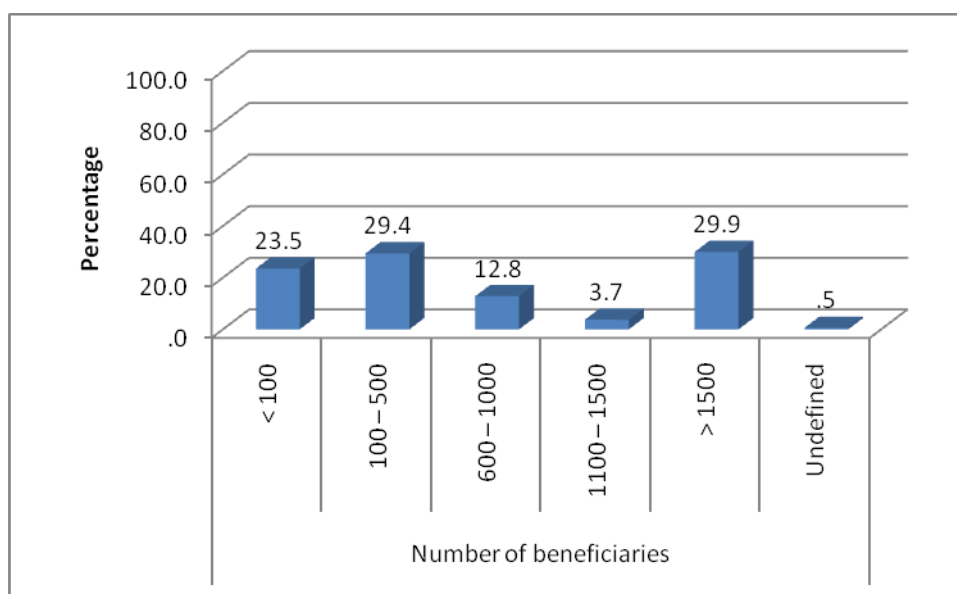


Figure 5.3: Frequency distribution of the current number of youth-serving NGO beneficiaries

As is evident in Figure 5.3, at the time of the research, a high number of youth-serving NGOs (29.9%) had more than 1 500 beneficiaries. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their NGO had between 100 and 500 beneficiaries (29.4%), fewer than 100 (23.5%), 600–1 000 (12.8%) and 1 100–1 500 (3.7%). This shows that a high number of the sample group have more than 1 500 beneficiaries (29.9%).

The next section will present the analysis of results of the gender of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1.1.4 Gender of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs

The gender distribution of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs is shown in Figure 5.4.

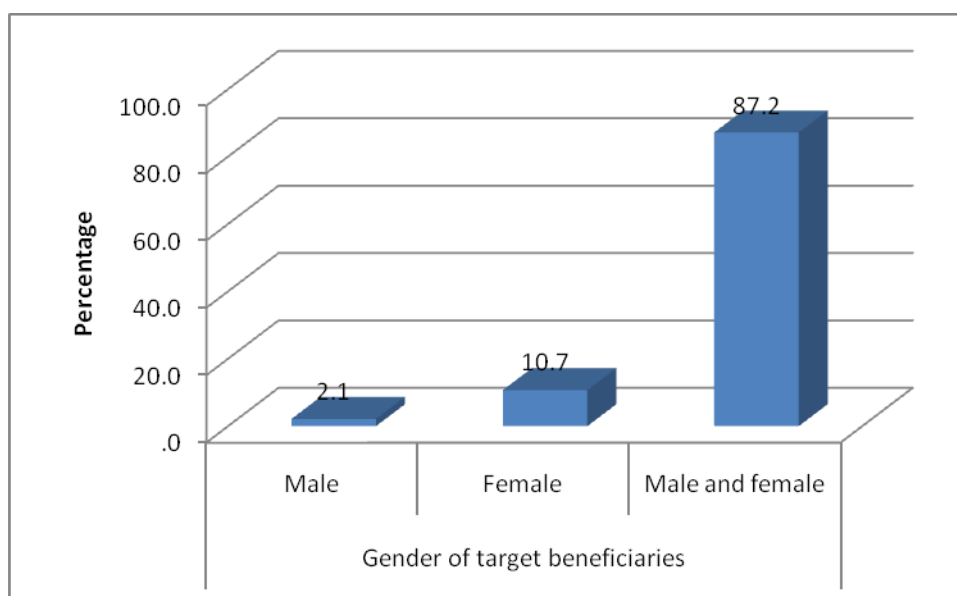


Figure 5.4: Frequency distribution of the gender of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs

As is evident from Figure 5.4, at the time of the research, the majority of youth-serving NGOs (87.2%) targeted both male and female beneficiaries. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their NGO targeted only female beneficiaries (10.7%) and respondents who indicated that their NGOs targeted only male beneficiaries (2.1%). This shows that majority of the sample group were not gender exclusive and targeted both male and female beneficiaries (87.2%).

The next section will present the analysis of results of the educational status of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1.1.5 The educational status of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs

The educational status of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs is shown in Figure 5.5.

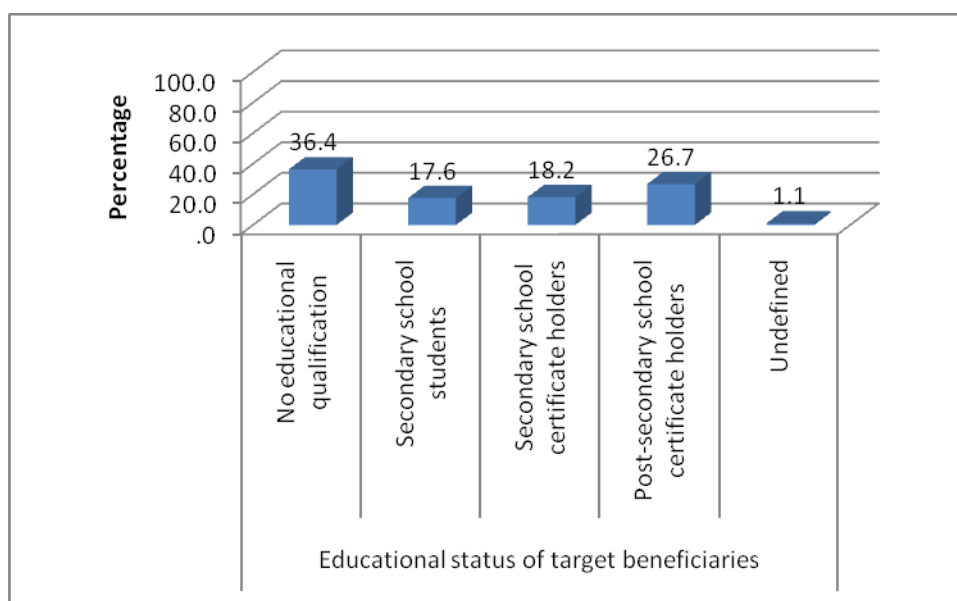


Figure 5.5: Frequency distribution of the educational status of the beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs

As is evident in Figure 5.5, at the time of the research, a high number of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs (36.4%) had no educational qualification. This was followed by respondents who indicated that the target beneficiaries of their NGOs had post-secondary school certificates (26.7%), respondents who indicated that the target beneficiaries of their NGOs had secondary school certificates (18.2%), and respondents who indicated that their target beneficiary were secondary school students (17.6%). This shows that a high number of the sample group's target beneficiaries had no educational qualification (36.4%).

The next section will present the analysis of results of the age groups of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1.1.6 Age groups of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs

The age groups of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs are shown in Figure 5.6.

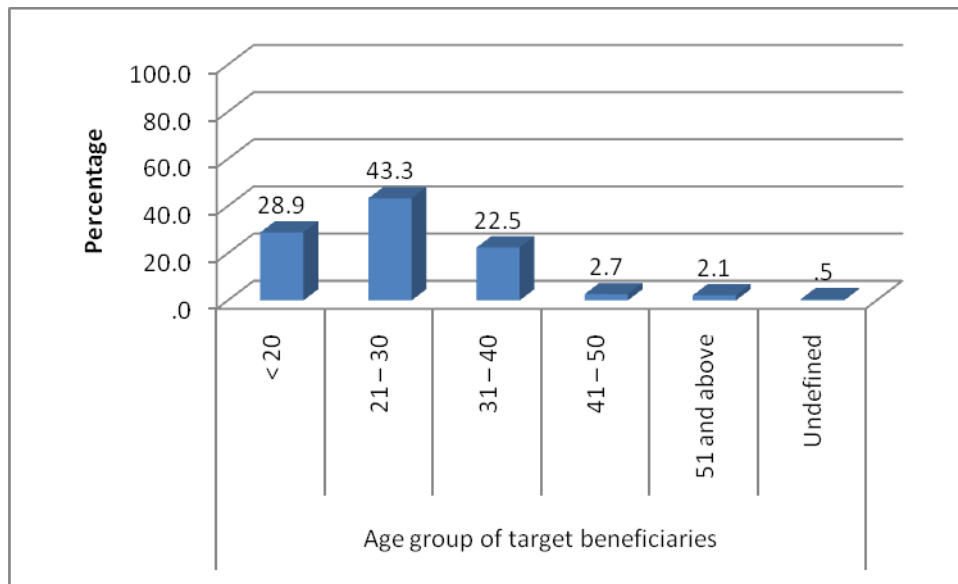


Figure 5.6: Frequency distribution of the age groups of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs

As is evident in Figure 5.6, at the time of the research, a high number of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs (43.3%) were in the age group of 21–30 years. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their target beneficiaries were in the age group of younger than 20 years (28.9%), 31–40 (22.5%), 41–50 (2.7%) and 51 and above (2.1%). This shows that a high number of the sample group target beneficiaries within the age range of 21–30 years.

The next section will present the analysis of results of the major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1.1.7 Major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs

The major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs are shown in Figure 5.7.

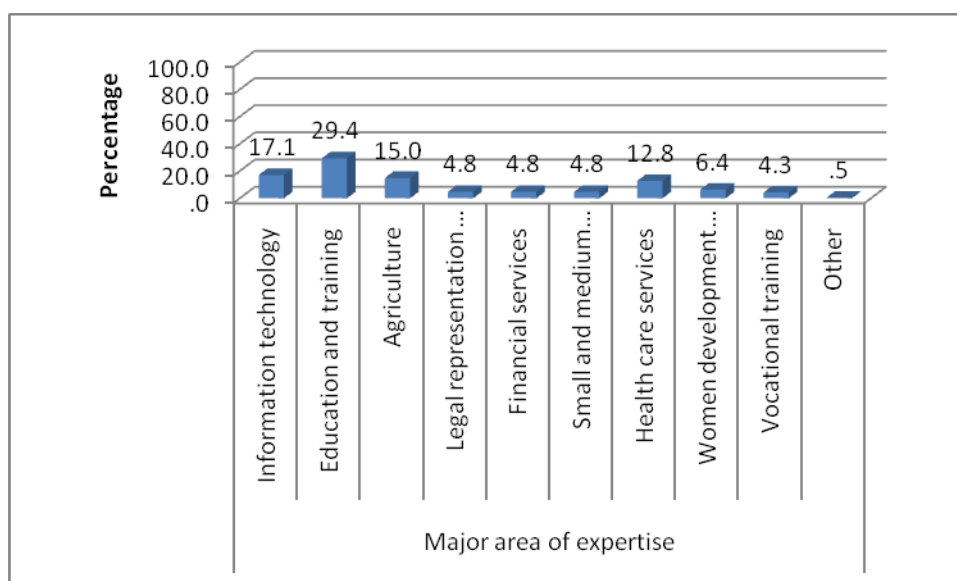


Figure 5.7: Frequency distribution of areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs

As is evident in Figure 5.7, at the time of the research, a high number of areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs (29.4%) were related to education and training. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their area of expertise was in information technology (17.1%), agriculture (15.0%), health care services (12.8%), women development services (6.4%), legal representation services (4.8%), financial services (4.8), SME advisory services (4.8) and vocational training (4.3%).

The next section will present the analysis of results of the national identity of youth-serving NGOs.

5.2.1.1.8 National identity of youth-serving NGOs

The national identity of youth-serving NGOs is shown in Figure 5.8.

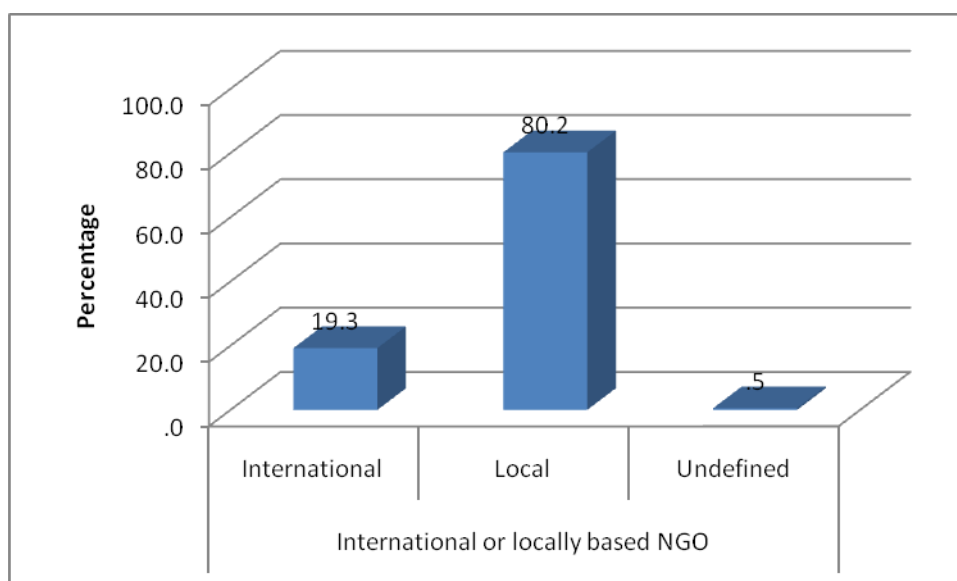


Figure 5.8: Frequency distribution of national identity of youth-serving NGOs

As is evident in Figure 5.8, at the time of the research, the majority of youth-serving NGOs (80.2%) identified themselves as local NGOs. This was followed by respondents who indicated that they were international NGOs (19.3%). This shows that the majority of the sample group were local NGOs (80.2%).

The next section will present the analysis of results of perceptions of youth-serving NGOs on the replication of successful programmes and organisational capabilities.

5.3 PERCEPTIONS OF YOUTH-SERVING NGOS ON THE REPLICATION OF SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMMES AND ORGANISATIONAL CAPABILITIES (INFERENTIAL STATISTICS)

This section presents the inferential statistics carried out on the perceptions of youth-serving NGOs' organisational capabilities and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for the perceptions of youth-serving NGOs.

5.3.1 One sample t-test analysis for the perceptions of youth-serving NGOs

The one sample t-test tests whether "the population mean is different from a hypothesized value" (Park, 2009:4). The following are the one sample t-test analysis results in terms of the perceptions of youth-serving NGOs of the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (RSPDEPY) and organisational capabilities:

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

5.3.1.1 *Replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths*

As is evident in Table 5.1 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that, at the time of the research, there was significant agreement that the NGOs had made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty ($M=3.73$, $SD=.987$), $t(186)=10.079$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had scaled its capabilities to address youth poverty ($M=3.83$, $SD=.917$), $t(186)=12.356$, $p < .0005$) and the NGOs had greatly increased the number of individuals it served ($M=4.06$, $SD=.846$), $t(186)=17.194$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had greatly increased the geographical area it served ($M=3.74$, $SD=9.88$), $t(186)=10.285$, $p < .0005$. At the time of this research, the NGOs targeted youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria ($M=3.55$, $SD=1.066$), $t(185)=7.019$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty ($M=3.71$, $SD=1.085$), $t(186)=8.899$, $p < .0005$). Adopting sustainable green practices benefit youth poverty alleviation programmes ($M=3.87$, $SD=.820$), $t(186)=14.545$, $p < .0005$. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were positive about the progress made in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

Table 5.1: T-test analysis for replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
1. The NGO has made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty	187	3.73	.987	10.079	186	.000
2. The NGO has scaled its capabilities to address youth poverty	187	3.83	.917	12.356	186	.000
3. The NGO has greatly increased the number of individuals it serves	187	4.06	.846	17.194	186	.000
4. The NGO has greatly increased the geographical area it serves	187	3.74	9.88	10.285	186	.000
5. The NGO targets youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria	187	3.55	1.066	7.019	186	.000
6. The NGO has significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty	187	3.71	1.085	8.899	186	.000

7. Adopting sustainable green practices benefits youth poverty alleviation programmes	187	3.87	.820	14.545	186	.000
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Source: Author's own compilation

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for organisational capabilities.

5.3.1.2 Organisational capabilities

This section presents the t-test analysis results on the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for staffing (independent variable 1).

5.3.1.2.1 Staffing (independent variable 1)

As is evident in Table 5.2 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that, at the time of the research, there was significant agreement that the NGOs had been able to meet its staffing needs with the required skilled manpower ($M=3.25$, $SD=1.133$), $t(186)=2.969$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve its organisational goals and the requirements of the programmes ($M=3.53$, $SD=1.108$), $t(186)=6.597$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had an available pool of volunteers to help meet its labour requirements ($M=3.65$, $SD=1.142$), $t(186)=7.815$, $p < .0005$. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were positive about their staffing capability.

Table 5.2: T-test analysis for staffing (independent variable 1)

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
8. The NGO has been able to meet its staffing needs with the required skilled manpower	187	3.25	1.133	2.969	186	.000
9. The NGO has adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve its organisational goals and requirements of the programmes	187	3.53	1.108	6.597	186	.000
10. The NGO has an available pool of volunteers to help meet its labour requirements	187	3.65	1.142	7.815	186	.000

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for communication.

5.3.1.2.2 *Communication*

As evident in Table 5.3 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that, at the time of this research, there was significant agreement that the NGOs had been effective in communicating its services to key stakeholders ($M=3.93$, $SD=.826$), $t(186)=15.313$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had been successful at informing its clients and beneficiaries about the value of its programmes for them ($M=3.95$, $SD=.826$), $t(186)=14.439$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had been successful in convincing its sponsors and donors about the importance of what it does ($M=3.83$, $SD=.869$), $t(186)=13.040$, $p < .0005$. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were positive about their communication capability.

Table 5.3: T-test analysis for communication (independent variable 2)

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
11. The NGO has been effective in communicating its services to key stakeholders	187	3.93	.826	15.313	186	.000
12. The NGO has been successful at informing its clients/beneficiaries about the value of its programmes for them	187	3.95	.826	14.439	186	.000
13. The NGO has been successful in convincing its sponsors and donors about the importance of what it does	187	3.83	.869	13.040	186	.000

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for alliance-building.

5.3.1.2.3 *Alliance-building*

As is evident in Table 5.4 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that, at the time of this research, there was significant agreement that the NGOs had built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations ($M=3.95$, $SD=.853$), $t(186)=15.167$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs always partnered with other organisations when implementing new programmes ($M=3.71$, $SD=1.029$), $t(186)=9.384$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had been more successful when it partnered with other organisations on projects compared to when it worked on its own ($M=3.74$, $SD=1.027$), $t(186)=9.827$, $p < .0005$. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were positive about their alliance-building capability.

Table 5.4: T-test analysis for alliance-building (independent variable 3)

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
14. The NGO has built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations	187	3.95	.853	15.167	186	.000
15. The NGO always partners with other organisations when implementing new programmes	187	3.71	1.029	9.384	186	.000
16. The NGO has been more successful when it partnered with other organisations on projects compared to when it did it on its own	187	3.74	1.027	9.827	186	.000

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for lobbying.

5.3.1.2.4 Lobbying

As is evident in Table 5.5 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that there is a significant agreement that the NGOs has been able to promote its cause to priority relevance on the public agenda ($M=3.63$, $SD=.885$), $t(186)=9.664$, $p < .0005$. There was no significant agreement or significant disagreement that the NGOs had been successful at attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for their efforts. There was also no significant agreement or significant disagreement that the NGOs had been successful at convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for its efforts. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were only positive about their ability to promote their cause to priority relevance on the public agenda.

Table 5.5: T-test analysis for lobbying (independent variable 4)

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
17. The NGO has been successful at attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for its effort	187	2.87	1.149	-1.591	186	.113
18. The NGO has been successful at convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for its efforts	187	3.04	1.106	.529	186	.598
19. The NGO has been able to promote its cause to priority relevance on the public agenda	187	3.63	.885	9.664	186	.000

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for earnings-generation.

5.3.1.2.5 Earnings-generation

As is evident in Table 5.6 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that, at the time of this research, there was significant disagreement that the NGOs had sustainable income from products and services it offered at a price ($M=2.56$, $SD=1.058$), $t(186)=-5.737$, $p < .0005$. There was no significant agreement or disagreement that the NGOs had long-term donors and sponsors who had been major sources of income for the organisation. Furthermore, there was no significant agreement or disagreement that the NGOs had found other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for its programmes. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were not positive about having sustainable income from products and services it offered at a price.

Table 5.6: T-test analysis for earnings-generation (independent variable 5)

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
20. The NGO has sustainable income from products and services that it offers at a price	187	2.56	1.058	-5.737	186	.000
21. The NGO has long-term donors and sponsors who have been major sources of income for the organisation	187	2.88	1.239	-1.299	186	.196
22. The NGO has found other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for its programmes	187	3.01	1.196	.122	186	.903

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for replicating.

5.3.1.2.6 Replicating

As is evident in Table 5.7 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that, at the time of the research, there was significant agreement that the NGOs had a model or system that could work effectively in multiple locations ($M=3.84$, $SD=.963$), $t(186)=11.998$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs found it very easy to replicate its programmes ($M=3.60$, $SD=1.029$), $t(186)=7.960$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had also been successful in managing its programmes in

multiple locations (M=3.70, SD=1.030), $t(186)=9.303$, $p < .0005$. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were positive about their replicating capability.

Table 5.7: T-test analysis for replicating (independent variable 6)

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
23. The NGO has a model or system that can work effectively in multiple locations	187	3.84	.963	11.998	186	.000
24. The NGO has found it very easy to replicate its programmes	187	3.60	1.029	7.960	186	.000
25. The NGO has been successful in managing its programmes in multiple locations	187	3.70	1.030	9.303	186	.000

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the analysis of results of one sample t-test analysis for stimulating market forces.

5.3.1.2.7 Stimulating market forces

As is evident in Table 5.8 below, the one sample t-test analysis result shows that, at the time of the research, there was significant agreement that the NGOs had been able to show that businesses can generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation (M=3.65, SD=.974), $t(186)=9.161$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had been able to show that consumers can save money through patronising its products and services (M=3.49, SD=1.018), $t(186)=6.538$, $p < .0005$. The NGOs had also been able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems (M=3.33, SD=1.085), $t(186)=4.110$, $p < .0005$. Therefore, it could be concluded that the NGOs were positive about their stimulating market force capability.

Table 5.8: T-test analysis for stimulating market forces (independent variable 7)

Questionnaire item	N	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
26. The NGO has been able to show that business can generate income through supporting the organisation's programmes	187	3.65	.974	9.161	186	.000
27. The NGO has been able to show that consumers can save money through patronising its products and services	187	3.49	1.018	6.538	186	.000
28. The NGO has been able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems	187	3.33	1.085	4.110	186	.000

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results of the research hypothesis tests.

5.3.2 Pearson's correlation coefficient (r)

The main aim of this section is to report on the testing of the research hypotheses regarding the research sample to determine whether a relationship exists between the independent variables and the dependent variable of the study. Seven independent variables (staffing, communicating, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replicating, stimulating market forces) were used to investigate the relationship with the dependent variable (replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths). The hypothesis testing procedure involved stating two hypotheses:

- Null hypothesis (H_0): the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will not be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- Alternative hypothesis (H_a): the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was then applied to investigate the aforementioned relationships and, based on the outcome of the test, the researcher was able either to reject or to accept the null hypothesis based on whether the p-value was smaller than .0005 ($p < .0005$) or whether p was greater than .0005 ($p > .0005$). In addition, the Pearson's correlation

coefficient (r) indicated the relationship (positive or negative) and strength (strong or moderate or weak).

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results for hypothesis 1.

5.3.2.1 Hypothesis 1: Staffing will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Hypothesis 1 indicates that staffing will be correlated to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₀: Staffing will not be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_a: Staffing will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

As is evident in Table 5.9 below, the Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 1 indicated a significant correlation between staffing and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.498$, $p < .0005$). This shows a strong positive relationship between staffing and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Based on the aforementioned results, the null hypothesis (H₀) for hypothesis 1 was rejected.

Table 5.9: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r

		Staffing
RSPDEPY	Pearson's correlation	.498**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results for hypothesis 2.

5.3.2.2 Hypothesis 2: Communication will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Hypothesis 2 indicates that communication will be correlated to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₀: Communication will not be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_a: Communication will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

As is evident in Table 5.10 below, the Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 2 showed a result indicating that, at the time of this research, there was a significant correlation between communication and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.469$, $p < .0005$). This shows a strong positive relationship between communication and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Based on the aforementioned results, the null hypothesis (H₀) for hypothesis 2 was rejected.

Table 5.10: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r

		Communication
RSPDEPY	Pearson's correlation	.469**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results for hypothesis 3.

5.3.2.3 Hypothesis 3: Alliance-building will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Hypothesis 3 indicates that alliance-building will be correlated to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₀: Alliance-building will not be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_a: Alliance-building will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

As is evident in Table 5.11 below, the Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 3 indicated a significant correlation between alliance-building and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.444$, $p < .0005$). This shows a strong positive relationship between alliance-building and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Based on the aforementioned results, the null hypothesis (H₀) for hypothesis 3 was rejected.

Table 5.11: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r

		Alliance-building
RSPDEPY	Pearson's correlation	.444**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results for hypothesis 4.

5.3.2.4 Hypothesis 4: Lobbying will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Hypothesis 4 indicates that lobbying will be correlated to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₀: Lobbying will not be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_a: Lobbying will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

As is evident in Table 5.12 below, the Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 4 indicate a significant correlation between lobbying and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$). This shows a strong positive relationship between lobbying and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Based on the aforementioned results, the null hypothesis (H₀) for hypothesis 4 was rejected.

Table 5.12: Hypotheses testing using Pearson's correlation r

		Lobbying
RSPDEPY	Pearson's correlation	.426**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results for hypothesis 5.

5.3.2.5 *Hypothesis 5: Earnings-generation will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths*

Hypothesis 5 indicates that earnings-generation will be correlated to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₀: Earnings-generation will not be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_a: Earnings-generation will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

As is evident in Table 5.13 below, the Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 5 indicated a significant correlation between earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.292$, $p < .0005$). This shows a weak positive relationship between earnings-generation and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Based on the aforementioned results, the null hypothesis (H₀) for hypothesis 5 was rejected.

Table 5.13: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r

		Earnings-generation
RSPDEPY	Pearson's correlation	.292**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results for hypothesis 6.

5.3.2.6 *Hypothesis 6: Replicating will be positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths*

Hypothesis 6 indicates that replicating will be correlated to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H₀: Replicating will not be positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_a: Replicating will be positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

As is evident in Table 5.14 below, the Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 6 indicated a significant correlation between replicating and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$). This shows a strong positive relationship between replication and disseminating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Based on the aforementioned results, the null hypothesis (H_0) for hypothesis 6 was rejected.

Table 5.14: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r

		Replication
RSPDEPY	Pearson's correlation	.444**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) results for hypothesis 7.

5.3.2.7 Hypothesis 7: Stimulating market forces will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Hypothesis 7 indicates that stimulating market forces will be correlated to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_0 : Stimulating market forces will not be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

H_a : Stimulating market forces will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

As is evident in Table 5.15 below, the Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 7 indicated a significant correlation between stimulating market forces and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.408$, $p < .0005$). This shows a strong positive relationship between stimulating market forces and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Based on the aforementioned results, the null (H_0) hypothesis for hypothesis 7 was rejected.

Table 5.15: Hypothesis testing using Pearson's correlation r

		Stimulating- market forces
RSPDEPY	Pearson's correlation	.408**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the results obtained in determining the independent variables that predicted the dependent variable.

5.3.3 Determining the independent variables

In order to show the independent variables that significantly predicted the dependent variable for this study, regression analysis was carried out to indicate the coefficients of the linear equation involving the seven independent variables (staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) that best predicted the dependent variable (replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths). As is evident in Table 5.16 below, the results of the regression analysis indicated that the seven predictors (independent variables) explained 44.1% of the variance ($R^2=.441$, $F(7,169)=20.160$, $p<.0005$). It was found that adequate staffing significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($\beta=.117$, $p=.043$); as did alliance-building ($\beta=.188$, $p=.000$), replicating ($\beta=.113$, $p=.034$), lobbying ($\beta=.138$, $p=.009$) and stimulating market forces ($\beta=.180$, $p=.001$).

Table 5.16: Regression analysis to determine the independent variables that predicted the dependent variable

	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	.967	.253		3.827	.000
Staffing	.117	.057	.159	2.041	.043
Communication	.124	.068	.136	1.825	.070
Alliance-building	.188	.053	.227	3.568	.000
Replicating	.113	.053	.151	2.132	.034
Lobbying	.138	.052	.175	2.652	.009
Earnings-generation	-.100	.052	-.139	-1.928	.055
Stimulating market forces	.180	.052	.235	3.439	.001

Note: Dependent variable: replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

Source: Author's own compilation.

The next section will present the summary.

5.4 SUMMARY

This chapter presented data collated from the study conducted among youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the research questions and hypotheses of the study. In general, it became evident from the statistical analysis of the perceptions of youth-serving NGOs that earnings-generation and lobbying were major issues of concern and that there is a strong positive relationship between the majority of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next chapter presents the research findings from the analysed research data.

CHAPTER SIX:

DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on a discussion of the empirical results of the study. The empirical research objectives and the research hypotheses formed the foundation for the discussion in order to reveal the outcomes of the study as it applied to the empirical research objectives of the study.

The next section will present the discussion of the empirical research objectives of the study.

6.2 DISCUSSION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The need to replicate and grow social innovations and programmes and outcomes to alleviate the numerous social challenges facing developing countries and even developed countries (Bradach, 2003: Paragraph1–2) has made researchers pay attention to issues pertaining to the replication and growth of social programmes and outcomes for mass benefits of those in need. This study investigated the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The study contributes to literature on NGOs and the SCALERS model by establishing the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths while also demonstrating the influence of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in the context of replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The previous usage of the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) explored the organisational capabilities of social entrepreneurial organisations to drive the scale of social outcomes. However, their measures of scale of social outcomes were of a general nature, whereas this study's measure covered a more varied measure in line with the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present the discussion of empirical research objective 1 of the study.

6.2.1 Objective 1: To determine the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria

In this study, the adapted SCALERS model questionnaire was used to identify the organisational demographic characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria in an attempt to identify youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. The organisational demographic questions of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria appear in Section A of the questionnaire, Questions 1–8. The results of the organisational demographic questions 1–8 on the organisational demographic characteristics of youth-serving NGOs indicated that, at the time of this research and in terms of the years of existence of youth-serving NGOs, the majority of respondents had been in existence for more than 5 years (52%). The remaining 18.7% had been in existence for 3–4 years, followed by 15.5% who had been in existence for between 5 and 6 years, 8.6% had been in existence for between 1 and 2 years and 4.8% had been in existence for less than one year. This shows that the majority of youth-serving NGOs had been in existence for more than 5 years. This confirms and reflects the opinions stated in literature that some youth-serving NGOs had been established and carrying out interventions to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria for more than 5 years (Nelson & Nelson ,2010:173–174; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48; Patrick & Ijah, 2012:3).

In terms of the region of the head office of the youth-serving NGO, the majority of the respondents had their head office located in the South-South region of Nigeria (52.9%) at the time of this research. The remaining 34.8% had their head office located in the South-West region, followed 5.3% of respondents who had their head office located in the North-Central region, 3.2% of respondents who had their head office located in the South-East region, 2.7% who had their head office located in the North-West region and 1.1% of respondents who had their head office located in the North-East region. This shows that the majority of youth-serving NGOs had their head office in the South-South region of Nigeria. This finding is inconsistent with opinions in the literature, as evidence in the literature shows a prevalence of youth poverty in all the regions, which indicate that youth-serving NGOs will have their head office in the region and areas of operation (Nelson & Nelson, 2010:173–174; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48; Patrick & Ijah, 2012:1, 2–3).

In terms of the current number of beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs, at the time of this research, a high number of respondents had more than 1 500 beneficiaries (29.9%). The remaining 29.4% had between 100 and 500 beneficiaries, followed by 23.5% who had fewer

than 100 beneficiaries, 12.8% who have between 600 and 1 000 beneficiaries and 3.7% who had between 1 100 and 1 500 beneficiaries. This shows that a high number of youth-serving NGOs had more than 1 500 beneficiaries at the time of this research. This finding is consistent with opinions in the literature, namely that some youth-serving NGOs have more than 6 000 beneficiaries (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:54).

In terms of the gender of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs, at the time of this research, the majority of respondents were not gender exclusive and targeted both male and female beneficiaries (87.2%). The remaining 10.7% targeted only female beneficiaries, followed by 2.1% who targeted only male beneficiaries. This shows that the majority of youth-serving NGOs were not gender exclusive and focused on both male and female beneficiaries. This finding is consistent with opinions expressed in literature that the major beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs interventions comprised both male and female youths (Ahonsi et al., 2014:12; Bello et al., 2007:62–63; Onugu & Onuoha, 2015:11; Sangowawa & Owoaje, 2012: Paragraph 7).

At the time of this research, and in terms of the educational status of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs, a high number of the respondents' target beneficiaries had no educational qualification (36.4%). The target beneficiaries of the remaining 26.7% of respondents had post-secondary school certificates, followed by 18.2% of respondents whose target beneficiaries had secondary school certificates and 17.6% of respondents whose target beneficiaries were secondary school students. This shows that, at the time of this research, a high number of the beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs had no educational qualifications. This finding is consistent with findings by Ilemona et al. (2013:7) who noted that 36.67% respondents who were beneficiaries of an entrepreneurship skills acquisition programme in Kogi state (Nigeria) had had no formal education of their research.

In terms of the age groups of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs, a high number of the respondents' target beneficiaries were within the age range of 21–30 years. The remaining 28.9% of beneficiaries were younger than 20 years, and followed by 22.5% within the age range of 31–40 years. This shows that a high number of the beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs were within the age range of 21–30 years. This finding is consistent with opinions expressed in the literature that the age range of the most beneficiaries of interventions by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria was between 15 and 35 years at the time of

the research (Ahonsi et al., 2014:12; Bello et al., 2007:62–63; Onugu & Onuoha, 2015:11; Sangowawa & Owoaje, 2012: Paragraph 9).

In terms of the major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs, the results of the organisational demographic question on the major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs revealed that –

- a high number of the areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs were in education and training (29.4%); followed by
- 17.1% of respondents who indicated that their area of expertise was information technology;
- 15.0% agriculture;
- 12.8% health care services;
- 6.4% women development services;
- 4.8% legal representation services;
- 4.8% financial services;
- 4.8% SME advisory services; and
- 4.3% vocational training.

This result is consistent with previous studies, which showed that youth-serving NGOs carried out interventions to alleviate the suffering of youths in expertise areas such as –

- health care services (Ajowun et al., 2015:163; Isiugo-Abanihe et al., 2015:101, 103);
- women development services (Dibie & Okere, 2015:92; Oyelude & Bamigbola, 2013:106–112);
- legal representation services (Achunike & Kitause, 2014:40; Melis & Esquivel-Korsiak, 2016:2);
- financial services (Eneji et al., 2013:376, 380; Onyeagocha et al., 2012:167, 171);
- education and training (Oshadare et al., 2015:5; Ozoemena, 2013:102, 107);
- information communication technology (Eze et al., 2013:30; Matthew et al., 2015:67);
- agriculture (Lawan, 2013:32; Ogbeide et al., 2015:3);
- SME advisory services (Iwu & Nzeako, 2012:128); and
- vocational training (Adejumo et al., 2015:219, 223; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48).

The result shows the major deficient areas where the youth seriously require interventions and empowerment to make them socially and economically relevant in society.

At the time of this research, and in terms of the national identity of youth-serving NGOs, the majority of the sample group were local NGOs (80.2%), followed by 19.3% of respondents who indicated that they were international NGOs. This result shows that, at the time of this research, a high number of indigenous youth-serving NGOs were carrying out activities to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. This finding is consistent with opinions expressed in the literature that shows that majority of youth-serving NGOs carrying out interventions to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria were indigenous NGOs at the time of the research (Amadi & Abdullah, 2012:63; Asikhia et al., 2011:4; Lawan, 2013:32; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48; Olujuwon, 2008:29; Omofonmwan & Odia, 2009:251).

Furthermore, in the present study, 400 active and registered youth-serving NGOs were first identified from the sampling frame provided by the NNNGO allowing the researcher to benchmark the study population figure. Previous studies on the activities of youth-serving NGOs had not been specific on the number of active and registered youth-serving NGOs carrying out activities to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria at the time of their research. The significance of this finding is further explained in line with the findings by Curtain (2003:7) who identified 17 358 292 young people out of 24 000 000 living below poverty line of less than \$1 per day during 2002. Using a ratio-based analysis, the number of youth-serving NGOs assisting youths living in poverty (400:17 358 292) was 1 NGO: 43 395.73 youths living in poverty in Nigeria. Considering the implication of this analysis in 2002 and currently in 2017, the implication is that more NGOs are required to target poor youths effectively to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria successfully.

The next section will present the discussion of empirical research objective 2 of the study.

6.2.2 Objective 2: To assess the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria

In this study, the adapted SCALERS model questionnaire was used to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. The NGO questions on the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria appear in Section B as Questions 8–28. The results of the perceptions of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs revealed that in terms of staffing capability, the majority of youth-serving NGOs perceived positively that they –

- were able to meet their staffing needs with the required skilled manpower ($M=3.25$, $SD=1.133$), $t(186)=2.969$, $p < .0005$;

- had adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve their organisational goals and the requirements of the programmes ($M=3.53$, $SD=1.108$), $t(186)=6.597$, $p < .0005$; and
- had an available pool of volunteers to help meet their labour requirements ($M=3.65$, $SD=1.142$), $t(186)=7.815$, $p < .0005$.

These results indicate that, at the time of this research, the majority of youth-serving NGOs were effective in meeting their staffing needs. These results do not support previous studies, which revealed that youth-serving NGOs had inadequate staffing challenges (Aransiola, 2013:174; Arum, 2010:278; Iwuchukwu et al., 2014: 26; Odukoya et al., 2006: 28, 41). Staffing is a serious challenge for youth-serving NGOs, as Aransiola (2013:174) says youth-serving NGOs offering support services for street children participating in his study were poorly staffed while Iwuchukwu et al. (2014: 26) mentions that poor remuneration of staff is a major challenge for youth-serving NGOs.

In terms of communicating capability and at the time of this study, the majority of youth-serving NGOs perceived positively that they –

- were effective in communicating their services to key stakeholders ($M=3.93$, $SD=.826$), $t(186)=15.313$, $p < .0005$;
- were successful at informing their clients or beneficiaries about the value of their programmes for them ($M=3.95$, $SD=.826$), $t(186)=14.439$, $p < .0005$;
- were successful in convincing their sponsors and donors about the importance of what they do ($M=3.83$, $SD=.869$), $t(186)=13.040$, $p < .0005$.

These results indicate that, at the time of this research, the majority of youth-serving NGOs were effective in meeting their communicating needs. These results do not support previous studies, which revealed that youth-serving NGOs had communication challenges (Nwogu, 2014:10). Nwogu (2014:10) found that there was poor communication between youth-serving NGOs and their beneficiaries due to poor accountability to the beneficiaries, which resulted in the absence of feedback for the improvement of youth-serving NGOs programmes.

At the time of this research and in terms of their alliance-building capability, the majority of youth-serving NGOs reported positively that they –

- had built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations ($M=3.95$, $SD=.853$), $t(186)=15.167$, $p < .0005$;

- always partnered with other organisations when implementing new programmes (M=3.71, SD=1.029), $t(186)=9.384$, $p < .0005$; and
- had been more successful when they partnered with other organisations on projects compared to when they worked on their own (M=3.74, SD=1.027), $t(186)=9.827$, $p < .0005$.

These results indicate that the majority of youth-serving NGOs were effective in meeting their alliance-building needs. These results do not support a previous study by Kasali et al. (2015:65) who revealed that youth-serving NGOs had alliance-building challenges. Kasali et al. (2015:65) found that youth-serving NGOs were experiencing reduced support from development partners.

Although this finding is in disagreement with the study by Kasali et al. (2015:65), it is important to state that the alliance-building measure may have low internal consistency reliability based on the benchmarked standards of acceptable reliability for this study (i.e. $.492 < 0.7$), which could not be improved by deleting items as the researcher relied on the meaningful content coverage of some domain and reasonable unidimensionality of the measure.

At the time of this research and in terms of lobbying capability, the majority of youth-serving NGOs perceived positively that they had only been able to promote their cause to priority relevance on the public agenda (M=3.63, SD=.885), $t(186)=9.664$, $p < .0005$, as the NGOs were unable to agree or disagree on being able to attract government agencies and officials to provide financial support for their efforts and convince government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for their efforts. These results indicate that the majority of youth-serving NGOs had only been effective in meeting part of their lobbying needs, which involved being able to promote the cause of the NGOs to priority relevance on the public agenda. These results do not support a previous study by Momoh et al. (2015:2), which revealed that youth-serving NGOs have lobbying challenges. Momoh et al. (2015:2) found that youth-serving NGOs were unable to negotiate with the state government, lacked a working system for influencing the policy formulation process and were also unable to work together to act as agent of change and influence the political and social system to act for the benefit of their cause.

At the time of this research and in terms of their earnings-generation capability, the majority of participating youth-serving NGOs perceived negatively that they had sustainable income from products and services they offered at a price ($M=2.56$, $SD=1.058$), $t(186)=-5.737$, $p<.0005$. The result indicates that the majority of youth-serving NGOs had not been effective in meeting their earnings-generation needs as they were asked three questions relating to earnings-generation, and were only able to agree that they had no sustainable income from products and services that they offered at a price. In other words, income from the sale of products or services was not an income-generating stream for the majority of youth-serving NGOs. Therefore, this finding indicates that the majority of the youth-serving NGOs relied on donors or were self-funded as revealed by Omofonmwan and Odia (2009:247) who affirmed that NGOs in Nigeria were either self-funded or they obtained funds from donors. In addition, the inability of respondents in the sample to agree or disagree that they had long-term donors and sponsors who had been major sources of income for the organisation and that they had found other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for their programmes indicates that, at the time of this research, youth-serving NGOs had earnings-generation challenges. Therefore, this study empirically validated the earnings-generation challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs. This is consistent with previous studies, which found that youth-serving NGOs had earnings-generation challenges (Aransiola, 2013:175; Iwuchukwu et al., 2014: 21; Nwogu, 2014:7–8; Oyelude & Bamigbola, 2013:106, 113–114). A lack of government sponsorship and inadequate funding were the major earnings-generation challenges reported in the literature (Aransiola, 2013:175; Iwuchukwu et al., 2014: 21; Nwogu, 2014:7–8; Oyelude & Bamigbola, 2013:106, 113–114).

Although this finding is in agreement with findings by other previous studies, it is important to state that the earnings-generation measure may have had low internal consistency reliability based on the benchmarked standards of acceptable reliability for this study (i.e. $.678 < 0.7$), which could not be improved by deleting items as the researcher relied on the meaningful content coverage of some domain and reasonable unidimensionality of the measure.

At the time of this research and in terms of replicating capability, the majority of youth-serving NGOs perceived positively that they had a model or system that could work effectively in multiple locations ($M=3.84$, $SD=.963$), $t(186)=11.998$, $p<.0005$. The NGOs found it very easy to replicate their programmes ($M=3.60$, $SD=1.029$), $t(186)=7.960$,

$p < .0005$. They were also successful in managing their programmes in multiple locations ($M=3.70$, $SD=1.030$), $t(186)=9.303$, $p < .0005$. These results indicate that the majority of youth-serving NGOs had been effective in meeting their replicating needs. This does not reflect the opinion expressed in the literature, which showed that replication is a major challenge for youth-serving NGOs (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:58; Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:1, 4; Nwogu, 2014:11; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51; Patrick & Ijah, 2012:1; Samuels et al., 2012: 42). Nwogu (2014:11) found that a lack of outcome assessment of replicated programmes to ascertain the continued success of the programmes was a challenge for youth-serving NGOs. In addition, opinions expressed in the literature revealed an inability to replicate successful intervention programmes in a timely manner, as stakeholders needed to advocate for the replication of successful poverty alleviation programmes (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:1, 4; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51; Samuels et al., 2012:42).

At the time of this research and in terms of stimulating market force capability, the majority of youth-serving NGOs perceived positively that they had been able to show that –

- businesses could generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation ($M=3.65$, $SD=.974$), $t(186)=9.161$, $p < .0005$;
- consumers could save money through patronising their products and services ($M=3.49$, $SD=1.018$), $t(186)=6.538$, $p < .0005$; and
- they have been able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems ($M=3.33$, $SD=1.085$), $t(186)=4.110$, $p < .0005$.

These results indicate that majority of youth-serving NGOs had been effective in meeting their stimulating market force needs. This does not reflect the opinion in the literature, namely that stimulating market forces is a major challenge for youth-serving NGOs (Akpan et al., 2015:37). Akpan et al. (2015:37) state that youth-serving NGO incentives in their research were ineffective due to insufficient involvement by youths.

The next section will present the discussion of empirical research objective 3 of the study.

6.2.3 Objective 3: To determine the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria

In this study, the adapted SCALERS model questionnaire was used to investigate the progress of youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to

empower poor youths. The NGO perception questions on the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria appear in Section B, Questions 1–7. The results of the perceptions of the progress of youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths revealed that youth-serving NGOs:

- have made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty ($M=3.73$, $SD=.987$), $t(186)=10.079$, $p < .0005$;
- have scaled their capabilities to address youth poverty ($M=3.83$, $SD=.917$), $t(186)=12.356$, $p < .0005$;
- have greatly increased the number of individuals served by their NGO ($M=4.06$, $SD=.846$), $t(186)=17.194$, $p < .0005$;
- have greatly increased the geographical area they serve ($M=3.74$, $SD=.988$), $t(186)=10.285$, $p < .0005$;
- target youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria ($M=3.55$, $SD=1.066$), $t(185)=7.019$, $p < .0005$;
- have significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty ($M=3.71$, $SD=1.085$), $t(186)=8.899$, $p < .0005$; and
- adopt sustainable green practices to benefit youth poverty alleviation programmes ($M=3.87$, $SD=.820$), $t(186)=14.545$, $p < .0005$.

This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and is inconsistent with previous studies, which found that youth poverty is on the rise in Nigeria despite efforts by youth-serving NGOs (Akpan et al., 2016:168; Oduwale, 2015:23–29; Surajo & Karim, 2016:4919). Furthermore, the factors that contribute to youth poverty in Nigeria, such as youth unemployment, are still very high at 45.65% (NBS, 2017: Key indicators section).

The next section will present the discussion of empirical research objective 4 of the study.

6.2.4 Objective 4: To determine the extent to which there exists a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria

In this study, the adapted SCALERS model was used to investigate the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The results of the empirical study indicate that in terms of the relationship between the staffing capabilities of youth-serving

NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, there existed a strong positive relationship between staffing and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.498$, $p < .0005$) at the time of this research. Hence, the study hypothesis regarding staffing will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was accepted. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and empirically validates the relationship between staffing and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This result indicates that an increase in the effectiveness of the staffing capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will reflect as a positive influence in the increase in the capacity of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This clearly indicates that the staffing capabilities of youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, the finding expands the role of staffing as a key organisational capability of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. It further adds to the SCALERS model application and validation by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 132), which indicates that staffing is positively and significantly related to the scaling of social outcomes.

In terms of the relationship between the communicating capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, this study showed that at the time of this research, there existed a strong positive relationship between communication and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.469$, $p < .0005$). Hence, the hypothesis regarding communication will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was accepted. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and empirically validates the relationship between communication and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This result indicates that an increase in the effectiveness of the communicating capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will reflect as a positive influence in the increase in the capacity of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This clearly indicates that the communicating capabilities of youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, the finding expands the role of communicating as a key organisational capability of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in

Nigeria. It further adds to the SCALERS model application and validation by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 133), which indicates that communicating is positively and significantly related to the scaling of social outcomes.

In terms of the relationship between the alliance-building capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, this study showed that at the time of this research, there existed a strong positive relationship between alliance-building and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.444$, $p < .0005$). Hence, the hypothesis regarding alliance-building will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was accepted. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and empirically validates the relationship between alliance-building and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This result indicates that an increase in the effectiveness of the alliance-building capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will reflect as a positive influence in the increase in the capacity of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This clearly indicates that the alliance-building capabilities of youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, the finding expands the role of alliance-building as a key organisational capability of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. It further adds to the SCALERS model application and validation by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 133), which indicates that alliance-building is positively and significantly related to the scaling of social outcomes.

In terms of the relationship between the lobbying capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, this study showed that at the time of this research, there existed a strong positive relationship between lobbying and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$). Hence, the hypothesis regarding lobbying will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was accepted. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and empirically validates the relationship between lobbying and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This result indicates that an increase in the effectiveness of the lobbying capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will reflect as a positive influence in the increase in the capacity of

youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This clearly indicates that the lobbying capabilities of youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, the finding expands the role of lobbying as a key organisational capability of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. It further adds to the SCALERS model application and validation by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 134), which indicates that lobbying is positively and significantly related to the scaling of social outcomes.

In terms of the relationship between the earnings-generation capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, this study showed that at the time of this research, there existed a weak positive relationship between earnings-generation and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.292$, $p < .0005$). Hence, the hypothesis regarding earnings-generation will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was accepted. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and empirically validates the relationship between earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. However, in this study, the relationship between earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was established to be weak. This result indicates that an increase in the effectiveness of the earnings-generation capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will reflect as a positive influence in an increase in the capacity of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This clearly indicates that the earnings-generation capabilities of youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, the finding expands the role of earnings-generation as a key organisational capability of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The finding further adds to the SCALERS model application and validation by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 134), which indicates that earnings-generation is positively and significantly related to the scaling of social outcomes.

The presence of a weak positive significance in the relationship between earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in this study

might be explained by the fact that a significant number of youth-serving NGOs ($M=2.56$, $SD=1.058$), $t(186)=-5.737$, $p < .0005$ indicated that, at the time of this research, they did not have sustainable income from products and services that they offered at a price. This was unlike their social entrepreneurship counterparts in the study carried out by Bloom and Smith (2010:134 & 138) who are able to realise income from products and services that they offer at a price (Bloom & Smith, 2010:134 & 138). In addition, youth-serving NGOs were unable to agree or disagree on their capacity to have long-term donors and sponsors who would be major sources of income for the organisation and other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for their programmes. This study empirically validated the earnings-generation challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs (Aransiola, 2013:175; Iwuchukwu et al., 2014: 21; Nwogu, 2014:7–8; Oyelude & Bamigbola, 2013:106, 113–114).

In terms of the relationship between the replicating capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths, this study showed that at the time of this research, there existed a strong positive relationship between replicating and disseminating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$). Hence, the hypothesis regarding replicating will be positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was accepted. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and empirically validates the relationship between replicating and the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This result indicates that an increase in the effectiveness of the replicating capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will reflect as a positive influence in the increase in the capacity of youth-serving NGOs to disseminate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This clearly indicates that the replicating capabilities of youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, the finding expands the role of replicating as a key organisational capability of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. It further adds to the SCALERS model application and validation by Bloom and Smith (2010:128), which indicates that replicating is positively and significantly related to the scaling of social outcomes.

In terms of the relationship between the stimulating market force capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor

youths, this study showed that at the time of this research, there existed a strong positive relationship between the stimulating market forces of NGOs and replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.408$, $p < .0005$). Hence, the hypothesis regarding stimulating market forces will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths was accepted. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and empirically validates the relationship between stimulated market forces and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This result indicates that an increase in the effectiveness of the stimulating market force capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will reflect as a positive influence in the increase in the capacity of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This clearly indicates that the stimulating market force capabilities of youth-serving NGOs play a significant role in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. Furthermore, the finding expands the role of stimulating market forces as a key organisational capability of youth-serving NGOs in relation to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. It further adds to the SCALERS model application and validation by Bloom and Smith (2010:128), which indicates that stimulating market forces are positively and significantly related to the scaling of social outcomes.

In comparing the organisational capabilities as contained in the adapted SCALERS model using Pearson's correlation r in this study, the outcome revealed that staffing has a relatively stronger effect than the rest of the other SCALERS. This finding is inconsistent with the study by Bloom and Smith (2010:138), which showed that earnings-generation had a relatively stronger effect than the rest of the other SCALERS when a comparison of the standardised beta coefficient was carried out. In addition, the finding by the present study expands discussions on the application and validation of the SCALERS model in a developing country (Nigeria) using youth-serving NGOs. An explanation for the inconsistency may be that, due to hands-on training programmes offered by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria, a significant number of staff are utilised to access more beneficiaries and more geographical locations within Nigeria. In addition, this finding is consistent with the importance of staffing in NGO management as Musyula (2014:41–42) says that staff management and performance of NGOs are correlated.

The next section will present the discussion of empirical research objective 5 of the study.

6.2.5 Objective 5: To determine the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs, which predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria

In this study, the adapted SCALERS model was used to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs that significantly predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The results of the empirical study indicated that the seven predictors (independent variables) explained 44.1% of the variance ($R^2=.441$, $F(7,169)=20.160$, $p<.0005$). It was found that adequate staffing significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($\beta=.117$, $p=.043$), as did alliance-building ($\beta=.188$, $p=.000$), replicating ($\beta=.113$, $p=.034$), lobbying ($\beta=.138$, $p=.009$) and stimulating market forces ($\beta=.180$, $p=.001$). This is an indication that the more youth-serving NGOs are able to build their staffing, alliance-building, replicating, lobbying and stimulating market force capabilities, the more they are able to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths effectively in Nigeria. In other words, the seven organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs have the potential to influence the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths positively when the organisational capabilities are managed effectively. Furthermore, this indicates that organisational capabilities are very important to NGOs in general and youth poverty alleviation-focused NGOs specifically due to their influence on the realisation of the goals and targets of the organisation.

This brings new empirical evidence to the literature, which is consistent with the argument that organisational capabilities have the potential to influence the capacity of an NPO to scale for social outcomes (Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:115; Bloom & Smith, 2010:138).

In addition, in this study, the percentage of variance explained by the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria was significantly high (i.e. 44.1%) for seven organisational capabilities as contained in the SCALERS model (cf. 1.9 Bloom & Smith, 2010:128; see also Bloom & Chatterji, 2009:115–116). This brings new empirical evidence to the literature and further validates the influence of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. This finding is further consistent with the study by Bloom and Smith (2010:140), which showed that the SCALERS model accounted for “38% of the variance in the scaling of social impact”

despite the 6.1% difference in the variance explained by the SCALERS model in the scaling of social outcomes obtained from the study by Bloom and Smith (2010:140) and the present study. Furthermore, the established variance (i.e. 44.1%) in the present study is an indication of the implications for further research on the other organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs that may influence the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

In addition, when all the SCALERS are combined in the model, communication and earnings-generation becomes unimportant. This is because the characteristics of youth-serving NGOs not being profit-driven with respect to their earning-generating capability while, with respect to their communication capability, the youth-serving NGOs may have operated in an environment where additional communication with key stakeholders would not lead to improved communication outcomes. This brings new empirical evidence to the literature. This finding is inconsistent with the findings by Bloom and Smith (2010:140) that alliance-building and lobbying became irrelevant when the SCALERS were combined in a model. This may suggest that investigations of organisational capabilities for NPOs in the scale of specific social outcomes may indicate different unimportant organisational capabilities when all the SCALERS are combined in the model as opposed to what was found in the exploration of the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:140), which revealed that alliance-building and lobbying became irrelevant when the SCALERS were combined in the model (Bloom & Smith, 2010:140).

The next section will present the discussion of the research hypotheses of the study.

6.3 DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

This section presents a discussion and analysis of the seven correlational hypotheses formulated in this study to test the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.

The next section will present the discussion of hypothesis 1.

6.3.1 Hypothesis 1: Staffing will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The hypothesised positive relationship between staffing and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria (as proposed in the adapted SCALERS model) gained significant supporting evidence when it was tested in this study. The Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 1 indicated a significant correlation between staffing and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.498$, $p < .0005$). This finding shows that staffing is an important organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs in their bid to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 132) who affirm the role staffing plays in the scaling of social influence as reported in this study.

The implication of the results of the hypothesis test carried out on hypothesis 1 is that improved staffing capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will be advantageous in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. As a result of this implication, youth-serving NGOs should endeavour to resolve their staffing challenges (Aransiola, 2013:174; Odukoya et al., 2006: 28, 41) in time in order to achieve their youth poverty alleviation goals in society.

The next section will present the discussion of hypothesis 2.

6.3.2 Hypothesis 2: Communication will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The hypothesised positive relationship between communication and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria (as proposed in the adapted SCALERS model) gained significant supporting evidence when it was tested in this study. The Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 2 showed that, at the time of this research, there was a significant correlation between communication and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.469$, $p < .0005$). This finding shows that communication is an important organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs in their bid to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 133) who affirm the role communication plays in the scaling of social influence as reported in this study.

The implication of the results of the hypothesis test carried out on hypothesis 2 is that improved communication capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will be advantageous in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. As a result of this implication, youth-serving NGOs should endeavour to resolve their communication challenges (Nwogu, 2014:10) in time in order to achieve their youth poverty alleviation goals in the society.

The next section will present the discussion of hypothesis 3.

6.3.3 Hypothesis 3: Alliance-building will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The hypothesised positive relationship between alliance-building and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria (as proposed in the adapted SCALERS model) gained significant supporting evidence when it was tested in this study. The Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 3 indicated a significant correlation between alliance-building and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.444$, $p < .0005$). This finding shows that alliance-building is an important organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs in their bid to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 133) who affirm the role alliance-building plays in the scaling of social impact as reported in this study.

The implication of the results of the hypothesis test carried out on hypothesis 3 is that improved alliance-building capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will be advantageous in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. As a result of this implication, youth-serving NGOs should endeavour to resolve their alliance-building challenges (Kasali et al., 2015:65) in time in order to achieve their youth poverty alleviation goals in the society.

The next section will present the discussion of hypothesis 4.

6.3.4 Hypothesis 4: Lobbying will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The hypothesised positive relationship between lobbying and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria (as proposed in the adapted SCALERS model) gained significant supporting evidence when it was tested in this study.

The Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 4 indicated a significant correlation between lobbying and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$). This finding shows that lobbying is an important organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs in their bid to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 134) who affirm the role lobbying plays in the scaling of social influence as reported in this study.

The implication of the results of the hypothesis test carried out on hypothesis 4 is that improved lobbying capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will be advantageous in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. As a result of this implication, youth-serving NGOs should endeavour to resolve their lobbying challenges (Momoh et al., 2015:2) in time in order to achieve their youth poverty alleviation goals in the society.

The next section will present the discussion of hypothesis 5.

6.3.5 Hypothesis 5: Earnings-generation will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The hypothesised positive relationship between earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria (as proposed in the adapted SCALERS model) gained significant supporting evidence when it was tested in this study. The Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 5 indicated a significant correlation between earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.292$, $p < .0005$). This finding shows that earnings-generation is an important organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs in their bid to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria despite the weak significant correlation. The finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 134) who affirm the role earnings-generation plays in the scaling of social influence as reported in this study.

The implication of the results of the hypothesis test carried out on hypothesis is 5 is that improved earnings-generation capabilities of youth-serving NGOs will be advantageous in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. As a result of this implication, youth-serving NGOs should endeavour to resolve their earnings-generation challenges (Aransiola, 2013:175; Oyelude & Bamigbola, 2013:106, 113–114) in time in order to achieve their youth poverty alleviation goals in the society.

The next section will present the discussion of hypothesis 6.

6.3.6 Hypothesis 6: Replicating will be positively related to the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The hypothesised positive relationship between replicating and the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria (as proposed in the adapted SCALERS model) gained significant supporting evidence when it was tested in this study. The Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 6 indicated a significant correlation between replicating and the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$). This finding shows that replicating is an important organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs in their bid to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and Smith (2010:128 & 134) who affirm the role replicating plays in the scaling of social influence as reported in this study.

The implication of the results of the hypothesis test carried out on hypothesis 6 is that improved replicating abilities of youth-serving NGOs will be advantageous in the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. As a result of this implication, youth-serving NGOs should endeavour to resolve their replicating challenges (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:58; Patrick & Ijah, 2012:1; Samuels et al., 2012: 42; Nwogu, 2014:11) in time in order to achieve their youth poverty alleviation goals in the society.

The next section will present the discussion of hypothesis 7.

6.3.7 Hypothesis 7: Stimulating market forces will be positively related to the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths

The hypothesised positive relationship between stimulating market forces and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria (as proposed in the adapted SCALERS model) gained significant supporting evidence when it was tested in this study. The Pearson's correlation test carried out on hypothesis 7 indicated a significant correlation between stimulating market forces and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.408$, $p < .0005$). This finding shows that stimulating market forces is an important organisational capability for youth-serving NGOs in their bid to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and

Smith (2010:128 & 134) who affirm the role stimulating market forces plays in the scaling of social influence as reported in this study.

The implication of the results of the hypothesis test carried out on hypothesis is 7 is that improved stimulating market forces abilities of youth-serving NGOs will be advantageous in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. As a result of this implication, youth-serving NGOs should endeavour to resolve their stimulating market forces challenges (Akpan et al., 2015:37) in time in order to achieve their youth poverty alleviation goals in the society.

The next section will present the summary.

6.4 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the data obtained from the study of youth poverty alleviation-focused NGOs in Nigeria. Based on the research data and in line with the empirical research objectives, it was found that the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths are correlated. It was further found that the majority of organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs as contained in the SCALERS model significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next chapter presents the conclusion and significant outcomes of this study in addition to the research implications, contributions to knowledge, recommendations for future research and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN:

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria using the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128). This was done to enable the identification and improvement of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs as contained in the SCALERS model, which significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to reduce youth poverty in Nigeria. The general theoretical literature on this subject – and specifically in the context of Nigeria – left key questions on the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful youth poverty alleviation discourse unanswered. This study intended to provide some key answers by answering these five research questions:

- What are the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria?
- How effective are youth-serving NGOs in meeting their organisational capabilities needs as contained in the adapted SCALERS model?
- What is the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?
- To what extent is there a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model) and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths?
- To what extent are the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model) able to predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present the conclusion in terms of the major findings of the study.

7.2 CONCLUSION ON THE MAJOR FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This section presents the major findings of the study. The major findings of the study are based on the literature review and empirical evidence obtained in this study and they are discussed below.

The next section will present the conclusion based on literature review.

7.2.1 Conclusion based on literature review

The main aim of this review was to investigate the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. It was evident from the literature reviewed that youth poverty remains a serious problem and a growing concern in Nigeria (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:62; Ajani, Mgbenka & Onah, 2015:34–35; Akpan, Patrick & Amama, 2016:168; Curtain, 2003:7; Edewor, 2014:537–538) with attendant negative consequences which include violent crimes, such as terrorism (Agbibo, 2013:148; Hansen, 2016: Paragraph 26) and youth restiveness (Adebayo & Adegboyega, 2016:105–106). Other negative effects are, for instance, youth homelessness (Hansen, 2016: Paragraph 1–5; Kehinde, 2014:237), psychological problems such as mental illness (Famakinwa, Olagunju & Akinawonu, 2016:59, 61) and illegal migration (Ikuteyijo, 2012:1). In addition to this, it is also clear that youth-serving NGOs are among the key stakeholders that are utilising different poverty alleviation programmes to empower poor youths in Nigeria (Ohize & Adamu, 2009:48). Many studies have been conducted on the activities of youth-serving NGOs and their organisational capabilities challenges in relation to their empowerment activities in Nigeria (Aransiola, 2013:174; Kasali et al., 2015:65; Odukoya et al., 2006:28, 41). A significant number of the research found that youth-serving NGOs encounter various forms of staffing (Aransiola, 2013:174), communicating (Nwogu, 2014:10), alliance-building (Kasali et al., 2015:65), lobbying (Momoh et al., 2015:2), earnings-generation (Oyelude & Bamigbola, 2013:106, 113–114), replicating (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:58) and stimulating market forces (Akpan et al., 2015:37) challenges in their bid to alleviate the sufferings of poor youths in Nigeria. There is need for additional studies to be carried out to identify additional organisational capabilities challenges experienced by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. There is also a need to investigate the effects of organisational capability challenges in relation to the attainment of the social goals of youth-serving NGOs.

The next section will present the conclusion based on the empirical findings of the study

7.2.2 Conclusion based on the empirical findings of the study

The main empirical findings are based on the findings and discussions as contained in Chapters 4 and 5 of this dissertation, and they are synthesised here to answer the research questions for this study.

The next section will present the empirical findings based on research question 1.

7.2.2.1 What are the organisational characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria?

- Years of existence of youth-serving NGOs
 - **In terms of years of existence of youth-serving NGOs:** The majority of youth-serving NGOs (52%) have been in existence for more than six years. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their NGO had been in existence for 3–4 years (18.7%), 5–6 years (15.5%), 1–2 years (8.6%), and less than 1 year (4.8%).
- Region of youth-serving NGO head office
 - **In terms of region of youth-serving NGO head office:** The majority of youth-serving NGOs (52.9%) had their head office located in the South-South region. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their head office was located in the South-West region (34.8%), North-Central (5.3%), South-East (3.2%), North-West (2.7%) and North-East (1.1).
- Current number of beneficiaries of youth-serving NGO
 - **In terms of current number of beneficiaries of youth-serving NGO:** A high number of youth-serving NGOs (29.9%) had more than 1 500 beneficiaries. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their NGO had between 100 and 500 beneficiaries (29.4%), fewer than 100 (23.5%), 600–1 000 (12.8%) and 1 100–1 500 (3.7%).
- Gender of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs
 - **In terms of gender of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGO:** The majority of youth-serving NGOs (87.2%) targeted both male and female beneficiaries. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their NGO targeted only female beneficiaries (10.7%) and respondents who indicated that their NGOs targeted only male beneficiaries (2.1%).
- The educational status of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs
 - **In terms of the educational status of the target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs:** A high number of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs (36.4%) had no educational qualification. This was followed by respondents who indicated that the target beneficiaries of their NGOs had post-secondary school certificates (26.7%), respondents who indicated that the target beneficiaries of their NGOs had secondary school certificates (18.2%), and

respondents who indicated that their target beneficiary were secondary school students (17.6%).

- Age groups of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs
 - **In terms of age groups of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs:** A high number of target beneficiaries of youth-serving NGOs (43.3%) were in the age group of 21–30 years. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their target beneficiaries were in the age group of younger than 20 years (28.9%), 31–40 (22.5%), 41–50 (2.7%) and 51 and above (2.1%).
- Major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs
 - **In terms of major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs:** A high number of areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs (29.4%) were related to education and training. This was followed by respondents who indicated that their area of expertise was information technology (17.1%), agriculture (15.0%), health care services (12.8%), women development services (6.4%), legal representation services (4.8%), financial services (4.8), SME advisory services (4.8) and vocational training (4.3%).
- National identity of youth-serving NGOs
 - **In terms of national identity of youth-serving NGOs:** The majority of youth-serving NGOs (80.2%) identified themselves as local NGOs. This was followed by respondents who indicated that they were international NGOs (19.3%). This shows that the majority of the sample group were local NGOs (80.2%).

The next section will present the empirical findings based on research question 2.

7.2.2.2 *How effective are youth-serving NGOs in meeting their organisational capability needs as contained in the adapted SCALERS model?*

- How effective are youth poverty alleviation NGOs in meeting their staffing needs?
 - **In terms of required skilled manpower:** There was significant agreement indicating that nearly all the youth poverty alleviation-focused NGOs in the study were able to meet their staffing needs with the required skilled manpower ($M=3.25$, $SD=1.133$), $t(186)=2.969$, $p < .0005$.
 - **In terms of management and non-management manpower:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in the study had

adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve their organisational goals and the requirements of the programmes ($M=3.53$, $SD=1.108$), $t(186)=6.597$, $p < .0005$.

- **In terms of available pool of volunteers:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in the study had a pool of volunteers available to help meet their labour requirements ($M=3.65$, $SD=1.142$), $t(186)=7.815$, $p < .0005$.

This means that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were effective in meeting their staffing needs to a large extent.

- How effective are youth poverty alleviation NGOs able to communicate effectively with all their stakeholders?
 - **In terms of communicating its services to key stakeholders:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were effective in communicating their services to key stakeholders ($M=3.93$, $SD=.826$), $t(186)=15.313$, $p < .0005$.
 - **In terms of informing their clients or beneficiaries about the value of their programmes for them:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were successful at informing their clients or beneficiaries about the value of their programmes for them ($M=3.95$, $SD=.826$), $t(186)=14.439$, $p < .0005$.
 - **In terms of convincing their sponsors and donors of the importance of what they were doing:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were successful in convincing their sponsors and donors about the importance of what they were doing ($M=3.83$, $SD=.869$), $t(186)=13.040$, $p < .0005$.

This means that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were effective in meeting their communication needs with all their stakeholders.

- To what extent are youth poverty alleviation NGOs able to build effective partnerships with relevant organisations in Nigeria?
 - **In terms of building mutually partnership with other organisations:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this

sample had built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations (M=3.95, SD=.853), $t(186)=15.167$, $p < .0005$.

- **In terms of partnering with other organisations when implementing new programmes:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample always partnered with other organisations when implementing new programmes (M=3.71, SD=1.029), $t(186)=9.384$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms of being more successful when they partnered with other organisations on projects compared to when they worked on their own:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were more successful when they partnered with other organisations on projects compared to when they worked on their own (M=3.74, SD=1.027), $t(186)=9.827$, $p < .0005$.

This means that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were effective in building effective partnerships with relevant organisations in Nigeria.

- To what extent are youth poverty alleviation NGOs able to lobby successfully for support in order to implement organisational objectives effectively?
 - In terms of attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for their efforts: There was no agreement or disagreement on the statement regarding this lobbying capability.
 - In terms of convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for their efforts: There was no agreement or disagreement on the statement regarding this lobbying capability.
 - In terms of promoting their cause to priority relevance on the public agenda: There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were able to promote their cause to priority relevance on the public agenda (M=3.63, SD=.885), $t(186)=9.664$, $p < .0005$.

This means that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were able to promote their cause to priority relevance on the public agenda in order to implement organisational objectives effectively to a very limited extent.

- To what extent do youth poverty alleviation NGOs generate sufficient income to remain sustainable?

- **In terms of generating sustainable income from products and services that they offer at a price:** There was significant disagreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample received sustainable income from products and services they offered at a price ($M=2.56$, $SD=1.058$), $t(186)=-5.737$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms of having long-term donors and sponsors who are major sources of income for the organisation:** There was no agreement or disagreement on the earnings-generation capability.
- **In terms of having other sustainable sources of funding for their programmes:** There was no agreement or disagreement on the earnings-generation capability.

This means that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were not able to generate sufficient income to remain sustainable.

- To what extent are youth poverty alleviation NGOs able to replicate youth poverty alleviation programmes effectively within new locations in Nigeria?
 - **In terms of having a model or system that can work effectively in multiple locations:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample had a model or system that could work effectively in multiple locations ($M=3.84$, $SD=.963$), $t(186)=11.998$, $p < .0005$.
 - **In terms of finding it easy to replicate their programmes:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample found it very easy to replicate their programmes ($M=3.60$, $SD=1.029$), $t(186)=7.960$, $p < .0005$.
 - **In terms of managing their programmes in multiple locations:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were successful in managing their programmes in multiple locations ($M=3.70$, $SD=1.030$), $t(186)=9.303$, $p < .0005$.

This means that youth-serving NGOs in this sample were able to replicate youth poverty alleviation programmes effectively within new locations in Nigeria.

- To what extent does youth poverty alleviation NGOs provide attractive incentives to attract prospective beneficiaries?

- **In terms of showing that businesses could generate income through supporting the programmes of the organisation:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were able to show that businesses could generate income through supporting programmes of the organisation ($M=3.65$, $SD=.974$), $t(186)=9.161$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms of showing that consumers could save money by patronising the products and services of the NGO:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were able to show that consumers could save money through patronising the products and services of the NGO ($M=3.49$, $SD=1.018$), $t(186)=6.538$, $p < .000$.
- **In terms of relying on market forces to assist in solving social problems:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample were able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems ($M=3.33$, $SD=1.085$), $t(186)=4.110$, $p < .0005$.

This means that youth-serving NGOs in this sample were able to provide attractive incentives to attract prospective beneficiaries to a large extent.

The next section will present the empirical findings based on research question 3.

7.2.2.3 *What is the progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?*

- **In terms of significant progress in eradicating youth poverty:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample had made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty ($M=3.73$, $SD=.987$), $t(186)=10.079$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms scaling their capabilities to address youth poverty:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample had scaled their capabilities to address youth poverty ($M=3.83$, $SD=.917$), $t(186)=12.356$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms of having increased the number of beneficiaries they were serving:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample had greatly increased the number of individual they were serving ($M=4.06$, $SD=.846$), $t(186)=17.194$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms of having increased the geographical area they were serving:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample had

greatly increased the geographical area they were serving ($M=3.74$, $SD=9.88$), $t(186)=10.285$, $p < .0005$.

- **In terms of targeting youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample targeted youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria ($M=3.55$, $SD=1.066$), $t(185)=7.019$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms having significant programmes targeting female youths:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample had significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty ($M=3.71$, $SD=1.085$), $t(186)=8.899$, $p < .0005$.
- **In terms of youth poverty alleviation programmes benefiting from sustainable green practices:** There was significant agreement indicating that the youth-serving NGOs in this sample had adopted sustainable green practices to benefit youth poverty alleviation programmes ($M=3.87$, $SD=.820$), $t(186)=14.545$, $p < .0005$.

This means that significant progress had been made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present the empirical findings based on research question 4.

7.2.2.4 *To what extent is there a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths?*

- **In terms of staffing and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths:** There was significant correlation between staffing and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.498$, $p < .0005$).
- **In terms of communication and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths:** There was significant correlation between communication and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.469$, $p < .0005$).
- **In terms of alliance-building and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths:** There was significant correlation between

alliance-building and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.444$, $p < .0005$).

- **In terms of lobbying and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths:** There was significant correlation between lobbying and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$).
- **In terms of earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths:** There was significant correlation between earnings-generation and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.292$, $p < .0005$).
- **In terms of replicating and the dissemination of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths:** There was significant correlation between replicating and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.426$, $p < .0005$).
- **In terms of stimulating market forces and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths:** There was significant correlation between stimulating market forces and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($r=.408$, $p < .0005$).

This means that there was largely a positive relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. It is also important that this finding is consistent with the finding by Bloom and Smith (2010:138) in the exploratory empirical testing of the SCALERS model.

The next section will present the empirical findings based on research question 5.

7.2.2.5 *To what extent are the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs able to predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria?*

- **Staffing:** Adequate staffing significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($\beta=.117$, $p=.043$).
- **Communicating:** Communicating was not a predictor in this study.
- **Alliance-building:** Adequate alliance-building significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($\beta=.188$, $p=.000$).

- **Lobbying:** Adequate lobbying significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($\beta=.138$, $p=.009$).
- **Earnings-generation:** Earnings-generation was not a predictor in this study.
- **Replicating:** Adequate replicating significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($\beta=.113$, $p=.034$).
- **Stimulating market forces:** Adequate stimulating market forces significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths ($\beta=.180$, $p=.001$).

This means that a significant number of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the SCALERS model) were able to predict the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The next section will present the recommendations of the study.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Today, academics and practitioners recognise the significance of the replication of successful social programmes to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria (Adepoju & Oyesanya, 2014:58; Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005:1, 4; Ohize & Adamu, 2009:51; Patrick & Ijah, 2012:1; Samuels et al., 2012:42). There are a growing number of challenges regarding organisational capabilities experienced by youth-serving NGOs, such as inadequate funding, reduced support from development partners, and poor communication (Aransiola, 2013:175; Kasali et al., 2015:65; Nwogu, 2014:7–8, 10), together with the importance of organisational capabilities in enabling the organisation to meet its social goals and create the desired social outcomes (Bloom & Smith, 2010:132–135). In addition, all stakeholders are becoming aware of the negative consequences that are associated with youth poverty, such as –

- youth restiveness;
- terrorism;
- psychological problems such as mental illness (Adebayo & Adegboyega, 2016: 105–106; Agbiboa, 2013:148; Famakinwa et al., 2016:59, 61); and
- the growing scourge of youth poverty in Nigeria (Aidelunuoghene, 2013:61; Ajani et al., 2015:34–35; Akpan et al., 2016:168).

To alleviate the problem of youth poverty in Nigeria, youth-serving NGOs need to understand the relationship between their organisational capabilities and the replication of

successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in addition to the implications of their organisational capabilities in the established relationship. In the next paragraph, the research recommendations directed at youth-serving NGOs managers and the relevant stakeholders in the social sector in Nigeria are presented.

The next section will present the recommendations of the study to ensure replication of programmes.

7.3.1 Recommendations to ensure replication of programmes

Youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria should pay adequate attention to their organisational capabilities in general, with specific emphasis on their lobbying and earnings-generation organisational capabilities, as evidence from this study indicated that these organisational capabilities were inadequate based on the lack of agreement or disagreement regarding the lobbying and earnings-generation organisational capabilities of the NGOs. In terms of lobbying, NGOs should ensure that efforts be made to convince local, state and federal government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for their activities and efforts while they should also provide adequate financial support for the activities and efforts of the NGOs to enable the NGOs to be effective in their fight to eradicate youth poverty in Nigeria. In respect of earnings-generation, NGOs should seek and identify long-term donors and sponsors who would provide the necessary funding for their activities and efforts to enable them to fight the scourge of youth poverty alleviation in Nigeria effectively. They should also ensure that alternative and sustainable sources of income be identified to boost their earnings-generation and their financial capacity to remain relevant in the social sector.

Youth-serving NGOs should further pay attention to their staffing, alliance-building, replicating, lobbying and stimulating market force organisational capabilities as contained in the adapted SCALERS model, as evidence in the study indicated that these organisational capabilities significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

Stakeholders in the social sector and society should ensure that they partner with youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria by providing the needed support to enable the NGOs to achieve their goal of eradicating youth poverty in Nigeria. This is necessary as evidence by Dahan et al. (2010: 330–331) affirms that collaboration between NGOs and other stakeholders boost

the organisational capabilities of NGOs as this enables them to combine their resources for a collective purpose and to achieve a collective goal.

The replication of successful social programmes should be taken seriously by youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria as suggested by Berelowitz et al. (2013:5) in order for the outcomes of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to be accessed by more beneficiaries and for it to be utilised across more locations in the 36 states and six geopolitical zones in Nigeria to fight the problem of youth poverty effectively in Nigeria.

The SCALERS model should be adopted by youth-serving NGOs to monitor their progress in replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria and to identify lagging organisational capabilities that need improvement to enable the NGOs to create the desired social influence in Nigeria. The SCALERS model can be an excellent tool in this regard as suggested by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:129) to assist NGOs by updating them on the progress of their social activities and achieved targets.

Adequate attention should be paid to the areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs that have the greatest influence in alleviating the suffering of youths and to enable them to benefit, and for youth-serving NGOs, to actualise their social goals and targets. This should be taken seriously by both active and upcoming youth-serving NGOs and their stakeholders, as evidence from the study showed that a high number of youth-serving NGOs were involved in some of the major areas that youths require to enable them overcome the growing scourge of youth poverty, namely –

- education (Asiyai, 2015:61; Yusuff & Soyemi, 2012:71);
- ICT (Matthew et al., 2015:67; Sofowora, 2009:131,135);
- agriculture (Lawan, 2013:32; Ogbeide et al. (2015:3); and
- health services (Ajowun et al., 2015:163) .

More youth-serving NGOs need to be established, as evidence from the sampling frame revealed that there were 400 active and registered youth-serving NGOs, which was compared to the findings by Curtain (2003:7) who identified 17 358 292 young people out of 24 000 000 living below poverty line of less than \$1 per day. The ratio analysis showed the number of youth-serving NGOs to youths living in poverty as 400:17 358 292), in other words, one NGO per 43 395.73 youths living in poverty in Nigeria, which is overwhelming in terms of the current numbers of available youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

The next section will present the contribution to knowledge.

7.4 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

The study made contributions to the SCALERS model and NGOs research focusing on youth-serving NGOs in several ways and these are discussed below.

The next section will present the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model as a contribution to knowledge.

7.4.1 Re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model

In re-contextualizing the SCALERS model in this study, the study made significant contributions in the following areas.

The next section will present the setting as a key aspect of the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model.

7.4.1.1 *Setting*

The SCALERS model was applied in a developing country context (Nigeria). The study confirmed the theory and applicability of the model in a developing country context (specifically Nigeria). Previous application of the model focused on the United States of America, which is a developed country (Bloom & Smith, 2010:135).

The next section will present the research population as a key aspect of the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model.

7.4.1.2 *Unit of measurement or research population*

The utilisation of NGOs that are involved in youth poverty alleviation in Nigeria as the unit of analysis and research population was also significant as no previous study has focused on this research population using the SCALERS model. It is also important to state that the original application of the SCALERS model in the United States of America was done focusing on social entrepreneurial organisations (Bloom & Smith, 2010:135).

The next section will present the situation and problem as a key aspect of the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model.

7.4.1.3 *Situation and problem*

The SCALERS model was also applied for the first time in investigating the capabilities of Nigerian NGOs to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes. There is a near lack of replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in some states and regions in Nigeria, and this application to the situation was new and not yet reported in extant literature on the topic.

The next section will present a developing country (Nigeria) data as a key aspect of the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model.

7.4.1.4 *Developing country (Nigeria) data*

The empirical testing of the SCALERS model was based on a developed country context –the United States of America, to be specific (Bloom & Smith, 2010:135). The present study addressed the gap in understanding the SCALERS model and its application in a developing country context (Nigeria) from an investigative point of view using the research data from Nigeria to provide findings that could be generalised to other youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria.

The next section will present the theoretical contributions as a key aspect of the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model.

7.4.1.5 *Theoretical contributions*

This study were influenced by Whetten's (1989:494) notion of theoretical contribution, which affirms that the theoretical contribution of a study is one that extends an existing theory by giving new meanings to concepts and providing a new direction for the relationships that exists in the theory. Corley and Gioia's (2011:12) notion of theoretical contribution suggests that the theoretical contribution shows the originality of the existing new relationship and its practical value. In line with Whitten (1989:494) and Corley and Gioia (2011:12), the theoretical contribution of the present study to the SCALERS model by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) involves the redefining of the concept **scaling of social outcomes**, which is the dependent variable, to read **replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths** (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model). This has to reflect the intention of alleviating the problem of youth poverty in Nigeria specifically using successful programmes in different locations in Nigeria and accessing additional beneficiaries. This redefinition was necessary in order to apply the adapted SCALERS model to a practical problem such as youth poverty, where evidence in extant literature had posited that

replication is an issue in Nigeria plaguing successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (see Nwogu, 2014:11; cf. 2.5.5.6). This variable has now extended the SCALERS model to accommodate a unique form of social outcome (replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths), which is a key necessity in Nigeria to alleviate youth poverty. The adapted SCALERS model allowed for the investigation of the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

The SCALERS model theory tested in this study to establish the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths provided critical insights into applicability of the SCALERS model in different social organisation contexts. The SCALERS model by Bloom and Chatterji (2009:116) and empirically tested by Bloom and Smith (2010:128) suggests that the organisational capabilities contained in the SCALERS model can be used to scale social entrepreneurial outcomes and established that these organisational capabilities are related to scaling of social outcomes. It was noted in this study that this relationship is valid. The organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs are correlated with the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model).

Furthermore, the predictive ability of the SCALERS model is established in the study by Bloom and Smith (2010:140). In this study, the predictive abilities of staffing, alliance-building, replicating, lobbying and stimulating market force capabilities are established as good predictors in the replication of successful youth poverty alleviation programmes. The above organisational capabilities are consistent with findings by Bloom and Smith (2010:140) with the exception of communication and earnings-generation that were found not to be significant in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths when all the SCALERS are combined.

The next section will present the empirical contributions as a key aspect of the re-contextualisation of the SCALERS model.

7.4.1.6 Empirical contributions

The empirical contributions of this study are guided by Lynn's (2017) notion of empirical contribution, which affirms that an empirical contribution can be made on the basis of

providing undocumented evidence or findings from a research study. In line with Lynn's (2017) notion of empirical contribution, the present study contributes empirically to the academic discussions on NGOs and youth-serving NGOs specifically by –

- establishing the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;
- identifying adequate staffing, alliance-building, replicating, lobbying and stimulating market forces as key organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in the adapted SCALERS model, which significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;
- showing that the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in the adapted SCALERS model accounted for 44.1% of the variance in the replication of a successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;
- providing evidence that showed earnings-generation and lobbying as the two lagging organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and which need serious improvement to be effective to enable youth-serving NGOs to achieve their social goals;
- providing evidence of the positive progress made by youth-serving NGOs in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.
- providing information on the organisational demographic characteristics of youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria; and
- providing evidence to validate the major areas of expertise of youth-serving NGOs in the fight to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

The next section will present the recommendations for future research.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The present study investigated the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. Furthermore, this study attempted to –

- assess the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs;
- determine the progress made in the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria;

- establish the correlation that exists between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths; and
- determine the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs (as contained in the adapted SCALERS model), which significantly predicted the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.

However, more research needs to be done, as the field of the academic discourse is very extensive with different dimensions even in a developing country context like Nigeria. This is required in order to generate more meaningful information on this ongoing academic discourse of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. The following are suggestions for further studies on the aforementioned subject.

- Future research is needed to establish other organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs that may influence the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria as this study has established that the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in the adapted SCALERS model accounted for 44.1% of the variance in the replication of a successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria.
- Future research is also needed in determining the macro-environmental factors likely to influence the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs in their attempt to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria using PESTEL analysis (referring to political, economic, social, technological, environmental and legal factors) (Gillespie, 2007:1–5). In this study, the aforementioned macro-environmental factors were not considered in the adapted SCALERS model. A regional focus should be adopted here as more information and data need to be generated that will be relevant to youth-serving NGOs targeting other regions to replicate their successful youth poverty alleviation programmes. In addition, a regional comparative study (comparing the different zones in Nigeria) is necessary and will inform youth-serving NGOs and stakeholders of the conditions prevalent in the different regions and the strategies required by the organisational capabilities for the effective adaptation and replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths to alleviate the suffering of youths in Nigeria.

- Future research focusing on the analysis of youth poverty, youth poverty alleviation, the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes to empower poor youths in similar emerging and developed economies regionally, as well as globally, is needed. This will provide rich insights and data about a global problem with an emerging and developing economy focus. Also, future research across the globe will provide the needed global perspective on the subject of youth poverty, the organisational capabilities of youth serving NGOs, the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs, and challenges in their efforts to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths. It is important to add that this study focused on Nigeria, which is an emerging/developing economy in West Africa and this study can serve as a reference point for other countries in West Africa, Africa and other developed countries across the globe.
- The importance of carrying out comparative research in the future in the field of NGOs focusing on youth poverty, youth poverty alleviation, youth-serving NGOs organisational capabilities, youth-serving NGOs organisational capabilities challenges and youth-serving organisational capabilities to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths using the SCALERS model or any appropriate model cannot be overstated. More comparative studies are encouraged to identify how these youth development issues are managed across different countries and cultures. Insights from future comparative studies will reveal similarities and differences between youth serving NGOs and their activities, organisational capabilities, organisational capabilities challenges, youth poverty alleviation programmes across countries with a view to inform stakeholders and provide a way out of the growing scourge of youth poverty across the globe.

The next section will present a discussion of the limitations of the study.

7.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study investigated the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria. In the course of carrying out this study, the researcher encountered some limitations. These limitations are discussed below.

- *Country of research and the unit of analysis:* This study was carried out in Nigeria and the data was obtained in Nigeria from youth-serving NGOs. Hence, the generalisation of the research findings is limited to Nigeria and youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria. This caused the research to be well focused.
- *Limited to the adapted SCALERS model variables:* The capabilities of youth-serving NGOs investigated in this study were limited to independent variables in the SCALERS model (staffing, communication, alliance-building, lobbying, earnings-generation, replication and stimulating market forces) while the dependent variable was the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths.
- *Reliability of alliance-building and earnings-generation measurement scales:* The alliance-building and earnings-generation measurement scales both had low internal consistency reliability based on the benchmarked standards of acceptable reliability for this study (i.e. $0.492 < 0.7$ and $0.678 < 0.7$ respectively). This could not be improved by deleting items as the researcher relied on the “meaningful content coverage of some domain and reasonable unidimensionality of the measure” as suggested by Schmitt (1996:352).

It is important to state that the limitations did not affect the overall quality of the study as the researcher adequately managed the limitations to achieve the research objectives.

The next section will present the conclusion.

7.7 CONCLUSION

Youth poverty is a thorny issue in Nigeria due to various negative challenges associated with the rise in youth poverty. The replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths across the states and geographical regions in Nigeria is seldom practiced to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria successfully due to several factors, such as the challenges of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs. In addition, academic discourse on the relationship between the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths is scant. This study addressed the gap in extant NGO literature focusing on youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria by investigating the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria using the adapted SCALERS model. Evidence from the research findings have shown that the organisational capabilities of

youth-serving NGOs and the replication of successful programmes designed to empower poor youths in Nigeria are correlated with organisational capabilities such as staffing, alliance-building, replicating, lobbying and stimulating market forces as key predictors of the replication of successful youth poverty alleviation programmes. In addition, lobbying and earnings-generation have been identified as lagging organisational capabilities, and this needs improvement. Evidence from the study also indicated that, at the time of this study, there existed a small number of 400 active and registered youth-serving NGOs in Nigeria that were carrying out activities to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria. The research sample showed that, at the time of this research, adequate progress had been made in alleviating youth poverty in Nigeria. Finally, the SCALERS model was a very useful model, which enabled the researcher to achieve the research objectives and answer the research questions. The SCALERS model theory was also validated in this study. Therefore, the SCALERS model has been tested and adapted successfully to suit the needs of this study, which confirmed the validity of the SCALERS model in this study.

The next section will present the summary.

7.8 SUMMARY

This chapter concluded this study on the investigation of the organisational capabilities of youth-serving NGOs to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes. The empirical findings of the study were presented to provide a synthesis of the study findings with respect to the research questions. Recommendations, the contribution to knowledge, recommendations for future research and limitations of the study were presented and discussed while a conclusion depicting a synopsis of the study was also presented.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Research Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT and Governance

Dear Respondent,

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Idahosa Igbinakhase **Telephone number:** +234(0)8077005155

Supervisor: Dr Vannie Naidoo Office **Telephone number:** +27(0)31-2608080

Research Office: Mariette Snyman Office **Telephone number:** +27(0)31-2608350

I, Idahosa Igbinakhase, a PhD student in the School of Management, IT and Governance, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, invite you to participate in a research project entitled: **Investigating Nigerian Non-governmental organisations' capabilities to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation innovation programmes.**

The aim of this study is to: Investigate Nigerian Non-governmental organisations' capabilities to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes.

Through your participation, I hope to understand current Nigerian NGOs' capabilities and limitations to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes in Nigeria. The results of this survey are intended to contribute to the development of NGOs' organisational capabilities and to promote replication as a strategy to alleviate youth poverty in Nigeria.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this research project. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN).

If you have any questions or concerns about participating in this study, please contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

It should take you about 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. I hope you will take the time to complete the questionnaire.

Sincerely

Investigator's signature: Date:

This page is to be retained by participant

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
School of Management, IT and Governance

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Idahosa Igbinakhase **Telephone number:** +234 807 700 5155

Supervisor: Dr Vannie Naidoo Office **Telephone number:** +27 031 260 8080

Research Office: Mariette Snyman Office **Telephone number:** +27 031 260 8350

CONSENT

I _____ (full names of participant)
hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project,
and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw
from the project at any time, should I so desire.

Signature of Participant

Date

This page is to be retained by researcher

This questionnaire comprises of two sections:

- Section A: **Organisational Demographic Questions.**
- Section B: **Main Research Questions**

How to complete the questionnaire:

- You can mark each response by making a tick (✓) or a cross (✗), or encircling each appropriate response with a PEN (not a pencil), or by filling in the required words or numbers.
- Please remember to choose an answer on the scale from 1 to 5 for Section B.
 - 1 being an answer to a statement that you “Strongly Disagree” with.
 - 5 being an answer to a statement that you “Strongly Agree” with.

Remember to answer ALL the questions as they are all important for the study. The aim of the study is to investigate Nigerian non-governmental organisation’s capabilities to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation programmes.

SECTION A: ORGANISATIONAL DEMOGRAPHICS

Please provide only ONE option per question below in the space provided.

1) How long has your organisation been in existence?

< 1 year	
1–2 years	
3–4 years	
5–6 years	
> 6 years	

2) Which region is your Head office situated in Nigeria?

South-South	
South-West	
South-East	
North-Central	
North-East	
North-West	

3) What is your current number of beneficiaries?

<100	
100–500	
600–1000	
1100–1500	
> 1500	

4) What is your target beneficiary's gender?

Male	
Female	
Male and Female	

5) What is your target beneficiary's educational status?

No Educational Qualification	
Secondary School Students	
Secondary School Certificate Holders	
Post Secondary School Certificate Holders	

6) What is your target beneficiary's age-group?

< 20	
21–30	
31–40	
41–50	
51 and above	

7) What is your major area of expertise?

Information and Communication Technology	
Education and Training	
Agriculture	
Legal Representation Services	
Financial Services	
Small and Medium Enterprise Advisory Services	
Health Care Services	
Women Development Services	
Vocational Training	
Others-Specify	

8) Are you an international or a local based NGO?

International NGO	
Local NGO	

SECTION B: NGO PERCEPTIONS

The following 28 statements will provide information on NGO's perceptions on youth poverty alleviation programmes and its organisational capabilities.

The scale is as follows:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Based on your experience as an NGO involved in youth poverty alleviation in Nigeria and Compared to other NGOs who are into youth poverty alleviation in Nigeria indicate how you strongly disagree or agree with the following statements under the following headings:

Youth Poverty Alleviation:

1) The NGO has made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

2) The NGO has scaled up its capabilities to address youth poverty.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

3) The NGO has greatly increased the number of individuals it serves.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

4) The NGO has greatly increased the geographical area it serves.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

5) The NGO Targets the youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

6) The NGO has significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

7) Adopting sustainable green practices benefit youth poverty alleviation programmes.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Staffing:

8) The NGO has been able to meet its staffing needs with the required skilled manpower.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

9) The NGO has adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve its organisational goals and programmes' requirements.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

10) The NGO has an available pool of volunteers to help meet its labour requirements.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Communication:

11) The NGO has been effective in communicating its services to key stakeholders.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

12) The NGO has been successful at informing its clients/beneficiaries about the value of its programmes for them.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

13) The NGO has been successful in convincing its sponsors and donors about the importance of what it does.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Alliance-Building:

14) The NGO has built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

15) The NGO always partner with other organisations when implementing new programmes.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

16) The NGO has been more successful when it partner with other organisations on projects compared to when it does it on its own.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Lobbying:

17) The NGO has been successful at attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for its efforts.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

18) The NGO has been successful at convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for its efforts.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

19) The NGO has been able to promote its cause to priority relevance on the public agenda

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Earnings-Generation:

20) The NGO has sustainable income from products and services that it offers at a price.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

21) The NGO has long term donors and sponsors who have been major sources of income for the organisation.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

22) The NGO has found other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for its programmes.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Replicating:

23) The NGO has a model or system that can work effectively in multiple locations.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

24) The NGO has found it very easy to replicate its programmes.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

25) The NGO has been successful in managing its programmes in multiple locations.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Stimulating Market Forces:

26) The NGO has been able to show that businesses can generate income through supporting the organisation's programmes.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

27) The NGO has been able to show that consumers can save money through patronizing its products and services.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

28) The NGO has been able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your time!

Appendix B: Statistical analysis – Tables of analysis output

Organisational demographics (Descriptive statistics) (Section A)

Years of existence of NGO

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid <1 year	9	4.8	4.8	4.8
1–2 years	16	8.6	8.6	13.4
3–4 years	35	18.7	18.7	32.1
5–6 years	29	15.5	15.5	47.6
>6 years	98	52.4	52.4	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

Region where head office of NGO is located

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid South-South	99	52.9	52.9	52.9
South-West	65	34.8	34.8	87.7
South-East	6	3.2	3.2	90.9
North-Central	10	5.3	5.3	96.3
North-East	2	1.1	1.1	97.3
North-West	5	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

Current number of beneficiaries of NGO

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid <100	44	23.5	23.7	23.7
100–500	55	29.4	29.6	53.2
600–1000	24	12.8	12.9	66.1
1100–1500	7	3.7	3.8	69.9
>1500	56	29.9	30.1	100.0
Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing System	1	.5		

Current number of beneficiaries of NGO

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid <100	44	23.5	23.7	23.7
100–500	55	29.4	29.6	53.2
600–1000	24	12.8	12.9	66.1
1100–1500	7	3.7	3.8	69.9
>1500	56	29.9	30.1	100.0
Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing System	1	.5		
Total	187	100.0		

Gender of NGO target beneficiaries

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Male	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
Female	20	10.7	10.7	12.8
Male and female	163	87.2	87.2	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

Educational status of NGO target beneficiaries

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid No educational qualification	68	36.4	36.8	36.8
Secondary school students	33	17.6	17.8	54.6
Secondary school certificate holders	34	18.2	18.4	73.0
Post-secondary school certificate holders	50	26.7	27.0	100.0
Total	185	98.9	100.0	
Missing System	2	1.1		
Total	187	100.0		

Age range of NGO target beneficiaries

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
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Valid	<20	54	28.9	29.0	29.0
	21-30	81	43.3	43.5	72.6
	31-40	42	22.5	22.6	95.2
	41-50	5	2.7	2.7	97.8
	51 and above	4	2.1	2.2	100.0
	Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.5		
Total		187	100.0		

Major area of expertise of the NGO

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid	Information technology	32	17.1	17.2	17.2
	Education and training	55	29.4	29.6	46.8
	Agriculture	28	15.0	15.1	61.8
	Legal representation services	9	4.8	4.8	66.7
	Financial services	9	4.8	4.8	71.5
	Small and medium enterprise advisory services	9	4.8	4.8	76.3
	Health care services	24	12.8	12.9	89.2
	Women development services	12	6.4	6.5	95.7
	Vocational training	8	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing	Other	1	.5		
Total		187	100.0		

Nationality of the NGO

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid	International	36	19.3	19.4	19.4
	Local	150	80.2	80.6	100.0
	Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.5		
Total		187	100.0		

Perceptions of NGOs of dependent and independent variables (descriptive statistics) (Section B)
Youth poverty alleviation (replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths)
(dependent variable)

q1 The NGO has made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	5	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	25	13.4	13.4	16.0
Undecided	18	9.6	9.6	25.7
Agree	107	57.2	57.2	82.9
Strongly agree	32	17.1	17.1	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q2 The NGO has scaled its capabilities to address youth poverty

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
Disagree	23	12.3	12.3	13.9
Undecided	10	5.3	5.3	19.3
Agree	118	63.1	63.1	82.4
Strongly agree	33	17.6	17.6	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q3 The NGO has greatly increased the number of individuals it serves

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Disagree	14	7.5	7.5	8.6
Undecided	7	3.7	3.7	12.3
Agree	111	59.4	59.4	71.7
Strongly agree	53	28.3	28.3	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q4 The NGO has greatly increased the geographical area it serves

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Disagree	28	15.0	15.0	16.0
Undecided	25	13.4	13.4	29.4
Agree	93	49.7	49.7	79.1
Strongly agree	39	20.9	20.9	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q5 The NGO targets the youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria

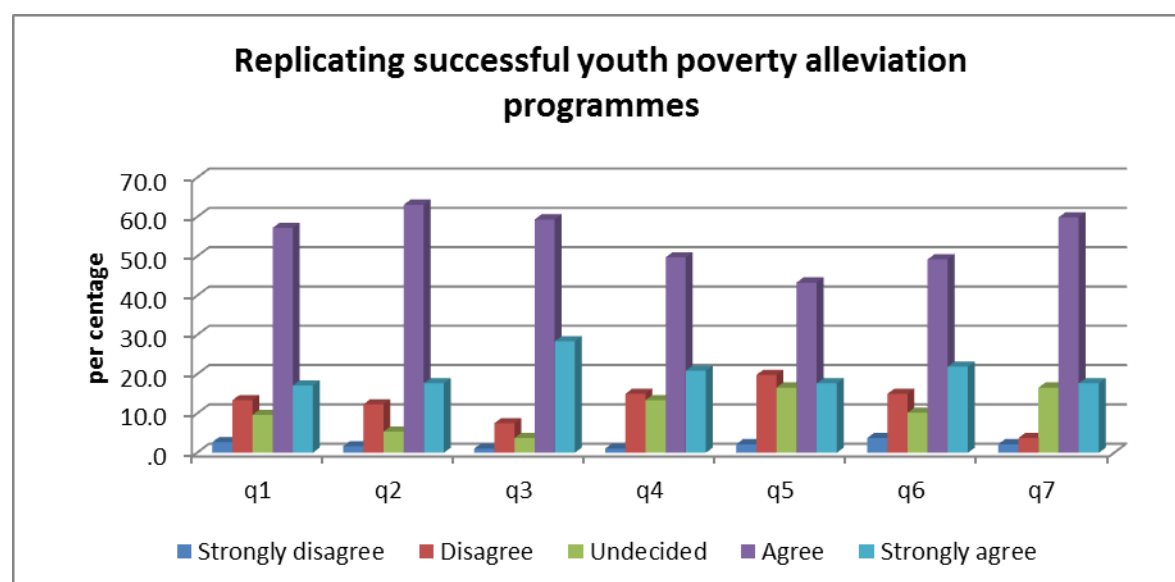
	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	4	2.1	2.2	2.2
Disagree	37	19.8	19.9	22.0
Undecided	31	16.6	16.7	38.7
Agree	81	43.3	43.5	82.3
Strongly agree	33	17.6	17.7	100.0
Total	186	99.5	100.0	
Missing System	1	.5		
Total	187	100.0		

q6 The NGO has significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Disagree	28	15.0	15.0	18.7
Undecided	19	10.2	10.2	28.9
Agree	92	49.2	49.2	78.1
Strongly agree	41	21.9	21.9	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q7 Adopting sustainable green practices benefit youth poverty alleviation programmes

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
	Disagree	7	3.7	3.7	5.9
	Undecided	31	16.6	16.6	22.5
	Agree	112	59.9	59.9	82.4
	Strongly agree	33	17.6	17.6	100.0
	Total	187	100.0	100.0	



One-sample T-test (results) for NGO perceptions on youth poverty alleviation

	N	Mean	Std. deviation (SD)	Std. error mean
q1 The NGO has made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty	187	3.73	.987	.072
q2 The NGO has scaled its capabilities to address youth poverty	187	3.83	.917	.067
q3 The NGO has greatly increased the number of individuals it serves	187	4.06	.846	.062
q4 The NGO has greatly increased the geographical area it serves	187	3.74	.988	.072
q5 The NGO targets the youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria	186	3.55	1.066	.078
q6 The NGO has significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty	187	3.71	1.085	.079
q7 Adopting sustainable green practices benefit youth poverty alleviation programmes	187	3.87	.820	.060

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q1 The NGO has made significant progress in eradicating youth poverty	10.079	186	.000	.727	.58	.87
q2 The NGO has scaled its capabilities to address youth poverty	12.356	186	.000	.829	.70	.96
q3 The NGO has greatly increased the number of individuals it serves	17.194	186	.000	1.064	.94	1.19
q4 The NGO has greatly increased the geographical area it serves	10.285	186	.000	.743	.60	.89
q5 The NGO targets the youths in the poorest rural communities in Nigeria	7.019	185	.000	.548	.39	.70

q6 The NGO has significant programmes targeting female youths in eradicating youth poverty	8.899	186	.000	.706	.55	.86
q7 Adopting sustainable green practices benefit youth poverty alleviation programmes	14.545	186	.000	.872	.75	.99

Organisational capabilities (independent variables)

Staffing

q8 The NGO has been able to meet its staffing needs with the required skilled manpower

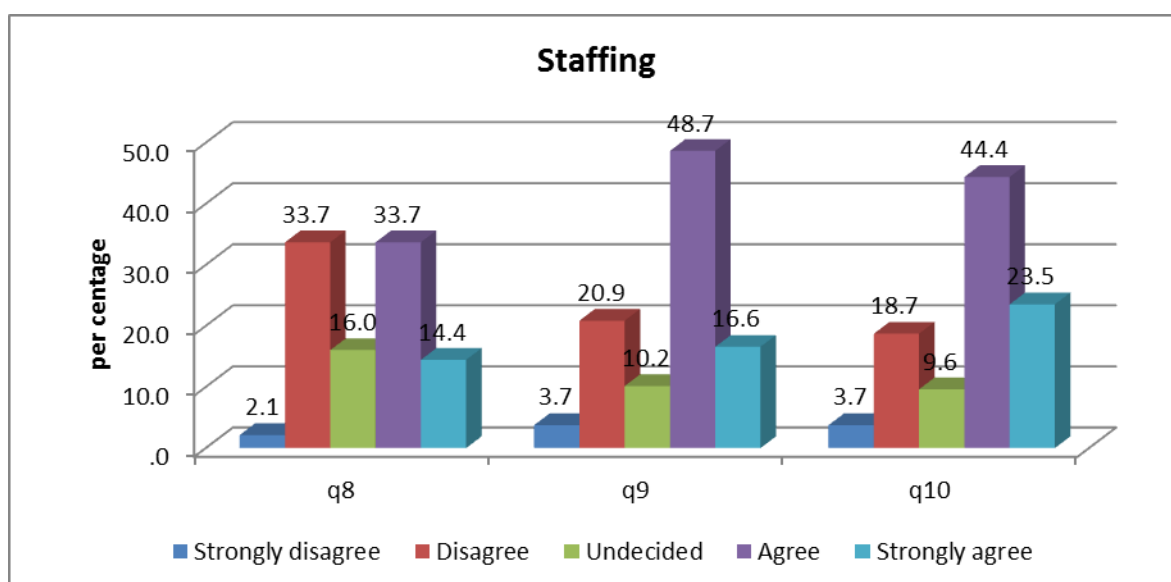
	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
Disagree	63	33.7	33.7	35.8
Undecided	30	16.0	16.0	51.9
Agree	63	33.7	33.7	85.6
Strongly agree	27	14.4	14.4	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q9 The NGO has adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve its organisational goals and programmes' requirements

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Disagree	39	20.9	20.9	24.6
Undecided	19	10.2	10.2	34.8
Agree	91	48.7	48.7	83.4
Strongly agree	31	16.6	16.6	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q10 The NGO has an available pool of volunteers to help meet its labour requirements

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Disagree	35	18.7	18.7	22.5
Undecided	18	9.6	9.6	32.1
Agree	83	44.4	44.4	76.5
Strongly agree	44	23.5	23.5	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	



One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
q8 The NGO has been able to meet its staffing needs with the required skilled manpower	187	3.25	1.133	.083
q9 The NGO has adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve its organisational goals and programmes' requirements	187	3.53	1.108	.081
q10 The NGO has an available pool of volunteers to help meet its labour requirements	187	3.65	1.142	.083

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q8 The NGO has been able to meet its staffing needs with the required skilled manpower	2.969	186	.003	.246	.08	.41
q9 The NGO has adequate management and non-management manpower to achieve its organisational goals and programmes' requirements	6.597	186	.000	.535	.37	.69
q10 The NGO has an available pool of volunteers to help meet its labour requirements	7.815	186	.000	.652	.49	.82

Communication

q11 The NGO has been effective in communicating its services to key stakeholders.

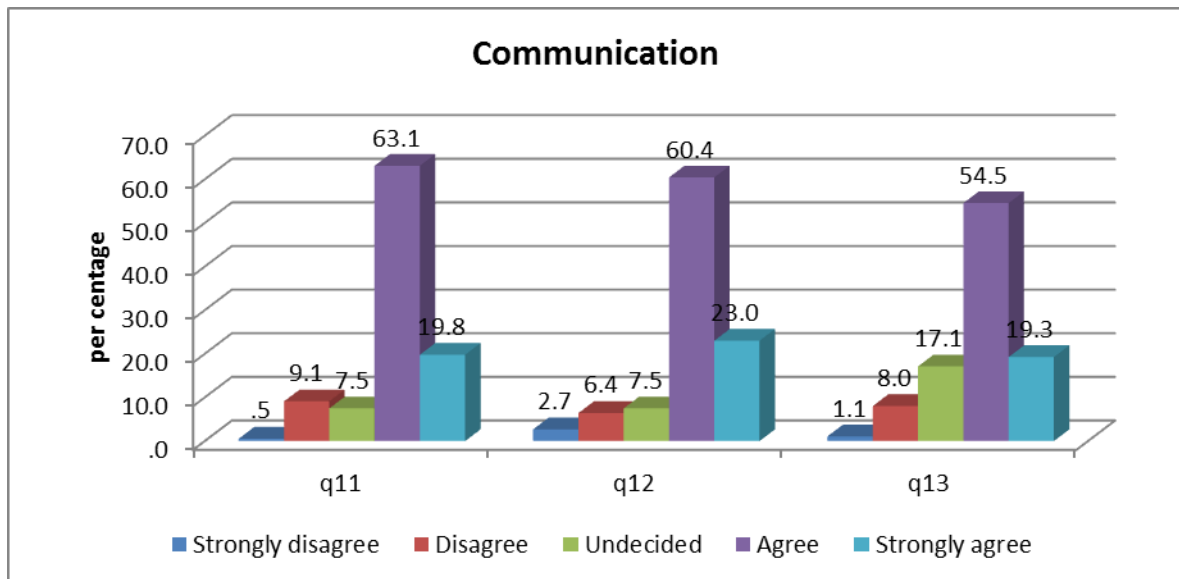
	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
Disagree	17	9.1	9.1	9.6
Undecided	14	7.5	7.5	17.1
Agree	118	63.1	63.1	80.2
Strongly agree	37	19.8	19.8	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q12 The NGO has been successful at informing its clients/beneficiaries about the value of its programmes for them

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	5	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	12	6.4	6.4	9.1
Undecided	14	7.5	7.5	16.6
Agree	113	60.4	60.4	77.0
Strongly agree	43	23.0	23.0	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q13 The NGO has been successful in convincing its sponsors and donors about the importance of what it does

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Disagree	15	8.0	8.0	9.1
Undecided	32	17.1	17.1	26.2
Agree	102	54.5	54.5	80.7
Strongly agree	36	19.3	19.3	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	



Test – one-sample t-test

One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
q11 The NGO has been effective in communicating its services to key stakeholders	187	3.93	.826	.060
q12 The NGO has been successful at informing its clients/beneficiaries about the value of its programmes for them	187	3.95	.896	.066
q13 The NGO has been successful in convincing its sponsors and donors about the importance of what it does	187	3.83	.869	.064

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q11 The NGO has been effective in communicating its services to key stakeholders	15.313	186	.000	.925	.81	1.04
q12 The NGO has been successful at informing its clients/beneficiaries about the value of its programmes for them	14.439	186	.000	.947	.82	1.08
q13 The NGO has been successful in convincing its sponsors and donors about the importance of what it does	13.040	186	.000	.829	.70	.95

Alliance-building

q14 The NGO has built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations

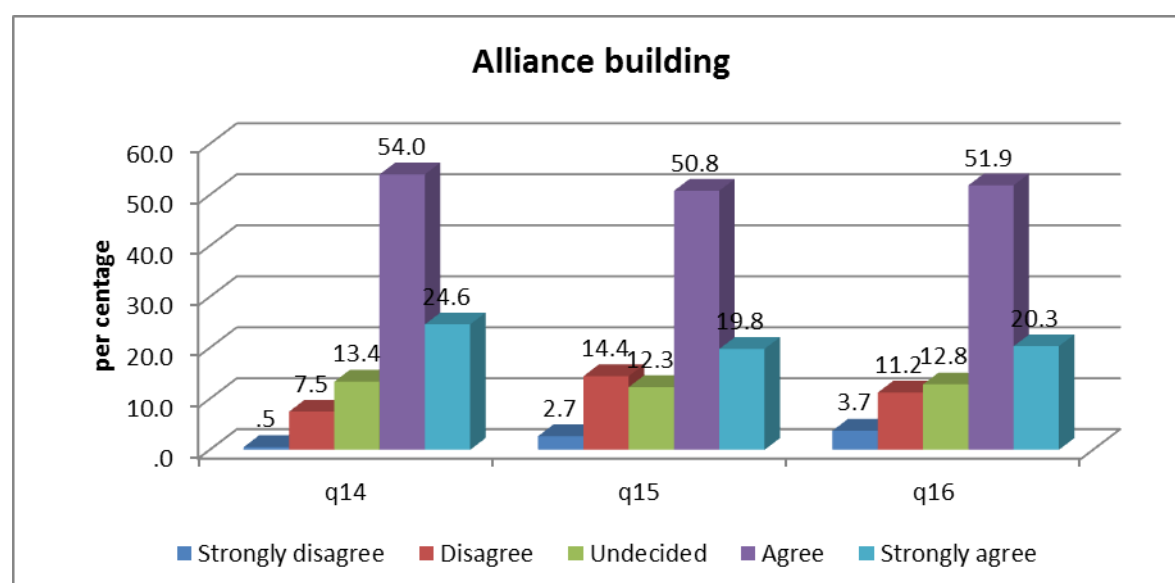
		Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
	Disagree	14	7.5	7.5	8.0
	Undecided	25	13.4	13.4	21.4
	Agree	101	54.0	54.0	75.4
	Strongly agree	46	24.6	24.6	100.0
	Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q15 The NGO always partner with other organisations when implementing new programmes

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	5	2.7	2.7	2.7
Disagree	27	14.4	14.4	17.1
Undecided	23	12.3	12.3	29.4
Agree	95	50.8	50.8	80.2
Strongly agree	37	19.8	19.8	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q16 The NGO has been more successful when it partner with other organisations on projects compared to when it does it on its own

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Disagree	21	11.2	11.2	15.0
Undecided	24	12.8	12.8	27.8
Agree	97	51.9	51.9	79.7
Strongly agree	38	20.3	20.3	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	



One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
q14 The NGO has built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations	187	3.95	.853	.062
q15 The NGO always partner with other organisations when implementing new programmes	187	3.71	1.029	.075
q16 The NGO has been more successful when it partner with other organisations on projects compared to when it does it on its own	187	3.74	1.027	.075

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q14 The NGO has built mutually beneficial partnerships with other organisations	15.167	186	.000	.947	.82	1.07
q15 The NGO always partner with other organisations when implementing new programmes	9.384	186	.000	.706	.56	.85
q16 The NGO has been more successful when it partner with other organisations on projects compared to when it does it on its own	9.827	186	.000	.738	.59	.89

Lobbying

q17 The NGO has been successful at attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for its effort

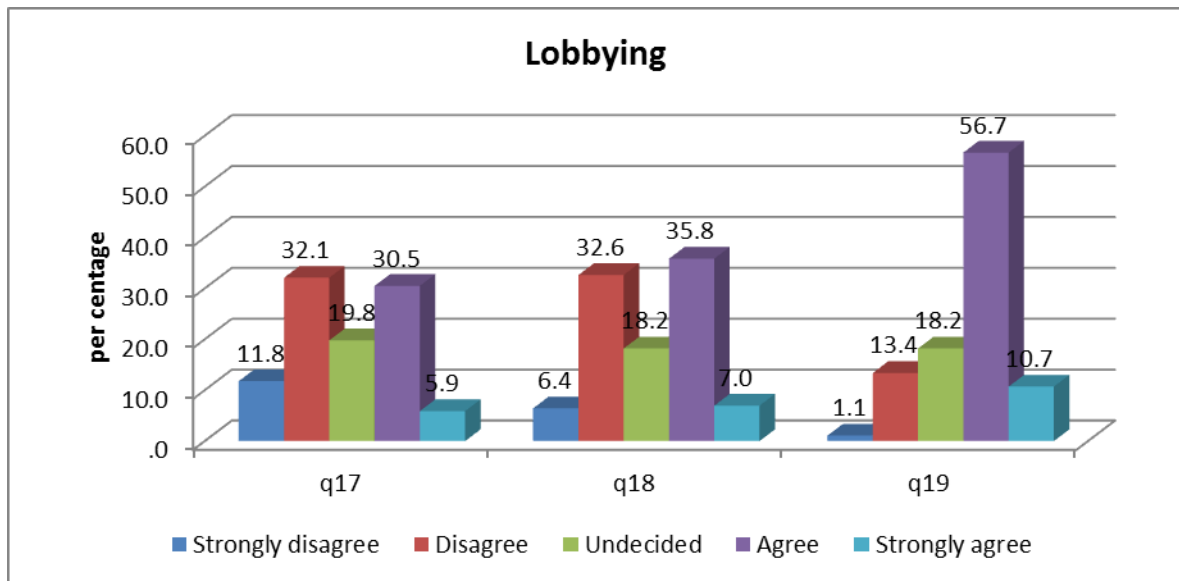
	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	22	11.8	11.8	11.8
Disagree	60	32.1	32.1	43.9
Undecided	37	19.8	19.8	63.6
Agree	57	30.5	30.5	94.1
Strongly agree	11	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q18 The NGO has been successful at convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for its efforts

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	12	6.4	6.4	6.4
Disagree	61	32.6	32.6	39.0
Undecided	34	18.2	18.2	57.2
Agree	67	35.8	35.8	93.0
Strongly agree	13	7.0	7.0	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q19 The NGO has been able to promote its cause to priority relevance on the public agenda

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Disagree	25	13.4	13.4	14.4
Undecided	34	18.2	18.2	32.6
Agree	106	56.7	56.7	89.3
Strongly agree	20	10.7	10.7	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	



One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
q17 The NGO has been successful at attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for its effort	187	2.87	1.149	.084
q18 The NGO has been successful at convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for its efforts	187	3.04	1.106	.081
q19 The NGO has been able to promote its cause to priority relevance on the public agenda	187	3.63	.885	.065

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q17 The NGO has been successful at attracting government agencies and officials to provide financial support for its effort	-1.591	186	.113	-.134	-.30	.03
q18 The NGO has been successful at convincing government agencies and officials to provide supportive policies for its efforts	.529	186	.598	.043	-.12	.20
q19 The NGO has been able to promote its cause to priority relevance on the public agenda	9.664	186	.000	.626	.50	.75

Earnings-generation

q20 The NGO has sustainable income from products and services that it offers at a price

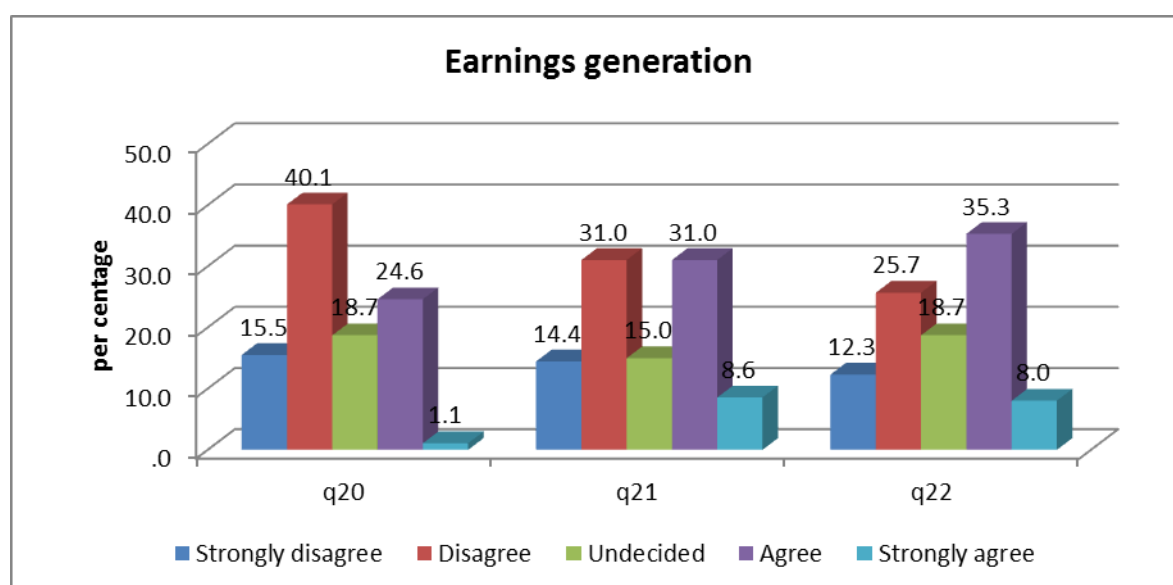
		Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid	Strongly disagree	29	15.5	15.5	15.5
	Disagree	75	40.1	40.1	55.6
	Undecided	35	18.7	18.7	74.3
	Agree	46	24.6	24.6	98.9
	Strongly agree	2	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q21 The NGO has long term donors and sponsors who have been major sources of income for the organisation

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	27	14.4	14.4	14.4
Disagree	58	31.0	31.0	45.5
Undecided	28	15.0	15.0	60.4
Agree	58	31.0	31.0	91.4
Strongly agree	16	8.6	8.6	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q22 The NGO has found other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for its programmes

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	23	12.3	12.3	12.3
Disagree	48	25.7	25.7	38.0
Undecided	35	18.7	18.7	56.7
Agree	66	35.3	35.3	92.0
Strongly agree	15	8.0	8.0	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	



One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
q20 The NGO has sustainable income from products and services that it offers at a price	187	2.56	1.058	.077
q21 The NGO has long term donors and sponsors who have been major sources of income for the organisation	187	2.88	1.239	.091
q22 The NGO has found other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for its programmes	187	3.01	1.196	.087

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q20 The NGO has sustainable income from products and services that it offers at a price	-5.737	186	.000	-.444	-.60	-.29
q21 The NGO has long term donors and sponsors who have been major sources of income for the organisation	-1.299	186	.196	-.118	-.30	.06
q22 The NGO has found other reliable and sustainable sources of funding for its programmes	.122	186	.903	.011	-.16	.18

Replicating**q23 The NGO has a model or system that can work effectively in multiple locations**

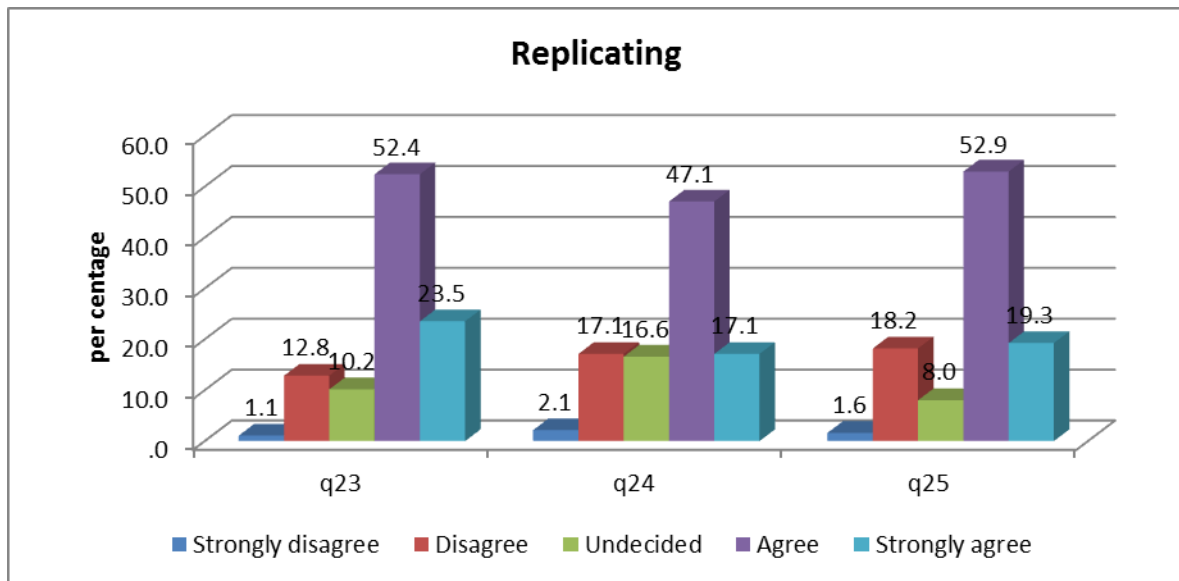
	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Disagree	24	12.8	12.8	13.9
Undecided	19	10.2	10.2	24.1
Agree	98	52.4	52.4	76.5
Strongly agree	44	23.5	23.5	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q24 The NGO has found it very easy to replicate its programmes

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
Disagree	32	17.1	17.1	19.3
Undecided	31	16.6	16.6	35.8
Agree	88	47.1	47.1	82.9
Strongly agree	32	17.1	17.1	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q25 The NGO has been successful in managing its programmes in multiple locations

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
Disagree	34	18.2	18.2	19.8
Undecided	15	8.0	8.0	27.8
Agree	99	52.9	52.9	80.7
Strongly agree	36	19.3	19.3	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	



One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
q23 The NGO has a model or system that can work effectively in multiple locations	187	3.84	.963	.070
q24 The NGO has found it very easy to replicate its programmes	187	3.60	1.029	.075
q25 The NGO has been successful in managing its programmes in multiple locations	187	3.70	1.030	.075

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q23 The NGO has a model or system that can work effectively in multiple locations	11.998	186	.000	.845	.71	.98
q24 The NGO has found it very easy to replicate its programmes	7.960	186	.000	.599	.45	.75
q25 The NGO has been successful in managing its programmes in multiple locations	9.303	186	.000	.701	.55	.85

Stimulating market forces

q26 The NGO has been able to show that business can generate income through supporting the organisation's programmes

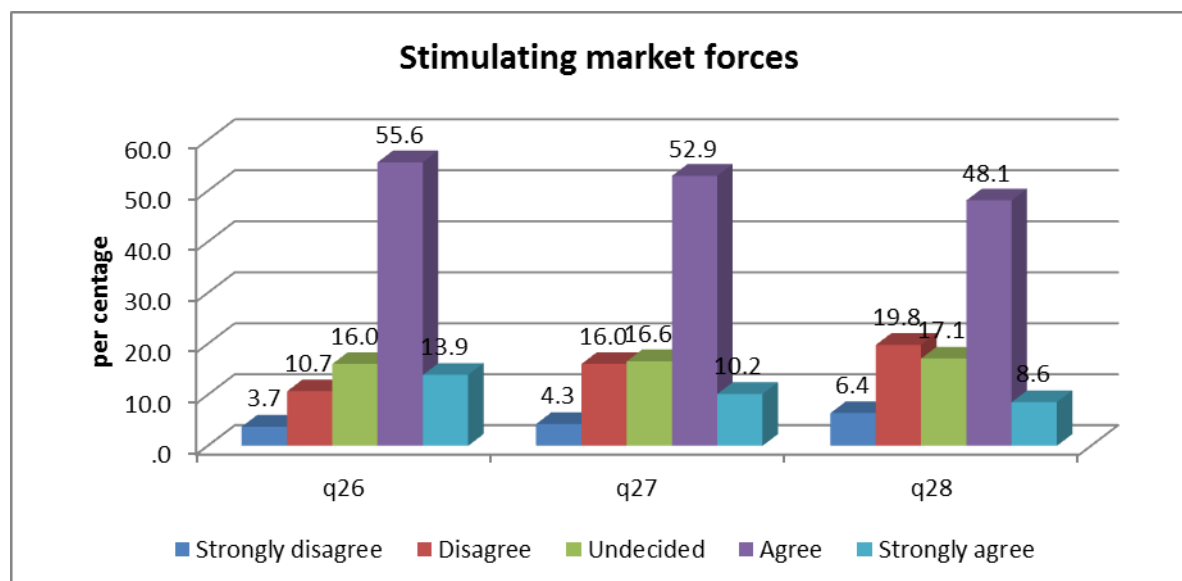
		Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	3.7	3.7	3.7
	Disagree	20	10.7	10.7	14.4
	Undecided	30	16.0	16.0	30.5
	Agree	104	55.6	55.6	86.1
	Strongly agree	26	13.9	13.9	100.0
	Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q27 The NGO has been able to showthat consumers can save money through patronizing its products and services

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	8	4.3	4.3	4.3
Disagree	30	16.0	16.0	20.3
Undecided	31	16.6	16.6	36.9
Agree	99	52.9	52.9	89.8
Strongly agree	19	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	

q28 The NGO has been able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems

	Frequency	Per cent	Valid per cent	Cumulative per cent
Valid Strongly disagree	12	6.4	6.4	6.4
Disagree	37	19.8	19.8	26.2
Undecided	32	17.1	17.1	43.3
Agree	90	48.1	48.1	91.4
Strongly agree	16	8.6	8.6	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	



One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
q26 The NGO has been able to show that business can generate income through supporting the organisation's programmes	187	3.65	.974	.071
q27 The NGO has been able to show that consumers can save money through patronizing its products and services	187	3.49	1.018	.074
q28 The NGO has been able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems	187	3.33	1.085	.079

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
q26 The NGO has been able to show that business can generate income through supporting the organisation's programmes	9.161	186	.000	.652	.51	.79
q27 The NGO has been able to show that consumers can save money through patronizing its products and services	6.538	186	.000	.487	.34	.63
q28 The NGO has been able to rely on market forces to assist in solving social problems	4.110	186	.000	.326	.17	.48

RELIABILITY TEST FOR DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Scale: Youth poverty alleviation (replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths) (dependent variable)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.807	7

Scale: Staffing (independent variable 1)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.702	3

Scale: Communication (independent variable 2)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.782	3

Scale: Alliance-building (independent variable 3)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.492	3

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.575	2

Scale: Lobbying (independent variable 4)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.701	3

Scale: Earnings-generation (independent variable 5)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.678	3

Scale: Replicating (independent variable 6)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.834	3

Scale: Stimulating market forces (independent variable 7)

Reliability statistics

Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
.786	3

The mean and SD for each construct are given below

Descriptive statistics

	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
RSPDEPY	187	1.71	5.00	3.7834	.65695
Staffing	187	1.00	5.00	3.4777	.89266
Communication	187	1.00	5.00	3.9002	.72142
Alliance-building	187	1.67	5.00	3.7968	.68544
Replicating	187	1.00	5.00	3.7148	.87344
Lobbying	187	1.33	5.00	3.1783	.83334
Earnings-generation	187	1.00	5.00	2.8164	.91001
Stimulating market forces	187	1.00	5.00	3.4884	.85946
Valid N (listwise)	187				

T-test for constructs

One-sample statistics

	N	Mean	SD	Std. per cent
RSPDEPY	187	3.7834	.65695	.04804
Staffing	187	3.4777	.89266	.06528
Communication	187	3.9002	.72142	.05276
Replicating	187	3.7148	.87344	.06387
Lobbying	187	3.1783	.83334	.06094
Earnings-generation	187	2.8164	.91001	.06655
Stimulating market forces	187	3.4884	.85946	.06285
Alliance-building	187	3.8262	.79176	.05790

One-sample test

	Test value = 3					
					95% confidence interval of the difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Lower	Upper
RSPDEPY	16.307	186	.000	.78342	.6886	.8782
Staffing	7.318	186	.000	.47772	.3489	.6065
Communication	17.063	186	.000	.90018	.7961	1.0043
Replicating	11.191	186	.000	.71480	.5888	.8408
Lobbying	2.925	186	.004	.17825	.0580	.2985
Earnings-generation	-2.759	186	.006	-.18360	-.3149	-.0523
Stimulating market forces	7.771	186	.000	.48841	.3644	.6124
Alliance-building	14.270	186	.000	.82620	.7120	.9404

PEARSON CORRELATION OUTPUT

Correlations

		RSPDEPY	Staffing	Communication	Alliance-building	Replicating	Lobbying	Earnings-generation	Stimulating market forces
RSPDEPY	Pearson correlation	1	.498*	.469**	.444**	.444**	.426**	.292**	.408**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	187	187	187	187	187	187	187	187

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

REGRESSION ANALYSIS OUTPUT

Model summary^b

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	Durbin–Watson
1	.664 ^a	.441	.419	.50076	2.200

a. Predictors: (constant), stimulating market forces, alliance-building, lobbying, replicating, communication, earnings-generation, staffing

b. Dependent variable: replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (RSPDEPY)

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	35.388	7	5.055	20.160	.000 ^a
	Residual	44.886	179	.251		
	Total	80.275	186			

a. Predictors: (constant), stimulating market forces, alliance-building, lobbying, replicating, communication, earnings-generation, staffing

b. Dependent variable: replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (RSPDEPY)

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		Sig.	Collinearity statistics	
	B	Std. error	Beta t			Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.967	.253		3.827	.000		
Staffing	.117	.057	.159	2.041	.043	.512	1.951
Communication	.124	.068	.136	1.825	.070	.565	1.770
Alliance-building	.188	.053	.227	3.568	.000	.771	1.298
Replicating	.113	.053	.151	2.132	.034	.627	1.596
Lobbying	.138	.052	.175	2.652	.009	.716	1.397
Earnings-generation	-.100	.052	-.139	-1.928	.055	.604	1.654
Stimulating market forces	.180	.052	.235	3.439	.001	.667	1.498

a. Dependent variable: replicating successful programmes designed to empower poor youths (RSPDEPY)

Appendix C: Ethical clearance



12 August 2015

Mr Idahosa Igbinakhase (214585393)
School of Management, IT & Governance
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear Mr Igbinakhase,

Protocol reference number: HSS/0956/015D

Project title: Investigating Nigerian non-governmental organizations' capabilities to replicate successful youth poverty alleviation innovation programmes

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received on 16 July 2015, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully


.....
Professor Urmilla Bob (University Dean of Research)
On behalf of Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

/ms

Cc Supervisor: Dr Vannie Naidoo
Cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Brian McArthur
Cc School Administrator: Ms Debbie Cunynghame

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

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Website: www.ukzn.ac.za



Founding Campuses ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

Appendix D: Turnitin report

INVESTIGATING NIGERIAN NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS' CAPABILITIES TO REPLICATE SUCCESSFUL YOUTH POVERTY ALLEVIATION INNOVATION PROGRAMMES

ORIGINALITY REPORT

10%	7%	4%	6%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	Submitted to University of KwaZulu-Natal Student Paper	2%
2	uclouvain.be Internet Source	<1%
3	Paul Bloom. "Identifying the Drivers of Social Entrepreneurial Impact: Theoretical Development and an Exploratory Empirical Test of SCALERS", Journal of Social Entrepreneurship, 03/2010 Publication	<1%
4	researchspace.ukzn.ac.za Internet Source	<1%
5	Submitted to EThames Graduate School Student Paper	<1%
6	lup.lub.lu.se Internet Source	<1%