

**Partnerships between Cambodia's Government, NGOs, and
the Private Sector in Technical and Vocational Education
Training from the NGOs' Perspectives**

By

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Abstract

Three-way or tri-sector partnerships were proposed in the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg (2002) as a way to reduce poverty and achieve development targets by 2015 (Warner & Sullivan, 2006). These partnerships are between government, civil society and the private sector, and there is not much research on how such partnerships work in the development world. The purpose of this research is to explore the effectiveness of partnerships between Cambodia's government, NGOs, and the private sector in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET), particularly from the NGOs' perspective.

The research methodology used in this study was a qualitative case study. Data was collected from in-depth interviews as well as document analysis, such as NGO's annual reports, project agreements with Cambodia's government, and other related documents from three NGOs working in the TVET sector in Phnom Penh. This research used Creswell's framework (2014) for qualitative data analysis and interpretation.

The findings conclude that the tri-sector partnerships within one NGO to that of another NGO are quite different depending on the level of trust and interdependence of the parties. These partnerships between government, the business sector and NGOs are based upon the belief that collaboration brings benefits to each actor. From the business's side, the benefits include the improvement of industrial production processes and productivity due to an increased supply of well-skilled staff. From the NGOs' perspective, the benefits include accessing enterprises' equipment and expertise. The government provides decentralised powers to local government to facilitate the working process of the NGOs and the private sector. These findings provide insight into Cambodia's tri-sector TVET partnerships, making a contribution to understandings and knowledge of NGOs in TVET and their partners.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my family who have always loved me unconditionally and supported me through the challenges of school, work, and life. I also dedicate this thesis to my best friends who always make time for me. I am truly thankful for having all of you in my life.

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Acronyms

ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CDCF	Cambodia Development Cooperation Forum
CDF	Cambodia Development Forum
CMDGs	Cambodian Millennium Development Goals
CRDB/CDC	Cambodian Rehabilitation and Development Board of the Council for the Development of Cambodia
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CTE	Career and Technical Education
DGTVET	Directorate General of TVET
EFA	Education For All
GDCC	Government-Development Partner Coordination Committee
GDP	Growth Domestic Product
G-PSF	Government-Private Sector Forum
ILO	International Labour Organisation
JMIs	Joint Monitoring Indicators
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports
MoLVT	Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training
MoP	Ministry of Planning
MoSAVY	Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation
MoU	Memorandum of Understandings
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisation
NSDP	National Strategic Development Plan
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OE	Occupational Education
PPP	Public Private Partnerships
PRSPs	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
RGC	Royal Government of Cambodia
SEDP	Socio-Economic Development Plan
SMEs	Small and Medium Enterprises
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education Training
TVE	Technical-Vocational Education

TWGs	Technical Workings Groups
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WE	Workforce Education
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizatio

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

Prior to taking up this research, I had been working as an Aid Coordination Officer for almost three years at the Cambodian Rehabilitation and Development Board of the Council for the Development of Cambodia (CRDB/CDC). My workplace's mandate was to strengthen partnerships with development actors and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) not only at the policy level but also at the technical level. It also coordinated the use of Official Development Assistance (ODA) in order to prevent overlaps in external support to particular sectors as well as to identify the amount of resource requirements and the ODA commitment.

In Cambodia, the government focuses on strengthening partnerships with all the stakeholders in development, including the development partner community, the private sector, and NGOs, and each individual development actor has its own official forum/consultation with the Cambodian government (MoP, 2014). However, there is no formal policy focused on collaborations between the Cambodian government, the private sector, and NGOs.

1.2. Research Background

The vision of partnership in development was raised in the Monterrey Consensus of 2002 (Warner & Sullivan, 2004) in the form of Public Private Partnerships (PPPs), which are partnerships between the public and private sector for the purpose of planning and financing the projects/programs. The focus on PPPs was seen as a way to help developing countries since those countries faced new challenges with limited institutional and human resource capacities as mentioned in the leading actions in Monterrey Consensus (2002), the United Nations International Conference on Financing for Development (Warner & Sullivan, 2004). Since then, there have been many initiatives focusing on the role of the private sector in development, and less focus on the private sector in the context of aid effectiveness (Khieng, 2014).

However, in developing countries, it is not only the private sector that contributes to development but also non-governmental organisations (NGOs) which are also major players in development processes. NGOs are also primarily dependent on international funding, but play vital roles complementing the government in some areas and

supplementing it in others, providing education, health, agriculture and rural development services while advocating for civil society space and stronger democratic governance at the national level (Khieng, 2014). NGOs make an important contribution to development not only through mobilising their own resources in implementing the projects/programs, but also in serving as an implementing partner (CDC, 2011). As NGOs have grown in numbers and strength, Cambodia's government has considered NGOs as partners who implement programs or deliver services. Because of these significant contributions, the word "partnerships" are no longer only about the relationships between governments, or government and the private sector, but the relationships among three actors: government, the private sector and NGOs. Indeed, it is stated that nowadays sustainable development is no longer a subject for state or the market alone, but it is a matter of setting the appropriate mix of government, private sector, and civil society to maximize the welfare of people (Kuye et al., 2013). Warhurst (2001) concluded that constructive inputs are needed from not only the government itself but also business and civil societies so that sustainable development can be achieved.

The social sector of the Cambodian government (education and health) continues to receive the largest share of external support, not only from bilateral development partners (approximately one-third of all ODA in 2010) but also from NGOs (44% of total NGOs' resource disbursement goes to the social sector) (CDC, 2011). Furthermore, in the National Strategic Development Plan of Cambodia (2014-2018), the social sector has received the highest proportion of the budget from the government (32% of total budget) to implement their sectoral plans.

The NSDP 2014-2018 also highlights Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) as a new priority programme for the government to focus on since Cambodia plans to integrate into The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) in 2015 and the government needs to prepare for the free movement of skilled workers (MoP, 2014). Therefore, I decided to focus this research on tri-sector partnerships (between government, private sector, and NGOs) in TVET. Banks, Hulme, & Edwards (2015) concluded that NGOs are perfectly seen as 'connectors' between different actors in society. My own working experiences also attest to the importance of NGOs. Partnerships between the government, NGOs, and private sector in TVET do exist, however, there is

no document written about these partnerships in Cambodia. Research about this partnership may contribute to the three actors working better together.

1.3. Significance of the Research

This study is worthwhile for four main reasons. Firstly, although various studies on the partnerships between the private and public sector in TVET (Alam, 2008; Amedorme & Fiagbe, 2013; Dunbar, 2013; Okoye & Chijioke, 2013; Honorati, 2015) have been well published, there seems to be a lack of research on the involvement of NGOs (sometimes called ‘the third sector’) in the partnerships between the private and public sector in the TVET sector. Also, it is significant for current and future partnerships between NGOs, government, and the private sector in TVET sector in Cambodia. This study uses qualitative methodology to show explored how different institutions collaborate, examined impacting factors upon effective partnerships. In addition, this thesis investigated different challenges of each NGO, and offers recommendations from the interviewees for the improvement of the partnerships. Thirdly, this study draws on three NGOs in the TVET sector in Phnom Penh in Cambodia. Among the three NGOs, two NGOs have been working in providing training to youth in Cambodia for more than two decades; therefore, these three NGOs give significance to this study. Lastly, this study provides insights into the common practices of NGOs in dealing with the challenges that they face during the collaborations with government and their business partners. This research is focuses not only on how NGOs perceived their roles and responsibilities in the relationship between the private sector and the Cambodian government, but also on how NGOs can work effectively together with government and the private sector.

1.4. Research Aim and Objectives

This study hopes to contribute to understandings of partnerships, especially of three-way partnerships and of the way in which partnerships can contribute to poverty alleviation and development, but also to raise awareness of the current practice of partnerships between the tri-sector in TVET and what can be done to make these current partnerships more effective. My research aim is to explore the effectiveness of partnerships between Cambodia’s government, NGOs, and private sector in TVET, particularly from the NGOs’ perspectives. In order to answer this question, I will focus on the 3 following sub-questions:

1. What are the current existing partnerships in TVET and what challenges do they face?
2. How do the NGOs understand their roles and the effect of that perception within the partnerships?
3. Through participants' experiences and understanding, how can the partnerships be improved?

The thesis objectives are:

1. To find the current mechanism for partnerships of this tri-sector partnerships in Cambodia. With this model it can be analysed if the current existing approach is effective or not.
2. To understand the relationships between government, private sector and NGOs in TVET
3. To find out how to improve partnerships from participants perspectives and experiences

These questions guided the data collection through to the analysis of the findings. I hope my findings will be a contribution to the development literature on partnerships between government, NGOs, and private organisations in Cambodia. Also, I expect that these research findings will provide information and knowledge that can be used by Cambodia's government, private sector, NGOs and other relevant actors to set policies or design strategies for promoting partnerships among those three actors for sustainable and successful future development plans in Cambodia.

1.5. Thesis Structure

This thesis has six chapters. The first chapter introduces the main concepts and questions of the thesis. Chapter 2 comprises a literature review covering aid effectiveness, relevant development theories and discussion around tri-sector partnerships. Chapter 3 outlines the qualitative methods I used, including the case study, in-depth interviews and data sources employed in the study. Chapter 4 focuses in particular on a brief presentation of the Cambodia's strategic development plans and different kinds of partnerships in Cambodia. The core section of the thesis presents key research findings and the analysis. Finally, the thesis concludes with some implications for different actors (NGOs, government, private sector) and some key issues requiring further research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of different types of partnerships, ranging from partnerships in aid effectiveness to tri-sector partnerships. The contribution of the private sector has been considered as crucial towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) since the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg (Kolk et al., 2008). Since then the attention was given to the participation of the private sector in the development of Public Private Partnerships (PPPs), private sector and NGOs, and recently tri-sector partnerships (private sector, NGOs, and government) (Kolk et al., 2008). Different partnerships with different partners not only provide different risks and benefits but also different challenges; therefore, this study will briefly explore the background and critique the three types of partnerships (PPP, private sector and NGOs, and tri-sector partnerships).

This chapter is divided into five parts. It begins with the introduction to the chapter and follows by defining terms such as partnerships, government, NGOs, private sector, and TVET. The next part discusses the different types of partnerships in the development context (partnerships between development partners and recipient countries, and partnerships between the public and private sector) and then moves on to the concept of tri-sector partnerships. The final part will discuss the shifting attention from Education For All (EFA) to Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) and the partnerships in TVET.

2.2. Defining Terms

2.2.1. Defining Partnerships

Considering relationships in terms of international obligations for aid effectiveness, it becomes obvious that within the last decade the partnership concept has increased its significance in development. Since the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, cross-sector partnerships¹ have become important instruments for addressing the problems of global development and reaching the MDGs (Warner &

¹ Cross-sector partnerships mean that different sectors in society collaborate, such as the business sector and NGOs, business sector and government, government and NGOs, or tri-sector partnerships collaborate with each other (Selsky & Parker, 2005).

Sullivan, 2004; Kolk et al., 2008). Attention has grown for these new forms of collaboration, which differ from the more traditional nonprofit-public cooperation that has been the primary type of partnership in official development assistance (Warner & Sullivan, 2004; Chataway & Smith, 2006; Kolk et al., 2008).

Development Discourse of Partnerships

Over the past 50 years, there has been a shift in the language of development to embrace concepts such as participation, empowerment, poverty reduction, and partnerships (Cornwall & Brock, 2005; Cornwall & Eade, 2010). There has been a focus on partnerships, yet the term partnership sometimes can be vague and problematic (Dolan, 2011). Cornwall (2007) states that language does matter in the development context because words not only act as key words to get funding from development partners, but also a word can convey a specific message. The word “*development*” for instance also conveys the message of positive change or an idea of the future.

In the area of international development, partnership has been a popular term² which has been incorporated into mainstream development agendas such as the Monterrey Consensus, Paris Declaration, and MDGs. Firstly, the Monterrey Consensus of the International Conference on Financing for Development in 2002 used the term partner or partnership in the declaration (Warner & Sullivan, 2004), especially in relation to new partnerships between developed and developing countries and public-private partnerships. Similarly, the Paris Declaration, issued in early 2005 by the High Level Forum on Joint Progress towards Enhanced Aid Effectiveness, used the term Partnership 111 times in 12 pages (Horton et al., 2009). Finally, in relation to the MDGs, the idea of partnership acts as the key normative concept involved with the organisation and governance of the goals, to the degree that the idea of partnership is specifically listed as MDG 8³: to develop a global partnership for development (United Nations, 2015).

² The word partnership suggests equality in term of power and responsibility within the collaboration (Gutierrez, 2008).

³ A Global Partnership for Development is one of the 8 goals of the Millennium Development Goals. This Global Partnership for Development Goal was created in the road map towards implementation of the United Nations Millennium Declaration to develop an enabling environment for development. This goal includes targets on aid,

Despite issues with partnership terms, partnerships are becoming more and more part of the development context. Since the word can be perceived as having a positive meaning, so development partners use it to present their positive image to the recipient countries, but in reality partnership can be unequal.

The Discursive Politics of Partnerships

Besides the use of the word partnerships in the context of development, the term partnership is also presented in the literature in various forms which may be confusing to organisations. Balloch and Taylor (2001) claimed there was no single acceptable definition or model of partnership and suggested that it existed along a broad continuum of theory and practice. However, Rummery (2002) has defined two characteristics of partnerships which are helpful in analysis and those two characteristics are: a degree of interdependence and a level of trust. Also, Uhlik (2005) described partnerships as ongoing arrangements between two or more parties based on the mutual needs of the parties involvement, which is very similar to the theory of Rummery (2002) about interdependence. Each partner, in sharing its ideas, knowledge and resources, stands to gain from the additional ideas, knowledge and resources that the other members of the partnership bring to it (McLaughlin, 2004). Therefore, the word partnership can imply that each stakeholder group has something to contribute and something to benefit or to share the risk by being involved.

2.2.2. Defining the Private Sector, NGOs, and Government

In the view of Waddell and Brown (1997), governments, businesses, and civil society are structured around different interests and concerns. This means government institutions are primarily concerned with distributing and maintaining public goods and services, while business institutions (private sector) focus on the efficiency and effectiveness of production and/or services. Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs⁴) is post-World War II word which firstly used by United Nations (Martens, 2002). According to Martens

trade, debt relief and improved access to essential medicines and new technologies (United Nations, 2015).

⁴ The word NGOs can be frequently referred to civil society, non-profit organisation, grassroots organisation, and third sector.

(2002, p. 282), NGOs referred to “formal (professionalised⁵) independent societal organisations⁶ whose primary aim is to promote common goals (public good/service) at the national or the international level”, and this term is usually registered as a trust or a society concerned with the preservation of core community values and beliefs. As a consequence, they are not supposed to make profit, unlike the private sector.

2.3. Partnerships and Aid Effectiveness

Recent international development agreements such as the Monterrey Consensus, the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, the Accra Agenda for Action and the Busan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation all emphasize aid effectiveness (Nelson, 2010). In the latest High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness on 29th November-1st December 2011, the declaration emphasized effective development cooperation between Civil Society Organisations (CSOs), the private sector, state actors, and different forms of public-private partnership as well as South-South and triangular co-operation (OECD, 2011). Warhurst (2001) supports the idea of bringing all development actors into development cooperation, as he states that constructive inputs are needed from government, business, and civil society to achieve sustainable development.

2.3.1. Partnerships between Private Sector and Government (PPP)

The idea of partnerships in development was also enhanced in the Monterrey Consensus in 2002, which included the private sector as a development partner. Donors have increased their engagement with the private sector for contributions to development objectives (such as the MDGs). In doing so, new collaborations have been created which are called Public Private Partnership (PPP), to combine the strengths of different stakeholders (Nelson, 2010). The vision of Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) was raised in the Monterrey Consensus of 2002 as a way to help developing countries to benefit fully from greater access to markets (Harangozo & Zilahy, 2015).

⁵ NGOs are considered to be professional because the staffs of the NGOs are paid to do their job with certain skills even the organisations is non-profit organisations (Martens, 2002).

⁶ Independent societal organisations mean that the NGOs are created by the individual or local community so they do not associate with any political or include any governmental official in the organisations (Martens, 2002).

Since the early 2000s, international development organisations such as the United Nations and the World Bank have embraced Public Private Partnership (PPP) as a means of providing global public goods like environmental protection or poverty alleviation (Glasbergen et al., 2007). Deich (2001) pointed out that the partnerships between the public and private sector exist when the private sector joins with the public sector in pursuit of a common goal. With an increase in focus on PPP, in the Paris Declaration era, the NGO's voice within the aid effectiveness agenda is still very limited in promoting aid effectiveness. Although the principle of ownership in the Paris Declaration stated that partner countries should encourage the participation of civil society and the private sector in taking part in dialogue (Paris Declaration, para. 14, 2005). However, NGOs' roles within development tend to be minimal because they have limited resources. Because of this lack of involvement from NGOs, there are some critiques on PPP to be considered.

Critiques of PPP

Public Private Partnership has been criticised on a number of points. Firstly, NGOs have argued the partnership theme was just an excuse for states to avoid environmental and development obligations because partnerships can complement, but not substitute for, governmental action and some critical issues (power asymmetries, transparency, and accountability) (Witte, 2003). Witte (2003) also argued that the voices of small NGOs are often lost in this type of partnership. Public-private partnerships are expected to address the inadequate provision of public goods, and this could imply that they are supply-driven without sufficient recognition of local needs (OECD, 2008a). Others argue that this kind of partnership is just the “Trojan Horse of Neoliberal Development” because this partnership serves the interest of the private sector (Miraftab, 2004, p.2). Miraftab (2004) explains that to enable markets through privatisation, deregulation, decentralisation, and economic adjustment (i.e. neoliberal development) is now a common priority among national governments.

It has also been argued that local governments have little power of independent decision-making and less influence in partnerships since local governments have little financial support from other levels of government (Glasbergen et al., 2007). Also, Glasbergen et al (2007) explained that government usually has to raise their own revenue by attracting private investors and they may often ease regulations to create a favorable environment

for the private sector. In doing so, they become market friendly and privatise which may lead to inequitable outcomes for the poor. Miraftab (2004) used a South African housing subsidy scheme as a case study to illustrate this point. This example was a PPP between the poor, private sector and local government to deliver housing for the poor. The policy was criticised as it failed to meet qualitative and quantitative goals, and resulted in unfavorable outcomes for the poor because the South African government paid a subsidy to the private sector that buys land and builds houses for the poor and disadvantaged people.

2.3.2. NGOs' Involvement in Development

NGOs also play important roles in development. For many people in developing countries, facing a situation in which a wide range of vital basic services are unavailable, the service of NGOs is very important as they often serve a complementary role to the government. Therefore, NGOs should be considered as equal contributors in development. However, representatives of civil society were not involved in the early aid effectiveness forums. Table 1 shows the aid effectiveness process since the Monterrey Consensus in 2002 to the latest forum in Busan in 2011. In the Monterrey Consensus and Rome Declaration on Harmonisation, NGOs were only involved as the observer, not full participants in the event (Mawdsley et al., 2014). It was only at the Third High-Level Forum in Accra in 2008 that civil society moved from lobbying outside the conference halls to being part of the process (OECD, 2008b).

Table 1: Aid Effectiveness Process

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The Monterrey Consensus of the International Conference on Financing for Development (2002) - The Rome Declaration on Harmonisation (2003) - The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2005) - The Accra Agenda for Action (2008) - Busan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation (2011) |
|--|

In the Third High Level Forum, the Accra Agenda for Action, a significant role was given to Civil Society Organisations (CSOs), who were considered as equal contributors to development (Van Rooy, 2013). Their successful lobbying for more emphasis on democratic oversight of development policies is clearly seen in the Accra Agenda for Action. Also, NGO representatives were officially seated during the meeting associated

with the Busan Declaration (OECD, 2011). About 300 civil society actors were present at Busan (Mawdsley et al., 2014). In the Busan Partnership Document (2011), Paragraph 22 specifically addresses demand for greater civil society participation in shaping policies and forging partnerships and confirmed that the role of civil society is independently vital for development. In terms of growing country ownership of development processes, it was recommended to developing country governments to incorporate civil society organisations, the private sector, and other stakeholders into an active policy dialogue (OECD, 2008b).

NGOs are currently engaged by bilateral donors to perform specific roles and tasks in particular contexts, within donors' or governments' own projects and programmes. This reflects recognition by the donors that NGOs can contribute to official aid objectives in the areas of poverty reduction. Little (2003) points to the important role of NGOs, by highlighting three qualities that he argues only NGOs can provide (and that official aid cannot). The first quality is that NGOs operate more independently than the government in pursuing a development agenda. The second one is that NGOs offer people in developing countries an opportunity to engage with issues of poverty and social justice as supporters, volunteers or contributors to organisations. The final one is that NGOs can potentially engage more effectively (than governments) with citizens in the developing world, particularly those such as women or minorities who found themselves excluded from economic and political participation within existing institutional structures.

2.3.3. Private Sector and NGO Partnerships

Another interesting form of partnership to look at besides PPP is the NGO-Private Partnerships. NGO-Private sector partnerships are not new, however the form of those partnerships has changed over time (Jamali & Keshishian, 2009). Indeed, the private sector has for many years demonstrated a willingness to contribute its resources to charitable causes supported by NGOs (Borwankar & Velamuri, 2009). The first recognition of the role of both the NGOs and the business sectors in the implementation of sustainable development was in 1992 at the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Warner & Sullivan, 2004).

More recently, some companies have shifted from company-led community development approaches to programmes that are managed through partnerships with non-governmental

organisations (NGOs), community groups and international organisations (Humphreys, 2000). Sometimes, such partnerships are referred to as Nonprofit-Business Collaboration, Cross-Sector Social-Oriented Partnerships, or Corporate-Non-Profit Organisation Collaboration. The most commonly used term; however, is nonprofit-business collaboration. An increase in the number of academic articles on NGO-business relations during the last ten years has also been reported by Laasonen et al. (2012). The reason for the NGOs to seek collaboration with the business sector is to maintain their services while trying to remain sustainable since uncertainty of funding from government and reduction in funding from donors remain challenges for NGOs (Weerawardena et al., 2010).

An increasing number of scholars and practitioners suggest that cooperation between civil society and the business sector can serve as an effective strategy to achieve the goals of sustainable development (Jamali and Keshishian, 2009). Corporations increasingly get involved in poverty reduction in developing countries in which they hold business interests, and they act as development agents and implement CSR strategies that can contribute to poverty reduction (Arndt & Volkert, 2009). An NGO, on the other hand, may enter into a partnership with a corporation in order to try to further its aims of campaigning for socially responsible business. However, research (Arndt & Volkert, 2009) suggests that business tends to obtain more benefits from the partnerships than NGOs, who bear more of the costs. Companies may also be dominant in the partnership and have more control. Furthermore, Harangozó and Zilahy (2015), in a paper that explores how relationships between businesses and NGOs influence corporates in the environment field, show that even though sometimes NGOs lack the power to influence business organisations, both NGOs and Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) consider the potential for engagement to remain high. It may be that both types of organisations should seek further opportunities for interaction (whether confrontation or collaboration) by bringing the government to such partnerships so that the government can potentially maintain the balance of power within the partnerships.

2.3.4. Critiques of Partnerships in Development Policy

The notion of partnerships has become a central part of official development policy in many countries, especially those that receive development aid (ODA). In the field of public policy, “both partnerships and privatisation are often viewed as strategies to bring

competitive market discipline to bear on government operations” (Horton, Prain & Thiele, 2009, p.19).

The consensus over the MDGs has also formed a basis for partnerships between donors and recipient countries. In this context, partnerships are to be constructed in pursuit of a commitment to ending poverty implemented through national Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs). However, Saith (2007) has critiqued this idea, describing it as a formula of development where “neo-liberal globalisation + MDGs = development” which implies that development is just a method to suit the interests of corporations and rich countries. Amin (2006) describes the underlying political and conceptual agenda of the MDG framework that suits the interests of corporations and rich states because they only emphasis internationally agreed targets for poverty reduction, but they have almost nothing to say about rising global inequality (Green, 2012).

Furthermore, as Murray and Overton (2011) argue, the aid effectiveness agenda in the Paris Declaration is associated with neo-structuralism with the same essential goal of supporting the free market. For example, the Paris Declaration Principles acknowledge that developing countries have the right to determine their own development policies and to expect donors to comply with them. However, there is a stress on linking the national development plan of the partner countries to Poverty Reduction Strategies (Paris Declaration, Indicator 1 of Ownership) which is seen as a form of conditionality. Such conditionality was aimed at binding policy makers around donor priorities because donor views of the right development policies have been promoted through aid conditionality with little reference to the country context.

2.4. Tri-Sector Partnerships (Government, NGOs, Private Sector)

The idea of three-way partnerships between companies, government and civil society in developing economies is relatively new (Warner & Sullivan, 2004). Tri-sector partnerships (also referred to as multi-sectoral partnerships) can be seen as a new form of strategic alliance. They can be defined as “a voluntary collaboration to promote sustainable development based on the most efficient allocation of complementary resources across corporate business, civil society and government” (Warner & Sullivan, 2004, p.17). Many governments consider cross-sector partnerships as new ways to

produce public good/service with the collaboration of the private sector and NGOS (Clarke and Fuller, 2010).

2.4.1. Tri-Sector Partnerships in the Busan Declaration

In the Busan Declaration, the concept of partnerships does not only refer to the relationship between government and the private sector, but also implies “inclusive partnerships” which emphasise effective development cooperation between civil society organisations, the private sector, state actors, and different forms of public-private partnership as well as South-South and triangular cooperation (OECD, 2011). One of the reasons why the 4th High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness was held in Busan may have been because Busan was the place also where relief goods from all around the world arrived once the war was over in a time of desperate need, but now it is transformed into the fifth largest port city in the world (Mawdsley, Savage, & Kim, 2014).

It is argued that we should look at aid from many different angles because it is not the obligation of either recipient countries or donors’ countries, it concerns every actor involved in development (Banks et al., 2015). The Busan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation recognises the Paris Declaration as not paying adequate attention to the diversity of development stakeholders (OECD, 2011). Although the private sector was not as visible as the civil society sector at Busan, their participation helped to create new forms of global partnership and can be seen as a new direction in development cooperation (Mawdsley et al., 2014).

2.4.2. Why Tri-Sector Partnerships are important

There is now a wide range of ‘inter-sectoral’ partnerships for development: (1) between government and business, for example, in relation to labour standards and ethical trading, (2) between NGOs and business in the form of fair trade and community development, (3) between governments and NGOs in the delivery of services, and (4) between Northern NGOs and Southern NGOs in support of capacity enhancement. However, the tri-sector partnerships are not among those inter-sectoral partnerships; therefore, it is helpful to identify the specific importance of tri-sector partnerships.

Based on the critiques of the PPP, PPP is not enough to provide the public good/services because of the lack of inputs from the community/local needs (Krishnan, 2007; OECD,

2008a; Kolk, Van Tulder & Kostwinder, 2008) while the partnership between the private sector and NGOs are closely related to the private sector's core objectives, since the private sector has more control and more power in the partnership (Krishnan, 2007; Arnta & Volkert, 2009; Harangozo & Zilahy, 2015). Therefore, tri-sector partnerships tend to involve all of the three actors together so that all sides can benefit from these partnerships.

Also, in a review of the literature on tri-sector partnerships from 1998 to 2007, Kooiman (2007) concluded that partnerships are seen as instruments to overcome at least three forms of failure which are related to the consequences of actions undertaken either by government, private sector, or NGOs. The first failure is called "governance failure" and means that the government has limited ability to address the development problem (Kooiman, 2007, p.878). It usually happens when the donors have influence over recipient governments through aid. The second failure is called "market failure" (ibid.). It is about the business responsibilities toward environmental and social wellbeing, generally associated with Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). The final failure is called "good intention" and this refers to the power play between donors and non-profit organisations, which means that NGOs' efficiency in implementing their ideas is restricted by the funding that they get from donors (Kooiman, 2007, p.879).

2.4.3. Different Types of Tri-sector Partnerships

The diversity of development players and the expansion of development resources beyond aid are reshaping global development (Horton et al., 2009). Aid is still important for developing countries, but is a limited resource. Therefore, now there is a growing agreement that to improve social and environmental issues, partnerships should involve constructive inputs from each of three main groups of participants—industry, government and civil society (Clarke & Fuller, 2010). Those partnerships pull together complementary resources to promote sustainable development through constructive, practical and mutual activities (Davy, 2001). Generally, the three partners in tri-sector partnerships include government authorities, the private sector which typically entails oil, gas and mining corporations and NGOs (Warner & Sullivan, 2004). Different ways of viewing partnerships may reflect the fact that different types of collaborative relationships exist for different purposes. Bezanson (2004) has proposed five different types of partnerships based on the nature and intensity of the relationship while Warner and

Sullivan (2004) divided the process of tri-sector partnerships into three phases (shown in Table 2).

Table 2: Different Types of Partnerships by Bezanson (2004) and Warner Sullivan (2004)

Bezanson (2004)
<i>Consultative partnership:</i> This type of partnership exists in the institution that wants to establish new relations with other organisation. It is usually for sharing information through regular dialogues with the organisations. At this level, the key requirement for this partnership is openness and participation.
<i>Coordinative partnership:</i> At this point, the involved organisations might have separate initiatives which do not have to support each other, but they have to avoid the duplication of activities. They might have regular meetings and they might work to complement each other's activities.
<i>Complementary partnerships:</i> From this level, mutual trust is established. At first, the involved parties might have separate initiatives, but they will work together under the common program framework to support each other.
<i>Collaborative partnership:</i> At this level, the involved organisations agree to work together by sharing common goals/objectives/plans. Then mechanisms will be in placed to deliver the services/goods to the target groups.
<i>Critical partnership:</i> This may be the closest form of partnership where involved organisations are considered as important partners to achieve the common goals/objectives/plans. This type of partnership involves organisations work together on a long-term arrangement. Partnering seems to be built on core complementary competencies which involve resource commitments (funds/financial resources, technical equipment, and knowledge/experiences) made by each party. Resources from the company, civil society organisation or government authority should each add something new rather than duplicate the resources of others.
Warner and Sullivan (2004)

<p><i>Partnership exploration:</i> This is the very beginning of the partnership where the organisations conduct the internal assessment before the organisations decide to enter into the partnerships with other actors. Warner and Sullivan (2004) even list down some criteria to be considered as internal assessment.</p>
<p><i>Partnership Building:</i> At this stage, all of the actors share the common goals/objectives and some level of trust created through agreement and communication. Resource (human, capital, and knowledge/experiences) commitment is a key for successful partnership building.</p>
<p><i>Partnership maintenance:</i> To maintain the partnerships, the involved organisations need to have regular communication, so a well-structured mechanism should be in place. Therefore, all of the involved parties can make decision and solve the problems together.</p>

Source: (Bezanson, 2004, p. 37-38; Warner & Sullivan, 2004, p.2)

Table 2 shows some similarities between the types of partnerships. Both theories of partnerships by Bezanson (2004) and Warner and Sullivan (2004) suggest range formless formal partnerships to more formal partnerships where the level of trust and structure of the partnerships increases. Bezanson (2004) started the level of partnership with the *Consultative Partnership* where the collaboration is only for information sharing to *Critical Partnership* where the collaboration involves long term goals and built on the strength of each other. On the other hand, Warner and Sullivan (2004) started from *Partnership Exploration* where the involved parties identify their strengths and weaknesses before starting the collaboration to *Partnership Maintenance* where the involved parties have clear structures and mechanisms within the collaboration. However, both theories of partnerships start with shared common goals/objectives and divide the roles and responsibility so that they know what to expect from each other. It seems that resource commitment from the involved organisation is the key to effective partnerships because they focus on what they can offer and what they can take from these partnerships.

Also, Grant (2013) stated that clear and shared goals which are agreed by both of the parties is one of the 4 elements to enable partnerships to be successful in today's environment and another element is to share risks and rewards in proportion to the role each partner holds. The third one is defined time which means regular reviews of how

well the partnership is working for the partners. This must be conducted and decisions made on the basis of those results. Finally, the partnership should have a written agreement outlining the three elements mentioned earlier because people change their job or sometimes the structure of the organisation is changed, so written agreement will remain as reference of the partnership. The written agreement is very important for the partnership in both theories by Bezanson (2004) and Warner and Sullivan (2004) because it suggests that the partnerships is in the formal stage with clear structure, roles, and responsibilities.

2.4.4. Risks and Benefits of Partnerships

A few studies point out the risks and the benefits that may arise from partnerships between government, NGOs, and the business sector. Jimena (2007) argues that a major challenge in sustainable development is to provide positive benefits for every stakeholder, so the inputs from each of the three main groups of participants is very crucial for a successful strategy that can benefit all actors involved. She examined tri-sector partnerships of the mining sector and found that these partnerships offer a number of valuable benefits to improve the long-term political sustainability of social investment. Those partnerships helped to define local priorities for social investment, assign roles and responsibilities, establish accountabilities, and solve conflicts (Jimena, 2007). In other words, tri-sector partnerships can help build trust and confidence among industry, government and NGOs by dividing roles and responsibilities among the partners and defining expectations from each party.

However, Yakovleva and Alabaster (2003) also examined tri-sector partnerships in the mining sector (diamond) in the province of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia), in the Russian Federation for environmental improvement and socio-economic development, and found quite different outcomes. Partnerships existed between the three actors but they can hardly be defined as tri-sector partnerships since the government clearly dominated both the private sector and NGOs. Key stakeholders in the decision-making process related to the program included representatives from the three actors, but the decision-making process was led primarily by the Government of the Republic of Sakha. Also, the diamond mining corporation was still not significantly involved in the decision-making process in relation to programme planning, budget distribution and the implementation

of programmes. In this case the relationship was more one of bilateral partnerships between the government and the NGO rather than an equal tri-sector partnership.

Davy (2000) summarised the potential benefits, costs and risks for four mining and oil partnerships, and she discussed some of the critical factors in building and maintaining effective tri-sector partnerships. All of the partnerships had a very clear aim for each project and this was important to their collaboration. Most of them were associated with health, education, and small business development of the local communities and having a clear project aim is a critical consideration in partnership design because it not only maximises the benefits but also minimises the risks to all sides. The form of the partnerships can help to define the local priorities for social investments and resolve conflicts because the tri-sector partnerships involved the NGOs that focused on the community interest. This is very similar to cases raised by Jimena (2007). The higher degree of partnerships is the better level of trust and complementary interests get (Davy, 2000), which is very similar to theories by Bezanson (2004) and Warner and Sullivan (2004). When the partnerships fail during the implementation of the projects, it is very likely that the corporate sector is the one that suffers the most because of the reputation damage and lost creditability to potential partners (Davy, 2000).

2.5. Education For All (EFA) and Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET)

As mentioned above, partnerships in the context of development are also seen as a method to alleviate poverty (Glasbergen et al., 2007). For years, undoubtedly, as compared to general education, vocational education and training has had a closer and more direct link with economic and professional development. Organisations and enterprises are required to respond in a strategic manner to the changes in order to benefit from economic growth. It would be interesting to see how the focus shifts from general education to TVET.

Education has been one of the principle activities for The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) since its establishment in 1946 with the aim to contribute to the building of peace, poverty eradication, lasting development and intercultural dialogue (Hollander & Mar, 2009). The original target of UNESCO was to provide universal primary education (Hollander & Mar, 2009), and many efforts have been made to achieve this target. In 1990, for example, UNESCO launched an

international movement called Education For All (EFA) and 155 countries joined together to draft a Declaration in support of the movement (Siriwardene & Qureshi, 2009). At that time, EFA expanded its focus from only primary education to basic education (comprising primary education and lower secondary education) to match massive population growth (Hollander & Mar, 2009). Unfortunately, EFA remained unachieved by 2000, so 155 countries met again in 2000 to make a commitment on EFA to be achieved by 2015 (Hollander & Mar, 2009). In the same year (2000), the United Nations Millennium Summit declared the eight MDGs to be achieved in 2015 and one of the goals has been to achieve universal primary education (Siriwardene & Qureshi, 2009).

There are six goals to achieving EFA and one of the goals is access to learning and life-skills programmes for youth and adults (TVET)⁷ (UNESCO, 2008). School systems in many countries in the world have two paths. One is general education which enables pupils who gain access to continue in their schooling to higher levels, and another one is vocational education for those who opt to focus on immediate employment or those who have limited access to educational opportunities.

Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) was regarded as a core component of the national development strategy in the international community prior to the 1980s (Borgen & Hiebert, 2002); however, a focus on the primary school sector began to push vocational training promotion into the background. The United Nations Millennium Development Goal 2, which focuses on achieving universal primary education, has also decreased attention on TVET. With the international money clearly prioritised towards free primary education for both boys and girls, it is obvious that governments of the recipient countries feel pressured to prioritize primary education in a general education track. Bennell (1999) found that vocational education and training (VET) was largely absent in most government and donor poverty reduction strategies in developing

⁷ There are many names for TVET such as apprenticeship training, vocational education, technical education, technical-vocational education (TVE), occupational education (OE), vocational education and training (VET), career and technical education (CTE), workforce education (WE), workplace education (WE) but the most popular ones are TVET and VET which have been used frequently by two big organisations (UNESCO and International Labour Organisation-ILO) (UNESCO, 2008).

countries. Perhaps, another reason for TVET education to be neglected is that it is portrayed as being inferior to general education and its purpose is to solve unemployment problems among the youth (Oketch 2007). Students' attitude to this type of education is that it is inferior to academic education (Lamb, 2011). This false public image of TVET can prevent many people from enrolling in programs of TVET (DFID, 2007).

However, UNESCO stated their emphasis on EFA and decided to include technical and vocational education as part of the EFA initiative in 2000 while the ILO focused on aspects of training for employment at the workplace by highlighting the concept of decent work and the welfare of workers (Hollander & Mar, 2009). Even within the United Nations system, the division of roles regarding TVET reflects the fragmentation or the duplication of the organisation because it is not about UNESCO focuses on vocational education and ILO focuses on vocational training, it is about how to make the best use of TVET.

International donors and technical agencies argue that formal skills development needs to be reinvigorated in developing countries, in order to promote both economic growth and the integration of young people into labour markets (World Bank, 2011). There are two reasons for this recent shift towards TVET (UNESCO, 2008). First, there is the huge increase in unemployment for youth and young adults as a result of the 2008 global financial crisis, so in order to help those people, governments of developing countries saw TVET as a way to solve this problem because TVET plays a vital role in human resource development of the country since it focuses on creating self-employed workers rather than job-seekers, so as a result unemployment in developing countries can be reduced. Secondly, experience in the education sector of international development cooperation has shown that the strong focus on primary education was too narrowly conceived (UNESCO, 2008). As a consequence of this, many developing countries, especially the countries that heavily depend on aid from development partners are facing problems in secondary education because of the neglect of government. As more people achieve basic education, they then need to achieve employment skills beyond basic literacy to be able to work and live in their communities, as well as to adapt to ongoing changes (UNESCO, 2004). TVET is increasingly recognised as key to a nation's success in the global economy (UNESCO, 2008). Many developing countries are developing

TVET plans but they still have limited resources. The challenge is to develop new affordable TVET solutions to achieve desired outcomes (UNESCO, 2008).

2.5.1. Partnerships in TVET

TVET may be delivered by a range of organisations, including government, for-profit institutions and non-profit organisations. Therefore, identifying the different types of partnerships in TVET not only benefits three actors but also the community as a whole.

2.5.2. Public Private Partnerships in TVET

In a paper by Alam (2008) on the role of the private sector⁸ in the TVET sector in Bangladesh, the author pointed out that the involvement of the private sector in delivering the training (TVET) for young people in Bangladesh can enhance the training from the public sector through the partnership with the private sector so that each actor can work compatibility with each other base on each other's strength. Similarly, Honorati (2015) stated that the program was a success in helping the youth access paid jobs by increasing employment among participants by 15 percent when there was close collaboration between public and private sector. Abdullah (2013) also emphasises the cooperation between the two parties in TVET for effective partnership. Both parties have to cooperate with one another and they have to share the successes and the challenges that happen during the collaboration (Abdullah, 2013). Also, for the institution, internship can strengthen links with industry and enable a better understanding of what business and industry expect from students, while for industry internships can be an avenue for producing qualified candidates for that industry (Johnston, 2008). Akomaning et al (2011) identified four conditions which can contribute to the benefits getting from the internships of the students in TVET. Those four conditions are: collaboration between the public school and the private sector (hospitality industry), placement procedure, duration and time of the internship, and assessment procedures. The findings of the research were based on the perceptions of the stakeholders within the TVET sector in Ghana (Akomaning et al., 2011), and the findings pointed out that among the four conditions, collaboration played the most crucial role in the internship program. Within the PPP in

⁸ Private sector in the paper of Alam (2008) referred to for profit organisations and non-profit organisations which are involved in training delivery in TVET sector.

TVET, internship is considered as a form of close collaboration which can strengthen the link between the private sector and the institution.

2.5.3. Challenges of PPP in TVET

Public Private Partnership has been considered as a tool in providing both training and funding for many years in many countries; however, in developing countries, the governments find it hard to take full advantage of the PPP (Siriwardene & Qureshi, 2009). One of the problems of TVET in Ghana, for example, is mismatch between the demand of the market and the supply skills from the TVET providers (Amedorme & Fiagbe, 2013). Similarly, private companies in Sri Lanka complained more often about the mismatch between the skills produced by the TVET providers and the skills employers demand. Since the private sector is not fully integrated into the planning which leads to the poor quality in designing the training curriculum (Maurer, 2012). Maybe, the business partners are considered to have a limited view on skills development since most of their focus is on the short-term or stakeholder value (Raddon & Sung, 2006). Also, Alam (2008) pointed out the challenges for the TVET sector in Bangladesh related to the poor coordination between the various ministries and private providers because of no common standard and curricula since the public TVET providers in Bangladesh are under the control of 19 ministries.

2.5.4. Tri-Sector Partnerships in TVET

The partnerships between those three actors play a vital role in raising the productive capacity of the poor, the youth and the vulnerable of society through the acquisition of job-specific competencies. However, many literatures failed to identify the concepts of tri-sector partnerships in TVET. Partnerships within TVET can be complex and problematic as it is dependent on the expertise of skilled TVET and reconciling the positioning and power relationships between the many groups of stakeholders with different priorities and competing agendas. Therefore, exploration of these structures to partnerships for TVET is needed, which might assist in balancing the power within the partnerships and all the parties can benefit from this collaboration.

2.6. Chapter Summary

This literature review has discussed many previous and recent studies on the forms of partnerships, from partnerships between the development partners and recipient

countries, PPP, to the tri-sector partnerships. The various names, definitions, and forms are used to describe partnerships. At the global level, there are several studies on tri-sector partnerships in oil, mining, and extractive industries; however, there is a lack of literature in the education sector, especially TVET. Most of the literatures in TVET on partnerships focus on the private sector as TVET training providers with the partnerships with public sector to produce a quality workforce. Therefore, my research will focus on tri-sector partnerships in the TVET sector which NGOs play a role in as the TVET training providers, and from the NGOs' perspectives, what can be done to make these current partnerships more effective.

Chapter 3: Cambodia's Context

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter described different forms of partnerships for development, involving different actors. This chapter concerns relevant partnerships in Cambodia's context and how they have evolved in the national development plans. It also explores the working mechanisms of different partnerships. This chapter is divided into 3 sections. The first section briefly gives a description of Cambodia ranging from geography to its national development plan. The second part concerns development partnerships and the final part briefly presents the education system and the partnerships in TVET sector.

3.2. Cambodia's Geography

Cambodia is located in the southern part of South East Asia. It has a total land area of 181,035 square kilometres (MoP, 2014). It shares borders with Thailand, Vietnam and Lao PDR (MoP, 2014). Phnom Penh is the capital city of Cambodia with a population of 1.3 million and a population growth rate of around 2.82 per year, which makes the city's population growth faster than that of the rest of the country (NIS, 2008). The increase in urban population is mainly due to the migration of the rural population to urban areas, especially young people in a hope of finding jobs (NIS, 2008).

Figure 1: Cambodia's Geography



Source: Retrieved from <http://www.5starcambodia.com/Maps-of-Cambodia.htm> on 25th February, 2016

According to the National Census in 2008 which was done by the National Institute of Statistics, Cambodia has 24 provinces, 1,621 communes and 14,073 villages. The population had increased by 2 million from 11.4 million in 1998 to 13.4 million in 2008 (NIS, 2008). A total of 32.2 percent of the population is under the age of 15 years (NIS, 2008). There are 4.9 million females between the ages of 15 and 65 and 4.5 million males in the same age range (NIS, 2008).

The average economic growth achieved in recent years is 5.6% during 2009-2012 (MoP, 2014). If the growth for 2008-2009 (global financial crisis) is excluded, economic growth has averaged 7%, with contributions from an increased labour force in agriculture, the garment industry, construction, and tourism (MoP, 2014). If that growth rate could be maintained, Cambodia would reach lower middle income status in the next 5–10 years (MoP, 2014). By 2030, Cambodia aims to join the group of countries identified as upper-middle income countries and by 2050 to become a developed country based on GDP per capita (MoP, 2014). However, Cambodia is currently classified as a least-developed country by the United Nations and its GDP per capita exceeded USD 1,000 for the first time only in 2012 (MoP, 2014).

3.3. Cambodia's Development Plans

During the 1990s the Royal Government of Cambodia (RGC) and its development partners were mainly engaged in rebuilding the country after a devastating two-decade civil war (MoP, 2005). The national plans have, therefore, evolved many times in response to changing conditions. After the 1970s, the Government assigned the Ministry of Planning to prepare the first (1986-1990) and second (1991-1995) five year Socio-Economic Rehabilitation and Development Programs under a top-down centralised planning framework (MoP, 2005). Partnerships between the private sector and the government were signaled in the Socio-Economic Rehabilitation and Development Program (1991-1995) in which the government defined itself as a partner for the private sector, and which declared private sector development to be one of the major objectives of the program (MoP, 2005). In 1993, there was a new administration after the first national general elections (MoP, 2001). After that the financial and technical assistance from donor countries has been indispensable for the drafting of major development plans in Cambodia (MoP, 2005).

3.3.1. Socio-Economic Development Plan I (SEDP-I) 1996-2000

In 1996, the first five-year national development plan, known as the Socio-Economic Development Plan (SEDP-I) 1996-2000, was formulated with support from the Asian Development Bank (MoP, 1996). Donors demanded primarily to promote order and stability in Cambodia so that the flow of capital and the freedom of the market would be integrated into the national development plan because most parts of the plan (SEDP I) were drafted by consultants from the Asian Development Bank (Springer, 2010). However, during implementation of SEDP-I, the free market idea was not fully imposed because of political instability in 1997 (a clash between two governing parties) and then the World Bank announced a temporary suspension of aid to Cambodia in reply to the coup and resultant violence (Springer, 2010).

During the implementation of SEDP -I, the policy priority for education was to ensure equitable access and quality improvement for nine years of basic education (MoP, 1996). According to MoP (1996), higher education, and technical and vocational education and training were not the object of specific output targets within the framework of the SEDP-I (1996-2000).

In terms of cooperation with the private sector, a high level forum with the private sector was set up on 2nd December 1999 as a mechanism to facilitate discussion on issues concerning the private sector ranging from long range policy to day-to-day operations (MoP, 2014). This high level forum was called Government-Private Sector Forum (G-PSF) (MoP, 2014). This forum is still held once a year, and it is a very useful tool for improving the business environment in Cambodia because this forum is the only formal mechanism for the private sector to raise business-related problems with the government and to seek solutions to them (MoP, 2014). Currently, the sub-decree issued by the government covers only the government's mandate and operational procedures on how to participate in the G-PSF, but does not cover the roles and responsibilities of the private sector (RGC, 2014).

3.3.2. Socio-Economic Development Plan II (SEDP II) 2001-2005

As SEDP-I was nearing its end; the second SEDP (2001-2005) was prepared. As the Ministry of Planning was making preparations for the drafting of the SEDP II, the Asian Development Bank and other major donors that supported the drafting process suggested

that there should be an inter-relationship between the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper and the SEDP II (Springer, 2010). There were eight policy foci in SEDP II and investment was still one of the policy priorities; however, there was another priority that focused on consolidation of partnerships with the donor community and civil society (MoP, 2001). The support from civil society was officially acknowledged by the Cambodian government in SEDP II as one of government's partners in development (MoP, 2001).

3.3.3. National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010

However, during the implementation of SEDP II, three major development events took place (MoP, 2005). First was the introduction of the MDGs in 2000 by the members of the United Nations with targets for developing countries to achieve by the end of 2015 (MoP, 2005). The second event was the establishment of a new government after the general election in July 2003 (MoP, 2005). The new Prime Minister introduced the Rectangular Strategy⁹ as the political and socio-economic platform of the RGC for the next five years (MoP, 2005). The third event was the negotiation of a National Poverty Reduction Strategy (NPRS) with the purpose of reducing poverty and inequality (MoP, 2005). This strategy was first introduced in Cambodia in May 2000 with the support of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (MoP, 2005). NPRS received approval in 2002 and was initially implemented in 2003 for a period of 3 years (2003-2005) (MoP, 2005). The National Poverty Reduction Strategy was a very detailed document which described steps to be taken to reduce poverty, including poverty diagnosis, targets, indicators and a monitoring system (Rosin, 2005). As a result, the next five year plan was formulated and renamed the National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2006-2010 which operationalised the Rectangular Strategy to reduce poverty and make progress towards achieving the Cambodian Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs) targets by 2015 (MoP, 2005).

During the implementation of NSDP 2006-2010, the Education Strategic Plan focused mainly on primary and secondary education in order to respond to the country's MDGs and Education for All (MoEYS, 2014). In 2005, the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training (MoLVT) was officially set up with a mandate to regulate formal and non-formal TVET (NTB, 2008). However, the MoLVT has not attempted to take over all TVET

⁹ Rectangular Strategy is a socio economic policy agenda of the political platform of the Royal Government of Cambodia of the national assembly (MoP, 2005).

institutes run by different ministries (NTB, 2008). A first National TVET Development Plan was approved by the National Training Board in February 2006 (NTB, 2008).

3.3.4. National Strategic Development Plan 2009-2013

The NSDP (2006-2010) came officially to an end in 2008 and was replaced by the NSDP Update (2009-2013) (MoP, 2010). The two important reasons for the early renewal of NSDP were: to synchronize the time period covered by NSDP 2009-2013 with term of the Fourth Legislature of the Royal Government (Rectangular Strategy II); and the impact of the global economic downturn (MoP, 2010). This plan entails allocating funds to prioritise four pillars: improvements to productivity and diversification of agriculture; private sector development and employment generation; further rehabilitation and construction of physical infrastructure; and capacity building and human resource development (MoP, 2010). TVET and skills development more generally are important in all four pillars because TVET provides the necessary skills for the labour force (MoP, 2010).

3.3.5. Cambodia's National Budget for NSDP 2009-2013

Although Cambodia's economic growth is much better, the national budget alone is not enough to implement the development plan of a country. Cambodia still needed external flow such as from Official Development Assistance (ODA) in addition to FDI in order to implement its NSDP 2009-2013 to maintain the economic development sustainability, as shown in Table 3 (MoP, 2010). The ODA has been a major source of financing of development projects/programs through the public investment of the Royal Government of Cambodia, and ODA has contributed to the implementation of major public development projects in Cambodia (MoP, 2010).

Table 3: National Budget for the National Strategic Development Plan 2009-2013

	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	USD million	% GDP	USD million	% GDP	USD million	% GDP	USD million	% GDP	USD million	% GDP
Public Investment	672.8	6.5	780.3	6.8	1,041.2	8.2	1,046.8	7.3	1,150.6	7.3
Gov't budget	258.2	2.5	280.3	2.5	391.2	3.1	331.8	2.3	364.1	2.3
ODA	414.6	4.0	500.0	4.4	650	5.1	715	5.0	786.5	5.0
Private Investment	1,706.7	16.5	1,955.3	17.1	2,092.1	16.5	2,385.0	16.7	2,697.4	17.0
Domestic	1,192.0	11.5	1,356.0	11.9	1,461.4	11.5	1,621.9	11.3	1,829.1	11.6
FDI	514.7	5.0	599.3	5.2	630.7	5.0	763.1	5.3	868.3	5.5
Total Capital Investment	2,379.5	23.0	2,735.6	23.9	3,133.3	24.7	3,431.8	24.0	3,848.0	24.3

Source: MoP, 2009, p. 185

3.4. Partnerships in Development in Cambodia

There are three basic stakeholder groups who partner with the Cambodian government for development (MoP, 2010). The first one is the private sector business and investor community, the second is external development partners, and the third is civil society. However, only two working mechanisms of these stakeholder groups (development partners and private sector) are clearly stated in the development plan of the government (MoP, 2010).

3.4.1. Partnerships between Development Partners and Cambodia's Government

The existing partnership between the government and its development partners was established at the time of the first development program, set up in 1986 after a devastating two-decade-long civil war (MoP, 2005). Most of the development programs since then have been concerned with rebuilding the country, including improving governance, health, nutrition, education, land access (mine clearance), the development of physical infrastructure, gender inequality and environmental protection (MoP, 2005). Only since the NSDP (2006-2010), have policy framework (Strategic Framework for Development

Cooperation Management¹⁰) and dialogue mechanisms (aid coordination mechanism) been established to guide and facilitate resource (ODA) allocation and monitoring (RGC, 2014). Development partners and the mechanism to facilitate the development partnerships have been one of the necessary elements for country development.

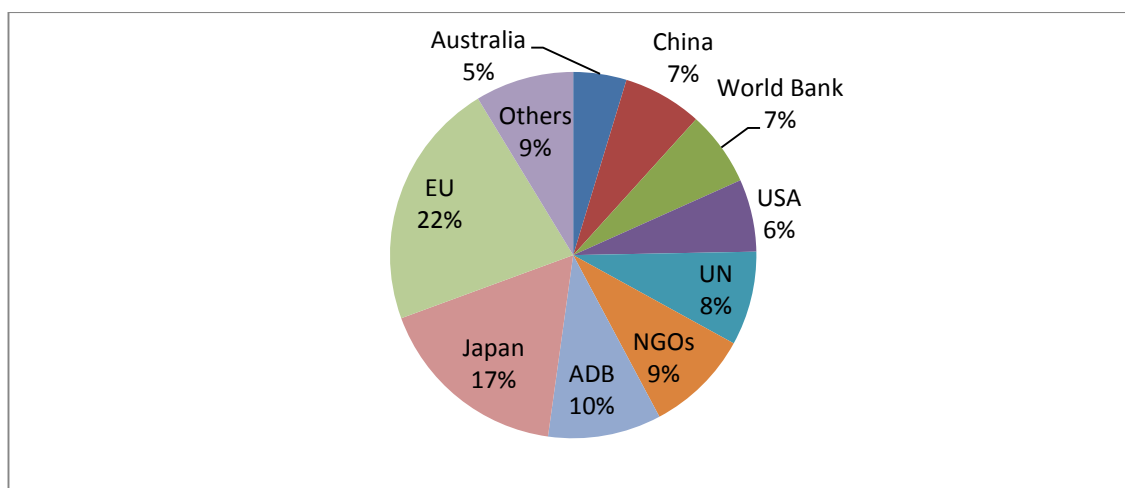
3.4.1.1. Major Development Partners in Cambodia

The strong economic growth and improvement of social development is probably associated with aid dependence because aid remains a vital source of revenue for Cambodia (MoP, 2005); therefore, it would be interesting to identify the major development partners in Cambodia. Over the period 1992-2011, a total of USD 12.13 billion was disbursed to Cambodia by development partners, as reported through the Cambodia ODA Database (CDC, 2011) shown in Figure 2. From Figure 2, major development partners are:

- European Union countries and EU Commission: USD 2.65 billion (22% of total ODA received)
- Japan: USD 2.1 billion
- ADB: USD 1.2 billion , USD 1 billion from the UN, USD 0.8 billion from the World Bank
- NGOs own resources: USD 1.1 billion (charity, church, and other sources that are not from development partners) USD 0.86 billion from China (which has been disbursed since 2004)

¹⁰ Strategic Framework for Development Cooperation Management is a policy document for the Royal Government of Cambodia to improve the aid effectiveness by emphasizing on the roles and responsibilities of line ministries and agencies for external resources mobilization and aid coordination (CRDB/CDC, 2006a).

Figure 2: Total ODA Received from 1992 to 2011 Amounting to USD 12.13 Billion



Source: CDC, 2011, p. 15

The trend of the ODA by the development partners in Cambodia is affected by the external environment, such as the global financial crisis and the European economic crisis. As shown in Table 4 the total ODA from development partners has been continuously increasing since 2005 from 610 USD millions to 1,235.3 USD millions in 2011 (CDC, 2011). However, there were slight decreases in funding from the European Union and NGOs in 2010 and 2011 respectively. Because of the economic crises in Europe in late 2009 and the global financial crisis in 2008, the ODA for Cambodia began to decline as part of the donor community's austerity measures (Suarez and Hwang, 2012). It should be noted that NGOs are also affected by these crises since one of the major sources of their funding is from development aid donors.

Table 4: ODA from Development Partners (2005-2012) USD Million

Development Partner	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
United Nations	187.5	251.2	197.1	299.2	299.7	288.8	400	371
European Union	130.6	156.1	153.2	191	200.7	196.3	192.5	180.3
Bilateral Partners	247.2	255.7	349.4	377.6	391.3	462.1	525.8	512.2

NGOs (core funds)	44.7	50.2	77.7	110.8	108.5	127.5	117	77.4
Total	610	713.2	777.4	978.6	1,00.2	1,073.9	1,235.3	1,140.4

Noted:

- *Bilateral partners* include Australia, Canada, China, Japan, New Zealand, Republic of Korean, Switzerland, and USA.
- *NGOs core fund* means the funds that NGOs get from church, charity and other funds that is not from development partners.
- *European Union* includes Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Netherlands, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom, and European Commission.

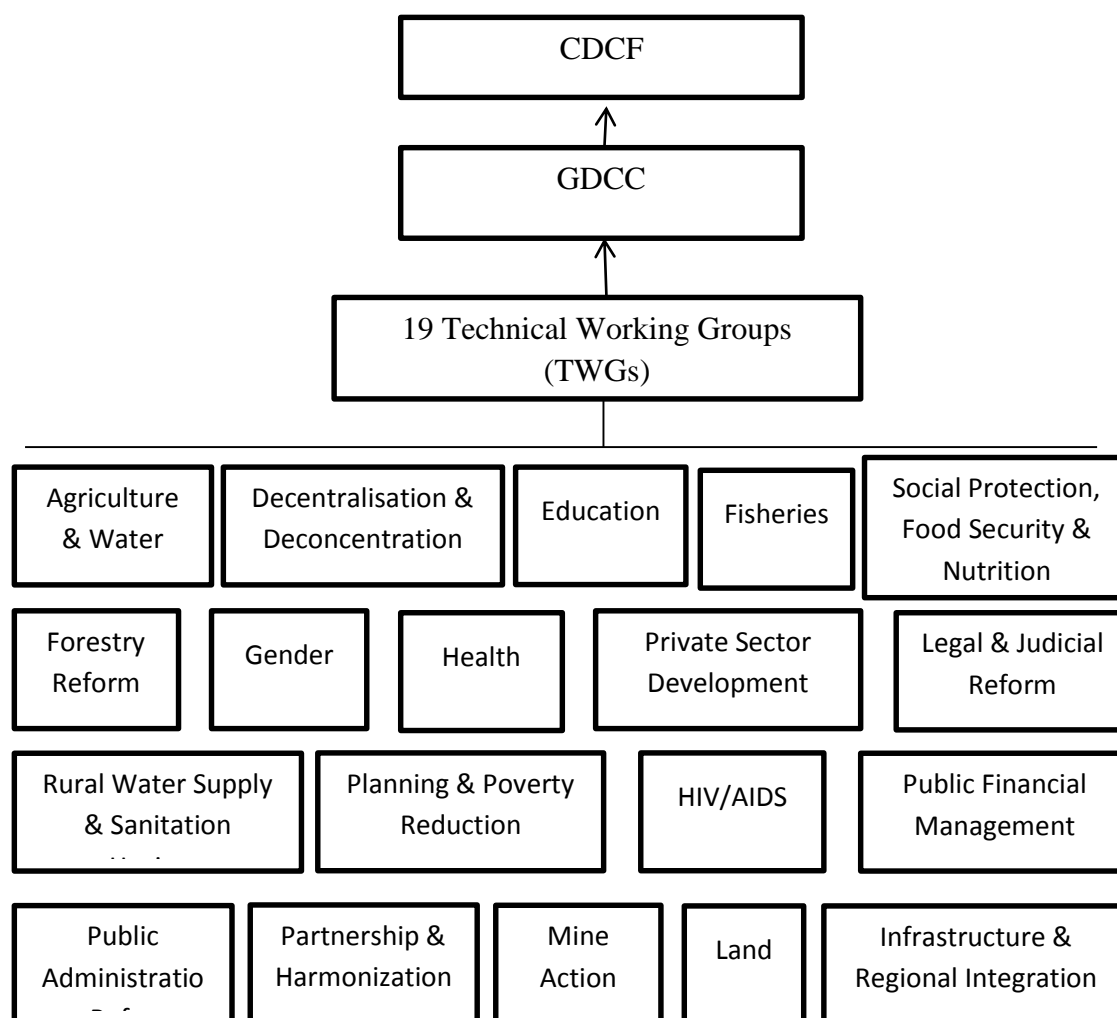
Source: CDC, 2011, p. 15

3.4.1.2.Mechanisms of Aid Coordination in Cambodia

Aid coordination is one of the two working mechanisms which are recorded in Cambodia's development plans (MoP, 2009). For the partnerships between the development partners and Cambodia's government, in 2007, the Cambodian government set up the Cambodia Development Cooperation Forum (CDCF), which was led by government (MoP, 2014). The composition of this forum is mainly representatives from government and donors and only three civil society representatives (CCC, NGO Forum and MEDiCAM) (MoP, 2014). The CDCF provides a forum for the Royal Government, development cooperation partners, and civil society to dialogue on public policy issues as well as the associated financing framework for medium term development and it endorses the Joint Monitoring Indicators¹¹ (CRDB/CDC, 2006b). The forum is held every 18 months, so there have only been three meetings to date (CRDB/CDC, 2006b). See Figure 3 for the structure of this forum.

¹¹ Joint Monitoring Indicators (JMIs) are developed from the results frameworks established by Royal Government of Cambodia Ministries/Agencies in the context of sector strategies and policies. JMIs are also used to guide activities that promote development results and mutual accountability (CRDB/CDC, 2012).

Figure 3: Cambodia Development Cooperation Forum (CDCF)



Source: CRDB/CDC, 2014

According to the Development Cooperation and Partnerships Strategy 2014-2018, there are three levels of aid coordination in Cambodia.

- The Cambodia Development Cooperation Forum (CDCF) is the highest level among the three levels (CRDB/CDC, 2006b). It is used for political dialogue and review of the National Strategic Development Plan (from NSDP 2006 to NSDP 2014) implementation. The CDCF served as a forum to discuss the resourcing of

the NSDP (CRDB/CDC, 2014). The CDCF is also a forum to address the issues that cannot be solved at GDCC level (the second level among the three levels) and present the Multi-Year Indicative Financing Framework¹² which is provided by development partners (CRDB/CDC, 2006b).

- The Government-Development Partner Coordination Committee (GDCC) is the second level among the three levels (CRDB/CDC, 2006a). It is chaired by Cambodia's government and the participants of the GDCC are Ministers, secretaries of state, high-level government officials, ambassadors/heads of mission, development partners and civil society representatives (CRDB/CDC, 2014). According to CRDB/CDC (2014), GDCC is served as a forum to discuss cross-sectoral issues and other matters that cannot be resolved at Technical Working Group level, which is the third level of the aid coordination.
- There are nineteen Technical Workings Groups (TWGs) as shown in Figure 3. TWGs are the basis to facilitate dialogue on a wide range of sector issues, mainly at technical level and focusing on resourcing, implementation and monitoring (CRDB/CDC, 2014). The members of the each TWG include government officials, development partners, and NGOs (CRDB/CDC, 2006a).

The mechanisms of aid coordination between the development partners and Cambodia's government have a clear and organised structure through which each actor is aware of each partner's roles and responsibilities within different levels of the working mechanism. These formal partnerships also show the high level of trust and structure which would benefit partners.

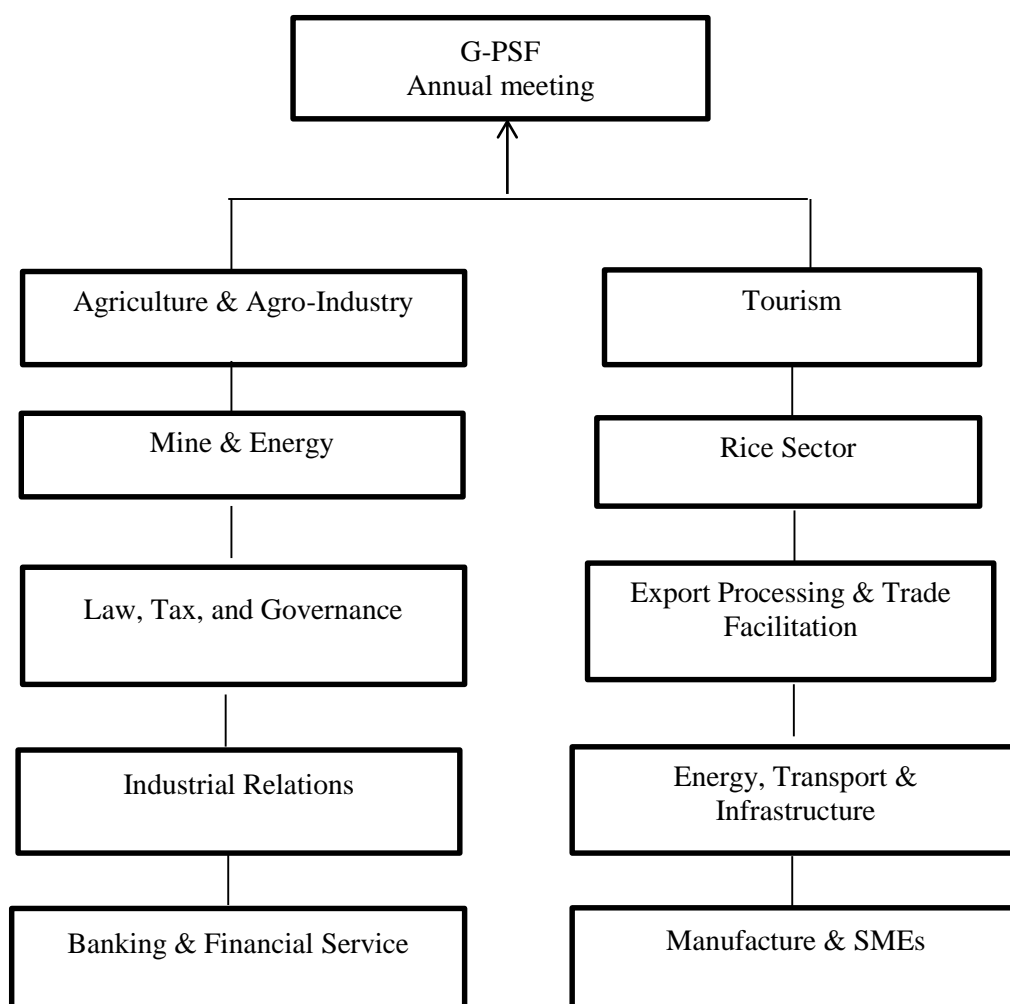
3.4.2. Partnerships between the Private Sector and Cambodia's Government

Apart from aid coordination mechanisms, partnerships with the private sector have also had significant effect on the development of Cambodia. As stated in NSDP 2006-2010 (MoP, 2005), promotion of the private sector has been seen as the main engine of economic growth, so a high level Government/Private Sector Forum was established in December 1999, supported by seven Business–Government Sectoral Working Groups to

¹² Multi-Year Indicative Financing Framework is medium-term financing that is provided development partners to support Cambodia's government development plan (CRDB/CDC, 2014).

help implement the NSDP 2006-2010. Today, there are 10 Business-Government Sectoral Working Groups as shown in figure 4 and the three new working groups are Rice Sector, Mine & Energy, and Industrial Relations.

Figure 4: Government-Private Sector Forum (G-PSF)



Source: RGC, 2014

Mechanism of Partnerships between Private Sector and Cambodia's Government

Currently, the sub-decree issued by the government covers only the government's mandate and operational procedures on how to participate in the G-PSF, but does not cover the roles and responsibilities of the private sector, unlike the aid coordination mechanisms which have more clear structured (RGC, 2014). See Figure 4 for the structure of G-PSF forum. According to the Cambodia Industrial Development Policy 2015-2025 (RGC, 2014), G-PSF provides an effective consultative platform for the business community to raise issues and challenges as well as to provide policy recommendations

to the RGC. It is now comprised of 10 Business–Government Sectoral Working Groups (listed above) and each working group is co-chaired by a government minister and a representative of the private sector (RGC, 2014). As the RGC (2014) policy (Cambodia Industrial Development Policy 2015-2025) pointed out that the consultative process normally happens on 3 main stages:

- The private sector co-chair calls for a meeting only with the private sector to have the proposed agenda (which usually is made up of business challenges but could also include policy recommendations). This agenda would be submitted to the respectively Business–Government Sectoral Working Groups.
- After the proposed agenda is formulated, government-private sector meetings (called Business–Government Sectoral Working Group meetings) are held to discuss the agenda and to find solutions and if they cannot find the solutions at the working group stage, the issue will be raised again at the G-PSF.
- The Government-Private Sector Forum is held once annually (or more depending on circumstance). During the forum, co-chairs of the working groups report their progress and present any critical issues or policy recommendations to the government.

3.4.3. Partnerships between NGOs and Cambodia’s Government

The last aspect of partnership for development is partnership between NGOs and the government. The important contribution of NGOs in reconstruction and development of Cambodia in the past two decades is acknowledged by the Government of Cambodia as stated in the development plan (MoP, 2008). However, only in the latest development plan (NSDP 2014-2018) has the government set up formal consultation meetings with the NGOs (called Annual Consultation Meeting between the Government and NGOs) (MoP, 2014). The objective of this forum is to provide opportunity for NGOs to give feedback based on recent experiences in program delivery with a view to improving future impact through improved policy development (CRDB/CDC, 2014). The annual meeting was created after a severe flood in Cambodia in 2011 when a number of active NGOs provided immediate support to the victims (MoP, 2014). The annual meeting focuses on specific sectors to identify shared goals and appropriate action for government and NGOs (CRDB/CDC, 2014). During the meeting, NGOs raise their concerns to the government and then the government suggests solutions to those issues in order to improve service delivery of NGOs in line with national development goals (MoP, 2014). There is a

guideline for this annual consultation meeting issued by the government to outline the objectives, principles, and procedures of the meeting, and the roles and responsibilities of each actor (CRDB/CDC, 2014). This meeting is expected to be held for the first time in early 2016 (MoP, 2014).

3.4.4. Tri-Sector Partnerships in Cambodia

There is no formal forum for the three actors (government, private sector, NGOs) to discuss development issues. However, the government plans to transform four high level forums (Cambodia Development Cooperation Forum, Government-Private Sector Forum, Consultative Meeting between Government and NGOs, and Bilateral Consultation¹³) into one high-level forum called the Cambodia Development Forum (CDF) (CRDB/CDC, 2014). This CDF would be held every two years (CRDB/CDC, 2014). The first CDF will take the form of two back-to-back meetings, one on development cooperation followed by another on private sector development (MoP, 2014).

3.5. The Education System in Cambodia

There are four levels in the education system in Cambodia (MoEYS, 2014). The first one is pre-primary education or kindergarten which consists of three years. The second one is primary education and the third level is secondary school, which is divided into lower and upper secondary school. The last one is higher education which is categorised into three types. However, there is another pathway for students to choose after they complete the lower secondary education (UNESCO, 2013). They have the option of continuing to upper secondary education or of entering secondary-level vocational training programmes offered by the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training (MoLVT) (NTB, 2008). After completing upper secondary education, students can either enter TVET or, if they wish, they can choose to enter universities (which offer four-year bachelor's degree programmes, and PhD) (UNESCO, 2013).

¹³ Bilateral Consultation is a dialogue between the individual development partner and Cambodia's government (CRDB/CDC, 2014). It is usually held annually or once every two years, depending on the country strategy of individual development partner (CRDB/CDC, 2014).

Table 5: Education System in Cambodia

Age	General Education	TVET
from 24	PhD	PhD
22-24	Master's Degree	Master's Degree
18-21	Bachelor Degree	Bachelor Degree
		TVET associate degree (2 years)
17	Upper secondary (grade 12)	TVET certificate level III
16	Upper secondary (grade 11)	TVET certificate level II
15	Upper secondary (grade 10)	TVET certificate level I
12-14	Lower secondary (grade 7-9)	Vocational training certificate (non-formal)
6-11	Primary School (grade 1-6)	
3-5	Pre-primary school	

Source: UNESCO, 2013

3.6. The TVET System in Cambodia

According to UNESCO (2013, p. 30), “TVET system includes all forms of learning and development with a major technical or vocational component. This comprises formal technical or vocational education provision, whether in school, college, university, training or work settings, formal training programmes, less formal / more informal learning while working, and other forms of learning which may be self-directed or involve peer learning”. It covers four main levels (Madhur, 2014):

- Certificate: short courses (non-formal courses) last from a few weeks to less than a year. Normally, those courses focus on basic agriculture, construction, motor repair skills, craft, and basic food processing. They are mainly designed to address social problems and poverty reduction, and target groups in provinces, rural areas or in communities.
- Diploma: there are three diplomas in this level. Certificate I is a one-year programme for semi-skilled workers; Certificate II is a two-year programme for skilled workers; and Certificate III is a three-year programme for highly skilled

workers. Students who complete the three-year programmes are awarded a certificate equivalent to a high school diploma.

- Higher diploma level: (post-grade 12 entry) is two years of study in technical institutes and polytechnics. After a student finishes this associate degree, they will have a choice whether to continue their study to bachelor's degree for another two years, or to seek employment.
- Bachelor's degree and upper: this is a Bachelor of Engineering and Technology or a Bachelor of Business Administration, and postgraduate (master's and PhD) degree is also provided.

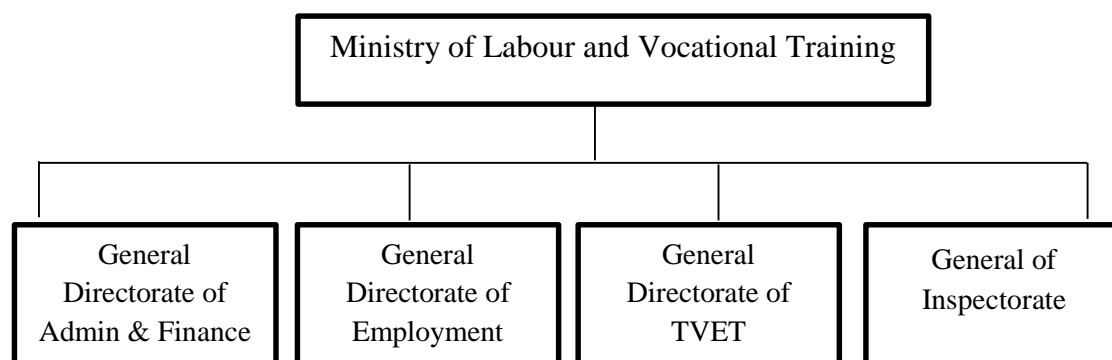
3.7. Education Providers of TVET

TVET programmes are delivered by a variety of providers ranging from public institutions such as the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MoEYS) and the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training (MoLVT) to NGOs, and private business providers (UNESCO, 2013).

3.7.1. Public Sector

For the public schools/programmes, the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training and the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport are the two main ministries that govern and develop policies on TVET and supervise TVET providers (Madhur, 2014). The first formal TVET department was established under the office of Technical and Vocational Training of the MoEYS in 2004 (MoEYS, 2014). In 2005, the responsibilities for TVET were transferred from MoEYS to the newly constituted MoLVT under a Directorate General of TVET (DGTNET) (NTB, 2008). See Figure 5 for MoLVT structure.

Figure 5: Structure of MoLVT



Source: <http://ntb.gov.kh/orgchart.htm>

MoLVT is organised around two major operational directorates: Employment and TVET plus a Directorate of Administration and Finance and an inspectorate (NTB, 2008). It has 24 provincial or municipal offices (NTB, 2008). Although responsibilities for the administration and development of TVET has been transferred to MoLVT, the Department of Vocational Orientation under MOEYS still provides technical vocational education for upper secondary schools despite the fact that the MoEYS's main task is to manage public education or compulsory education (Madhur, 2014). There appears to be some overlap in the training offered by MoEYS and MoLVT, and in their responsibilities (Madhur, 2014; UNESCO, 2013). Besides MoEYS, other ministries also operate TVET programmes such as Ministry of Women's Affairs, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Agriculture and others (Madhur, 2014). The responsibility of each ministry in terms of the provision of non-formal education remains poorly defined (Madhur, 2014; UNESCO, 2013). Therefore, discussions with MoEYS and MoLVT suggest that responsibilities are not yet clear concerning who should provide non-formal training to out-of-school youth, and who should supervise and coordinate it.

3.7.2. The Private Sector and NGOs

Vocational and technical courses are also offered by private schools and NGOs, and these vary in terms of content and level. This is partly because there is no criteria for setting up private schools (NTB, 2008). They are, therefore, easy to establish if there are enough funds to do so. According to the National TVET Development Plan 2008, there were:

- 38 institutes and centers serving 24 provinces and offering programs from basic skills training to advanced degrees under Directorate General of TVET. They train approximately 2,000 individuals each year, and have very limited budgets.
- 49 NGOs/associations delivering TVET training programmes
- 227 private TVET providers mostly running short training courses in skills areas on a cost recovery basis.

3.8. Why TVET is Important

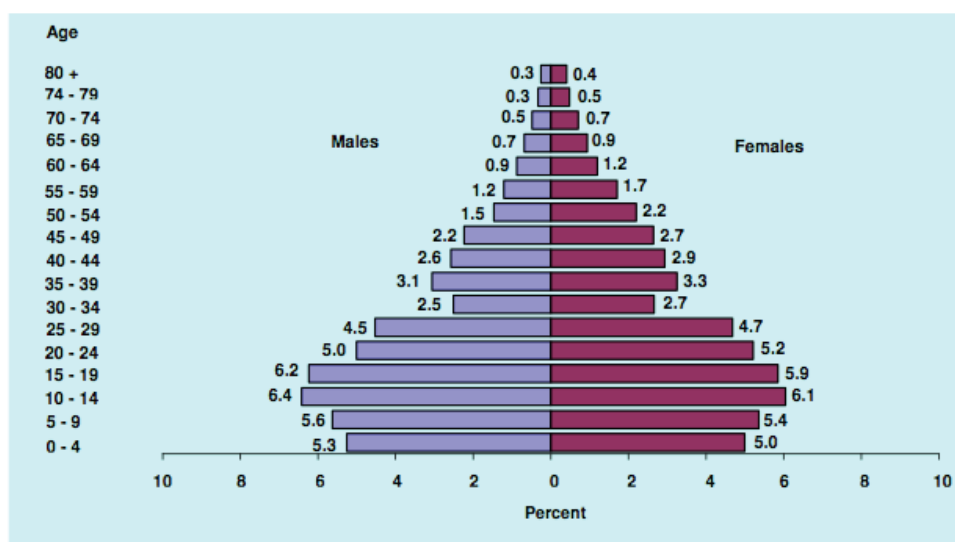
Cambodia's government believes that TVET is a tool for economic growth by providing suitable skilled labour according to the needs of industry (MoP, 2014). There are argued to be two major roles that the TVET system can play in Cambodia (NTB, 2008). The first role is that TVET can make a major contribution to poverty reduction by giving basic income earning skills because the graduates from TVET will be equipped with practical

skills (vehicle repair and maintenance, pipe bending, and gas welding) for employment or self-employment (NTB, 2008; UNESCO, 2013). TVET also provides a chance for youth who are economically and academically disadvantaged to gain stable wage employment as shown in Table 5 (UNESCO, 2013). The second role for TVET is to help combat youth unemployment and dropouts from basic education, as youth unemployment contributes to increasing rural poverty, urban migration and social instability (NTB, 2008). Moreover, unemployed youth can become burdens on their families as well as the whole society. Therefore, labour force and employment are very important elements for economic growth in Cambodia.

3.8.1. Labour Force in Cambodia

As shown in Figure 6, Cambodia is a young country which means 45.9% of the population is under the age of 19 (NIS, 2008). The increase in labour force can be either positive or negative for development. If the labour force is well-educated, it can attract foreign investments which will help to boost the country's economy. However, unskilled or poorly trained workers can lead to unemployment which can be a burden to a country (MoEYS, 2014). The age structure is shifting away from children towards young persons as shown in Figure 6. There is no doubt that the number of Cambodians entering into the economically active age range is peaking. It is vital to provide relevant training to new workers to avoid poor skills becoming an impediment to growth in the future.

Figure 6: Population Age Pyramid 2008



Source: National Institute of Statistics, Cambodia National Census 2008

3.8.2. Employment in Cambodia

About 200,000 new workers join the labour force every year, but the market can absorb only about 44 percent of new job seekers, so Cambodia's industries are not growing sufficiently to create jobs for the new workers (World Bank, 2009). However, a report by Kim (2010) pointed out that the majority of new workers are unskilled labour, and among the new workers, only about 30 percent completed primary school. Also, Kim (2010) explained that the unemployment issue in Cambodia is contradictory. On the supply side, it is reported that the job market is tight, but on the demand side, there is not enough workforce to meet demand, and on average, graduates with degrees spent at least nine months seeking employment. Therefore, low skill levels and lack of education mean that new workers are unable to participate effectively in the labour market.

Table 6: Average Earning by Education Level for Youth in 2007 (USD/Month)

Education Level	Salary per month (USD/Month)
Primary school	58.14
Lower Secondary School	61.35
Upper Secondary School	62.17
Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET)	95.02
College/University undergraduate	115.55
Bachelor Degree	141.74

Source: UNESCO, 2013, p. 20

Table 6 above shows that there is limited chance for secondary school leavers of getting well-paid jobs because the minimum salary in 2007 in Cambodia in the garment industry was USD 63 per month (UNESCO, 2013). Also, table 5 shows small differences in some areas (from primary level to upper secondary school) in average earnings by educational attainment level. However, from the TVET level to Bachelor Degree, there were relatively large differences. Therefore, the government has increased the monthly

minimum wage in the textile, garment and footwear industries from USD 63 to USD 140 per month so that salaries would be sufficient to meet regular monthly expenses (RGC, 2013).

3.9. Challenges for Cambodia in TVET

TVET faces several challenges but the two most critical challenges are misperceptions and the lack of public-private partnerships in the TVET sector (UNESCO, 2013). First of all, the mindset of people in Cambodia is a barrier to undertaking TVET because most Cambodians do not attach value to technical and vocational training (UNESCO, 2013; NTB, 2008; Madhur, 2014). As UNESCO (2013) pointed out that the term *Technical and Vocational Training* refers to lower level education and training for the people of skilled or semi-skilled workers in various trades and it does not enhance their level with respect to general education. High school graduates are barely aware of TVET institutions (UNESCO, 2013), so students' first impressions of TVET institutions are that they are of low quality and level and the place for dropouts. According to the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports' statistics, around 80% of high school leavers continue to higher education, resulting in only a small proportion entering TVET (MoEYS, 2014). Secondly, partnerships between the TVET providers are also a major challenge. There are weak links between TVET institutions and enterprises because of a lack of participation of training providers in policy making (UNESCO, 2013). This lack of participation contributed to unwillingness to invest in TVET and the cause of the lack participation from the business sector is the limited policy in encouraging the private sector involvement in TVET. For example, deductible contributions to charity are considered as an expense for companies; however, maximum deductible charitable contributions in Cambodia are 5%, and the excess amount is permanently non-deductible and cannot be carried forward. Therefore, if the company wants to contribute more than 8% of its adjusted profit, the 5% of that contribution will be considered as a deductible expense, so there will be no tax on that 5%, but the remaining 3% will be a non-deductible expense as shown in Table 7 (Law on Taxation, 2004).

Table 7: Charitable Contribution (Deductible Expense)

Description	Reference
Profit	F1
Charitable contribution	F2
Adjusted profit/loss for calculation of maximum deductible charitable contribution ($F3=F1+F2$)	F3
Maximum deductible charitable contribution ($F4=F3 \times 5\%$)	F4
Deductible charitable contribution during the period ($F5=F4$ or $F2$ whichever is the lower)	F5
Non-deductible charitable contribution to be added back in taxable profit/loss ($F6=F2-F5$)	F6

Source: Tax return form, p. 11

3.10. Chapter Summary

In Cambodia's context, three development actors (development partners, private sector, and NGOs) play very important roles in developing the country. Throughout the development plans of Cambodia from 1996 to 2013, only two types of partnerships were highlighted in the development plans. The first partnership is about the collaboration between the development partners and Cambodia's government since the first development plan of Cambodia. Also, the partnership between the private sector and the government has been established since 1999. Only until NSDP 2014-2018, the formal consultation between the NGOs and the government is written in the development plan. Moreover, the new development plan (NSDP 2014-2018) stated TVET as a new priority program for the government to focus on

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design and the methods used in this study. It begins by discussing the research design starting with a description of the philosophical assumptions and epistemology of the research, and going on to explain the logic of the research itself. The following section outlines the recruitment of participants and data collection methods. The chapter then goes on to describe the data analysis methods, the ethical considerations, and a discussion of the limitations in my research design as well as the whole research.

4.2. Research Design

Research is a process of enquiry and discovery but it is more than a process of generating the data, analysing data, and interpreting the findings (Kitchin & Tate, 2013). Research also involves considering what can be known, and how things are known, particularly in relation to a researcher's philosophical stand (Kitchin & Tate, 2013). A researcher's philosophical stand informs their choice of methodology. It helps the reader to comprehend the researcher's epistemology which leads to not only the specific perspective that a researcher uses to answer the research question but also how the researcher deals with the data (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2010). According to Glesne (2011), the high-level philosophies that guide the work of social scientists can be classified into four paradigmatic families: positivism, interpretivism, critical theory, and post-structuralism. Those four terms are not rigid or entirely distinct and sometimes, different authors use different labels to explain those philosophies, but the central purpose of each can be recognised.

4.2.1. Interpretivism

Since my research aim is to understand how tri-sector partnerships in the TVET sector are understood from the perspectives of NGOs', my epistemological orientation is interpretivist. As an interpretivist, the researcher studies participants' actions, objects and society from the perspective of the participants themselves (Gray, 2004). This differs from a positivist approach, which "is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists out there in the world" (Creswell, 2009, p. 7). With an interpretivist orientation, the research approach requires participants to describe subjective experiences, opinions and feelings about a subject that is time and context

bound (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). It is my role as researcher to seek understandings of the social reality of each partner and each partnership and the meaning which is related to the participants' actions toward the partnership. Importantly for this study, I assume there is no fixed form of partnership; it can take any form depending on individual interpretation.

4.2.2. Qualitative Inquiry

In choosing an approach for research, it is important to identify the one that will be the most effective for data collection and resolving a research question. I chose to use a qualitative approach in this research for three main reasons. Firstly, the decision to use qualitative research is directly related to the nature of the research as it is well-matched with the interpretivist paradigm. As Miles & Huberman (1994) pointed out, it is essential to use qualitative methods when the research relates to thoughts, attitudes, perspectives and experiences. Secondly, a qualitative approach allows a variety of sources to be used in data analysis, including interviews and documentation. Thirdly, compared to quantitative study the use of the qualitative approach is likely to encourage participants to share more detailed perceptions. Even small sample sizes using qualitative methods can enable the researcher to gain in-depth understanding (Silverman, 2013). In qualitative research, a narrative report is presented and generalisation is usually not a goal because the focus is on the local, the personal, or the subjective (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

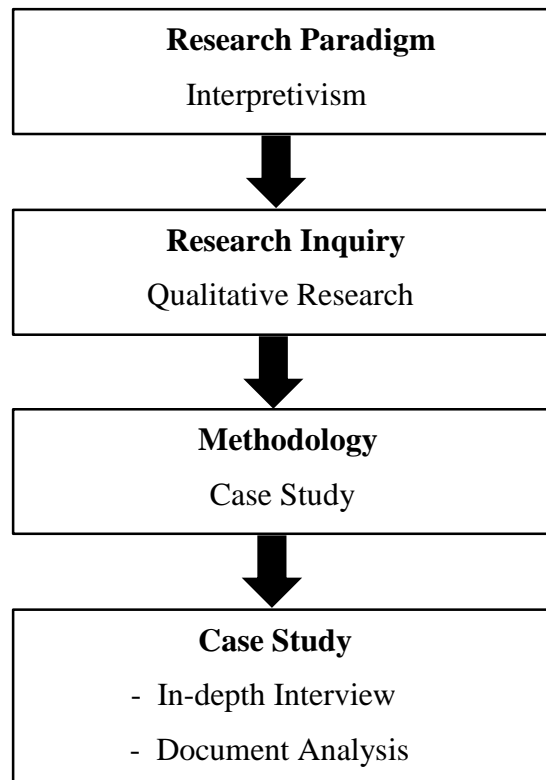
4.2.3. The Case Study

There are several methodologies within the interpretivist paradigm but the most common ones are ethnography, life history, grounded theory, case study, and action research (Glesne, 2011). Among those five, the case study is the most suitable for my research as Yin (2009) and Miles & Huberman (1994) have pointed out that the case study is appropriate for investigating research questions which start with how and why question so that participants are able to express their ideas without the influence from the researcher. Furthermore, as Yin (2009) suggested, a case study can use a range of data including documents, reports, observations, interviews, and archival records. Also, Yin (2009) added no single source is advantaged over the other and the sources are complementary. Similarly, Creswell (2014) states that a good case study uses as many

sources as possible since relying on one source of data does not typically develop in-depth understanding of the case.

In this research project, I limited data collection methods to two methods (in-depth interviews and document analysis) due to the following reasons. Firstly, an in-depth interview was chosen as an appropriate method not only for explanatory and evaluation research but also for studying sensitive topics (Glesne, 2011). Interviews enable an understanding of participants' needs and response to them in an ethical and respectful manner, enabling participants to tell stories and a researcher to hear these stories (Matthews & Ross 2010). Moreover, one-on-one interviews were preferred for practical reasons as all of the participants of this study were in the management level (senior officers or directors) so it was not easy to arrange one meeting time (for a focus group) that suited them all. Figure 7 summarises the elements of the methodological framework which I have mentioned above.

Figure 7: Methodological Framework



4.3. Purposive Sampling and Selection of Participants

4.3.1. Purposive Sampling

In qualitative research participants are deliberately selected to reflect particular features of, or groups within, the population (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). In line with this, purposive sampling was used as the selection method for participants of this study. There are several reasons for selecting purposive sampling. First of all, purposive sampling allows the researcher to seek participants with specific characteristics for the study (Denscombe, 2007). Moreover, Merriam (1998) noted that purposive sampling should be based on the belief that the researcher wants to discover, understand and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned, and this was the case with this research. In addition, purposive sampling allowed me to explore the phenomena being studied at a deeper level through selecting cases which were likely to provide enough information with respect to the purposes of the study (Gall et al., 1996). Finally, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) argue that purposive sampling provides the widest possible range of data to include into the thick description of case study research.

4.3.2. Selection of Participants

The criteria for purposive sampling of this study were: management staff of NGOs in the TVET sector in Phnom Penh and Siem Reap Province in Cambodia. These two sites are the main commercial areas for Cambodia. There were three steps used to recruit participants. Firstly, I used a list of NGOs working in the TVET sector in Phnom Penh and Siem Reap Provinces as shown in Appendix 7. The list was carefully organised by using the database system at the Cambodian Rehabilitation and Development Board of the Council for the Development of Cambodia (CRDB/CDC). After the list was created, I sent emails to all of the NGOs on the list with attachments that explained the research and sought participation: research approval, participant information, participant consent form, and key themes of formal letters from the Victoria University of Wellington.

I then waited for the replies from the participants who would be interested in being part of the research. This is called voluntary participation, and the method was chosen to allow the participants to choose to participate, to feel engaged, and to find it easy to exchange ideas (Berg & Lune, 2012). A small sample of four participants volunteered to participate in the study. The small size of the sample is likely to be the result of the timing of the fieldwork. During this time, the Law on Associations and Non-Governmental

Organisations in Cambodia was being adopted. Because of my prior work with the government, the NGOs probably saw me as a government official rather than an independent researcher and most NGOs wanted the government to withdraw the law, believing the law is a method to restrict their activities. However, I carried out interviews with those who showed interest and interviews were recorded using a voice recorder with consent from participants.

4.4.Data Collection Methods

4.4.1. In-depth Interviews

Individual interviews formed the major part of data collection in this research for the in-depth interview allows participants to express their ideas and experiences. According to Tomal (2010), conducting an interview with one person can be valuable in drawing out true feelings that might not be obtained in a group setting. Similarly, Johnson and Christensen (2008) explained that qualitative interviews should consist of open questions and provide qualitative data about the participant's thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, reasoning, motivations and feelings about a topic.

During my field research, I was flexible with the time and place to interview the participants. Most of the interviews were conducted in person and at the NGOs' offices where it was more convenient for the participants and this enabled them to speak openly as they were familiar with the environment. These individual interviews took place at the participants' break time on different days. I interviewed each participant individually for between about 50 and 75 minutes. The order of questions in the interview was flexible. During each interview, interviewees' responses were recorded electronically, and I also took notes while they were speaking. As suggested by Johnson and Christensen (2008), voice recording is the best method to capture all data mentioned by participants. In using the voice recorder I can refer to the original interview.

Key themes for the interview were sent to participants before the interview. During the interviews I noticed the participants had a good understanding of the themes and questions being asked, thus reducing misinterpretation between interviewer and participants. This preparation also helps the participants to think more deeply about the questions. Although participants acknowledged that this thesis would be written in English, the interviews were conducted in Khmer language because the participants wanted to ensure that

accurate information was obtained during the interview because some expressions might be more easily expressed in their native language. All transcriptions were made by the researcher because some of the respondents' technical terms, words and ideas could not be translated into English accurately by translators who are not specialists in this field. I asked the participants six main questions regarding their definitions of partnership, criteria of effective partnership, benefits, challenges and difficulties in working together with government and private sector, and their recommendations for effective partnership in the future (Appendix 2).

4.4.2. Document Analysis

As well as targeted one-on-one interviews, another source of data collection used extensively in this qualitative case study was the analysis of documentation. Bowen (2009) explains that document analysis is a systematic procedure that a researcher uses for reviewing or evaluating documents in print or electronic format. Also, Denscombe (2010) points out that documents are considered a source of data which have their own benefits so that they are different from questionnaires, interviews or observation. Similarly, Yin (2003) stressed that the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources. In this research, documents from several types of sources were analysed, including NGO's annual reports, project agreements with Cambodia's government, Memorandum of Understandings (MoU) with Cambodia's government to operate NGOs, MoUs with NGOs' business partners, and other documents relating to Cambodia's government law and policy.

4.5.Data Analysis and Interpretation

There is no single correct way of analysing qualitative data, but one of the important factors in making effective data analysis is the need to be systematic (Koshy, 2010) and, to this end, this research used Creswell's framework (2014) for qualitative data analysis and interpretation. Below I outline steps in my analysis, which follow Creswell's framework:

Step 1 (organise and prepare the data for analysis): I organised and prepared data for analysis by transcribing individual interviews, typing up my notes, and sorting and arranging the different types of data based on the research questions presented in Chapter 1.

Step 2 (read through all the data): I familiarised myself with the data by reading through all transcripts and collected documents several times to gain an overall sense of the information and to consider its general meaning. I also corroborated those transcripts with the notes I made in the interviews to make sure I obtained accurate data and transcripts.

Step 3 (begin detailed analysis and coding process): For this step, I coded the themes from the interview transcripts. First, I developed initial code themes based on broad concepts identified in the literature review and research questions. This process helped me to organise the material into chunks or segments of text, and to identify the main themes and patterns within my data. Then I picked one transcript, considered its meaning and coded it accordingly. I also added new codes that emerged from transcripts as I worked through them. At this point, I was open to any possibility that was potentially relevant to answer the research questions. The process of coding by identifying text segments and assigning a code word was used the same ways for the transcripts and all collected documents.

Step 4 (Using the coding process to generate a description): The codes were then grouped together into patterns to provide an answer to the research questions. This involved the identification of data and the production of codes from data that related to the research questions. Many of the participants' comments could fit into more than one of the themes that were initially identified. As conveying the participants' voice was a priority of this research, it did not seem necessary to restrict passages of text to one theme.

Step 5 (Decide how description and theme will be present): This process revealed that some of the original themes I had selected were not as prevalent as I had originally thought. For example, the involvement of the Cambodian government in the planning process of the NGOs is still limited and only one NGO is in an advanced stage in terms of building a relationship with business partners. These themes were then reorganised as sub-sections of other larger themes. Throughout the research process, the organisation of themes shifted as I became more familiar with the transcripts. The final themes that were identified and used to organise the findings section of the next chapter were similar to the themes identified in the literature.

Step 6 (interpretation the meaning of data): I finally present my data through themes and sub-themes based on analysis of both interview data and document analysis.

4.6. Validity and Reliability

The research design is established not only to focus on the case being studied but also to improve the quality of the data collected. With quantitative methods, reliability is achieved through calculating the responses statistically while in qualitative research, reliability is achieved through carefully examining the interview data. Therefore, the validity and reliability in the qualitative research can be subjective. Johnson and Christensen (2008) explained that research validity for qualitative researchers refers to research that is plausible, credible, trustworthy, and therefore defensible. Validity is an important key to effective research as Cohen et al (2007) pointed out. He also stated that validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data to be achieved, the participants to be approached, the extent of triangulation, and the disinterestedness or objectivity of the researcher. Johnson and Christensen (2008) believed it is important to think about the issue of validity in qualitative research and to examine some strategies that have been developed to maximise validity. One of the strategies that used to increase validity in this research is the reduction of the researcher's bias (Shenton, 2004).

Underlying qualitative research is an assumption that research is always subjective; no objective research framework can effectively separate the researcher or the researched from their cultures or their experiences (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). To reduce the effect of my bias in the present study, I used two key methods: reflexivity and rapport. Reflexivity plays an important role in raising awareness regarding my contribution and influence on the research process and the consequent findings because, as Salzman (2002) has pointed out, reflexivity provides the readers with the necessary information for assessing validity. Throughout the research, I was actively involved in critical self-reflection on my potential biases and predispositions, and through reflexivity I monitored and attempted to control my biases. In addition, Johnson and Christensen (2012) recommend that researchers should establish rapport with participants to avoid obtaining unbiased data. For my case, I established rapport with participants by explaining the purposes of the research, the likely research benefits and making sure that the participants were aware that their responses would be treated in confidence.

4.7. Ethical Issues

The researcher should guarantee that there would be no identifiable risks or exposed identification from participating in this research so that the participants can provide answers without feeling concerned. To obtain the University's permission to conduct the research, the researcher had to meet Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee requirements for conducting research work for research involving human participants. Participant information sheets, consent forms, interview checklists, and other necessary documents were submitted for approval to the committee. Importantly, those forms helped participants to understand the goal of the study, their role, conditions of voluntary participation and withdrawal and such important issues as security of data, confidentiality including coding of participants and using quotes. The consent form, signed by respondents, stated the right to withdraw from the research at any time, should they have felt the need to, and all information given would be destroyed. In addition, any further identifying information given by any respondent would have had to be approved by that person before it was used.

Another important ethical consideration is the sensitivity of the research topic as Vaus (2001) explained that social research tends to collect personal information which, if made public, could cause embarrassment or harm to participants in one way or another. Since my topic is about the partnerships between three actors, all of my participants required a verbal confirmation of confidentiality of the research findings from the researcher before the interviews, because negative comments and insights regarding the partnerships naturally arose during in-depth interviews. During the interviews, it was useful to remind myself constantly not to ask leading questions/express opinions or not to ask questions which could affect the relationships of those actors or questions that might put them into awkward position because leading questions can influence the answers from the participants. At the end of the interviews, I asked each of the respondents if they required a copy of the audio or transcription both in Khmer and English to guarantee the precision and accuracy of the interviews. All of the respondents requested a summary of the transcription. One participant requested to see a draft of the thesis before an official submission. To show appreciation to participants for their time and trust, the researcher promised to send a summary of the results of this research to all participants before submitting any draft of the research findings to the university.

4.8. My Positionality

My positionality has a direct impact on the research process. Because my research methods were primarily qualitative, I attempted to tell a story rather than derive a repeatable scientific truth. The story I tell is from my position and my point of view, but this does not detract from the truth of the participants' stories. However, it does mean that my own experience and relationships mould and deliver the analysis of this truth. My positionality is important to acknowledge as it affects the responses that I will induce in the research process and the way I filter and display information. It is for these reasons that I will now explore my positionality and its influence on my research.

Fechter (2012) emphasises that positionality refers to background experiences. My professional work experience as an Aid Coordination Officer in the NGO Department of the Cambodian government where I worked for almost three years gave me a great insight into the working practices of NGOs and their collaboration with the Government. Being an insider in a public organisation as a government official dealing with NGOs has expanded my vision of the functioning and interaction of both sectors (government and NGOs). Yet, during this research, I have had to forget that I was once a Cambodian government official and remembering that I was now just a student doing a Master's Degree; otherwise, I would feel defensive when the participants provided negative comments about the government. As Sultana (2007) mentioned in her paper about ethical concerns (positionality, reflexivity, and power relations), I practiced constant negotiation (how to talk to participants as a student, not a government official) throughout the entire process of the research because reflection throughout my time in the field was important in endeavoring to establish more equal research relationships with my participants.

An important issue I had to consider was the dynamics of the power relationship. Sultana (2007) explains that power is connected with authority and influence. Power can be used to dominate or it can be used to empower or enable participatory approaches (Lewis et al., 2003). However, with every relationship, any imbalance of power is created in a complex context that requires people to learn about how power is exercised within that context and to consider who would benefit and who would suffer from the power relations (Kearins, 1996). For example, seeking participants' voluntary participation in this research took quite a long time. I had the names and contact details of staff of NGOs from the database system at my workplace, so initial contact was made by emails to all those

people requesting their participation. Positive responses were followed by a formal letter requesting permission from the NGO and upon agreement, the information sheet and formal request to participate were sent to both participant and NGO. I waited for one week to get any reply from NGOs. Unfortunately, only one NGO replied to the email, so I decided to contact them by phone. Most of the replies made by phone involved another delay for the interview for they needed some more time to think about this study. At that time, I was anxious about the lack of participants. I had to follow up with the participants to confirm their participation from week to week for sometimes participants would call to cancel an appointment for they had some urgent business. Therefore, I had to make another appointment with them again. This shows that interviewing high ranking staff from NGOs is not an easy task, so I needed considerable time to access these people because they are less accessible and more conscious of their own power.

4.9. Limitations of the Study

The research project has a few limitations. First of all, I adopted a purely qualitative approach to seek an understanding of the concepts of partnerships between Cambodia's government, NGOs, and the private sector from the NGOs' perspectives. Often qualitative analysis was limited due to the researcher's obligation to keep participants' names confidential, so some responses related to the names of specific departments or certain institutions could not be used as the details may have revealed the respondent's identity. Although it is the most appropriate means of creating depth of analysis in this search, it would be interesting to include quantitative methods or mixed methods in order to gather broader information from the participants. Using a quantitative or mixed methods approach would have placed the stories in relation to concrete statistics to create results that would have been communicable to a broader audience. Also, this research is limited in its use of one perspective as I only interviewed the management team of NGOs. This research sees ideas from NGOs' perspectives. I would suggest further research should look at the same issue from the perspective of Cambodia's government or private sector; possibly an in-depth inquiry into tri-sector partnerships would provide further understanding of these relationships. Moreover, only four participants from three NGOs were selected based on voluntary participation through purposive sampling. According to Johnson and Christensen (2008), results of a study from a purposive sample cannot be generalised to a population because not everyone in a population has an equal chance of being included in the sample, and also, it is not clear what specific population a purposive

sample comes from. The participants in this study were not a typical group who could represent other NGOs in the same field or different fields. Therefore, the findings of the study might not be generalised to other populations or contexts. Furthermore, data was collected only from individual interviews, document analysis and my reflective notes. There were no questionnaires or focus groups. This may have limited the participants' responses. For the most part, it is acknowledged that the impacts observed in this research are those that were perceived and articulated by the NGOs, rather than any quantitative measurement, so it could not be considered completely objective.

4.10. Chapter Summary

This study took a qualitative methodology as a means to find answers for the three main research questions. This chapter has presented the interpretive paradigm and the qualitative case study research underpinning this thesis. This theoretical perspective is very important for understanding the nature of the research, its assumptions about methodology, how the study was carried out and the framework for conducting the research. Three NGOs in TVET in Phnom Penh volunteered to participate in the study by engaging in in-depth interviews. The research followed the guidelines of Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Policy so that the research participants' identity and interests were protected at all times. The research data analysis drew on Creswell's (2009) framework as explained by Koshy (2010). This systematic framework involved transcribing, coding, and interpreting data. Researcher bias reduction, member checks, and peer debriefing were used to enhance validity of the research data analysis. The next chapter presents the research findings.

Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the data collected in conducting the research with three NGOs working in the TVET sector in Cambodia. Analysis of data from interviews has identified and contributed to effectiveness of partnerships between Cambodia's government, NGOs, and private sector in TVET, particularly from the NGOs' perspectives. The data is described in themes that emerged in the process of the data analysis to address the three research questions in the Research Aim and Objectives part (Introduction Chapter) and those questions are:

1. What are the current existing partnerships in TVET and what challenges do they face?
2. How do the NGOs understand their roles and the effect of that perception within the partnerships?
3. Through participants' experiences and understanding, how can the partnerships be improved?

There are four main sections based on four themes in this research, and one section discusses one theme in relation to the existing literature. The first section is identified partners and the second one is common working process of three NGOs. The third one is challenges and difficulties, and the final one is recommendations from participants' perspectives to improve current working process. The emerging themes from the interviews were classified according to the research questions as shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Themes and Research Questions

Themes	Research Questions
1st theme: Identified partners and their engagement 3rd theme: Challenges and difficulties of working with Cambodia's government and/or private sector	Question one: what are the current existing partnerships in TVET and what challenges do they face?
2nd theme: Partnering mechanism of the NGOs	Question two: How do the NGOs understand their roles and the effect of that perception within the partnerships?

4th theme: Recommendations from the NGOs	Question three: Through participants' experiences and understanding, how can the partnerships be improved?
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There are three sections in this chapter. The first two themes will be reported and discussed in the first section which is Partnership Arrangement within TVET sector of the three NGOs while detailed findings and discussion of other two themes which are about building effective partnerships from the participants' perspectives follows in next section. The final section will present the discussion of the four themes together.

5.2.Partnership Arrangements within the TVET Sector

5.2.1. Identified Partners and Their Engagement

Partnerships can be formal, where each party's roles and obligations are spelled out in a written agreement, or the partnerships can be informal, where the roles and obligations are assumed or agreed to verbally. Instead of the two key stakeholders (Cambodia's government officials and private companies), from the interviews with key informants from the three NGOs within TVET sector, the participants identified three key stakeholders that they involved with during implementation of their projects.

5.2.2. Government

Although MoLVT is officially mandated to regulate formal and non-formal TVET in 2005, various ministries remain involved. Interviewees mentioned three ministries: Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training (MoLVT), Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MoEYS), and Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation (MoSAVY). As one interviewee reported, each ministry independently develops its own programs with its own standards:

We have only one project... We have these three centers and we provide the same trainings to our students. And our organisation is currently working with Ministry of Labour and Labour and Vocational Training and Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

As the three NGOs are all working in the TVET sector, they confirmed that their organisations have a project agreement with the Ministry of Labour and Vocational

Training as primary partner; however, in addition to the MoU with the MoLVT, their organisations have a few written agreements with other ministries as shown below in Table 9.

Table 9: Projects and Partner Ministries

NGOs	Project	Partner Ministry
NGO A	Project: To provide professional technical training to vulnerable youth and orphans in Cambodia	MoLVT
NGO B	Project 1: To provide vocational training to poor students to obtain a good career so that they can survive in Cambodian society.	MoLVT
	Project 2: To enable poor children coming from dump garbage site to access education	MoEYS
	Project 3: To support, protect and provide accommodation for disabled and vulnerable children	MoSAVY
NGO C	Project 1: To provide strong training to poor students in information technology sector so that they can get professional career.	MoLVT
	Project 2: Provide full scholarship of 2 years (association degree) in IT to poor students.	MoEYS

Source: Project agreements with partner ministries, and interviews.

In fact, each NGO originally works on one project which is to provide skills to the unprivileged youth. In Table 7 two NGOs (NGO B and NGO C) have signed an agreement with MoSAVY and MoEYS in addition to the agreement with MoLVT since those two NGOs' additional projects involve general education and youth which fall under the supervision of MoEYS and MoSAVY respectively. It can be argued that all of these agreements should be the ultimate responsibility of MoLVT since the ministry was

officially set up with the mandate to regulate formal and non-formal TVET. One interviewee said that:

Originally, our organisation is under the supervision of Ministry of Labour, Vocational and Training. It is for the skills for students, but we also have an agreement with Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport because we include general knowledge too for the students... some of our students are under the age of 18, so we need to have an agreement with Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

The three NGOs have to sign a project agreement with the ministry that is relevant to the project if those NGOs want to get the rights and benefits (incentives and exemptions in accordance with the existing laws) from those ministries as stated in the Law on Associations and Non-Governmental Organisations in Cambodia, Chapter 5, Article 20. Therefore, NGOs have to have agreements with the various ministries associated with overlapping duties (especially, MOLVT and MOEYS) on their projects, which leads to an increase in paperwork and administration costs.

5.2.3. Private Sector

Interviewees also mentioned working in partnership with private companies. Information from the interviews show that there is little difference between the forms of partnerships (between the NGOs and their business partners) from one NGO to another, ranging from written agreements to verbal agreements. An interviewee from NGO A stated that:

Among the 178 companies, we have some companies that have MoU with our NGO and some companies are only verbal understanding with the NGO. So, it is not all of the 178 companies that we have the MoU with them..... So far, among 178 companies, we have around 40 to 50% that has MoU with our NGO. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

Written and verbal agreement between NGOs and the private sector is considered as one form of partnership. However, a formal collaboration such as a MoU represents a stronger involvement and commitment by both parties in the partnership because it states clearly the roles and responsibilities of each party in the written agreement. Based on the interviews, there are two forms of written agreement (between private sector and NGOs)

that the NGOs use. The first one is a written agreement made between the business partners and the NGO, and the second one is the written agreement between the business partners and individual student. As an interviewee from NGO C pointed out:

We have the agreement with the company, but the contract is only between the student and the company. And our NGO is just a facilitator in this situation. For example, when our students have to have internship in one company, we need to review the contract like the term and the responsibility of each party and the duration. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

A formal agreement was perceived as essential by the interviewees because formal written agreements can help to protect the benefits for both parties. However, these agreements (written form and verbal agreement) are only for the duration of the internship. As an interviewee from NGO A said:

We do not have any MoU with the companies for graduate students when they got a job that the companies. For example, like how many graduate students each year that the NGOs should produce for that particular company. (Project Manager of NGO A, 10th July, 2015)

If the NGOs are able to have a formal agreement with the business partners beyond the internship, then the business partners will be more responsible and take this partnership more seriously. As in the written agreement with the partner ministries, it states clearly what NGOs expect to get from the government and what the government can provide to NGOs such as tax exemption on the imported equipment for the project operation (Project agreements with partner ministries).

5.2.4. Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

Beside the government and private sector, NGOs are also considered a working partner to other NGOs. Interviewees mentioned working with other NGO partners in the TVET sector. Interviewees from NGO C and NGO B explained:

We work with company and NGOs... We have NGO partners. For example, when our NGO partners need to send their students to get training on specific subject

in our school, they can send the students to our school. It is because our NGO partners do not have those specific subjects in their school. It is like an exchange students because sometimes we need to send our students to learn from our NGO partners. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

The agreement that those NGOs have is a written agreement between NGO and NGO and, based on the interviews, those NGOs see these agreements as a form of networking. However, the NGO partner is likely to be the NGO that got funds from the same source as NGO. As Director from the NGO B explained:

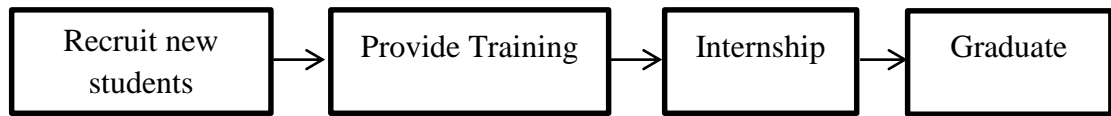
We work with other French NGOs (International NGO which is funded by French citizen) such as Don Bosco and PN... Our organisation sends students to study at those NGOs' center for the subjects that our organisation does not have. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

The main donors of NGO B and Passerelles Numériques Cambodia (PN) are from France, and both of the NGOs are working in TVET, so they are working together as an alliance to reduce unnecessary costs and the workload for the organisation. As an interviewee from the NGO B mentioned, he just sent the students from his organisation to study a specific subject the NGO partner school had already set up, and in return his school will take back any student from his NGO partner to study at his school.

5.2.2. Partnering Mechanism of the NGOs

The three NGOs are working in the same sector, so their working mechanisms with their partners are not diverse. Based on the interviews and the TVET's concept which is about providing skills to students through theoretical teaching and practical experience in real work places, the common flow of the working process of the three NGOs is categorised into four main parts as shown in Figure 8. The degree of the involvement of each partner differs in each part as interviewees reported. For the recruitment of the new students, the partner that engaged the most is the government, while in providing training, the main partner is the private sector. For the internships, private companies are the active partner for the three NGOs and, for the last part, the involvement is from all partners.

Figure 8: Flow of the Working Process

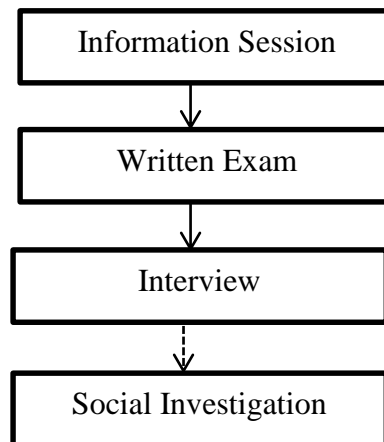


Source: Interviews

5.2.2.1. Recruitment of New Students

Based on the interviews, the government is an important partner for the three NGOs at this initial stage. The recruitment of new students to study at the centers is the first part of whole partnering mechanism, and it is done differently from one NGO to another. Surprisingly, the process of recruiting the new students that the interviewees described is somehow similar from one NGO to another NGO; therefore, I group the process into 4 common steps (the announcement of the new term, written exam, interview, and social investigation) as shown in figure 9.

Figure 9: Selection Process of the New Students



Source: Interviews

Among the three NGOs, NGO B and NGO C have a very similar process for recruiting new students, from the stage of information session to the social investigation; however, NGO A does not have the social investigation, so the selection process of the NGO A ends at the interview stage.

The involvement of the local authorities can occur at different steps of the selection process; however, there is no collaboration between private companies and NGOs in recruiting the new students. At the first step of the selection process which is the

information session, local government officials (Provincial Department of Labour and Vocational Training, Provincial Department of Education, youth and Sport, village chef, community council, and school principals) are identified by three NGOs as active partners. Interviewee from NGO C explained:

Before we need to recruit new students, we need to submit the formal request letter to the Ministry with specific name of the provinces, schools, and even the specific date of the whole process. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

In the case of NGO C, the involvement of the government is at the very first step of the selection process. Then the Ministry will issue the official support letter for the NGO so that the Provincial Department will help the NGO set up the campaign for the program. An interviewee from NGO C added:

We work with Ministry (MoEYS), and then the Ministry will inform the provincial department and then from provincial to the schools in our target province about our process. Then the school director will collect the application forms from the students and send the forms to our NGO. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

Also, a participant from NGO A claimed that local government officials helped NGOs to access the target group (young people who could not carry out further studies because of their economic situation or the underprivileged youth) at the information session because those local officials know very well about the community where they work. One interviewee reported:

The school director will select the students who are qualified for the training because we want the students who are from the very poor family and the school director or the teachers knows the situation of the students very well, so they can select the students for us. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

This can help NGOs to save time and reduce costs as they are directed toward the right candidates for the program. This kind of support is also highlighted in the written agreement between the NGO A and the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training.

At the written exam and interview stage, all of the three NGOs stated that there is no involvement from other partners (government and business partners), so these two steps are solely the responsibilities of the NGOs to assess the knowledge and the ability of the students. The intention of the written exam is not only to assess the students' specific knowledge in a particular field (depending on the skill that students apply for) but also to reduce the number of students who apply for the training. The students have to take the written test at the NGOs' center, and if they pass the written exam, they may proceed to the interview test. So, the interview helps students to reflect back on their goals and their purposes of applying to the program. These two steps allow the three NGOs to reduce the large number of the students toward the targeted number and also to find suitable students for the program.

However, the involvement of the government is clear seen again at the final step of the selection process which is social investigation. Local authorities help NGOs to make the decision on the final list of students. One interviewee stated:

Our staff and local authorities will go in person to check the house of the students, what is the situation of the students. We check according to the criteria that we set in the paper of our NGO. We access them (students) according to the questionnaire we designed. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

5.2.2.2. Provide Training

After the three NGOs finish the first stage of recruitment, they start to provide training to the students according to their projects. At this stage, the three NGOs work closely with their business partners, and there is little involvement from the government. The length of the training is varied depending on the skills that the students choose. In this training process, two central topics were raised by the participants: preparation of the curriculum and the capacity building of the trainers. Relevant curriculum and the efficient instructors were regarded as key to minimizing the mismatch of supply and demand of skills.

a. Curriculum Development

The involvement of business partners is considered as essential in curriculum development so that the training provided by the NGOs will address appropriate needs and skills gaps in current market demand. Through the partnerships, the curriculum in

NGOs' schools is always up to date with the demand of the market, and there are three methods that the three NGOs use to maintain the up-to-date curriculum in their schools.

Market Assessment

The first method is market assessment with industry in terms of input for curricula development. Once a year, the three NGOs will do a market study (questionnaire or survey) of business partners so that the three NGOs can add any further skills to their program as a result of the survey. Participants from the interviews reported:

For curriculum, we based on the previous year curriculum and also based on the survey which is once a year... survey on job market through our partner companies because we want to know the current demand of the market. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

We send the electronic survey to our partner companies to fill in every year so that we know what should be added in our curriculum and what should remove or just upgrade in some area. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

This kind of curriculum development is related, at least to some extent, to business partner needs since the business partners provide inputs for the NGOs, so the NGOs can adjust their curriculum to fit the industry's characteristics, including its area of specialisation and skill shortages.

Networking

The second method is networking with the previous students. Each of the NGOs has their own previous students association or alumni, and the alumni keep NGOs up-to-date with the current demand of the market since all of the previous students are now working in the business sector. As one interviewee claimed:

Another method that we use is through the previous students. So far, our NGO has trained about 3,435 students. It means so far it's about 20 generations, so all of them are now working in the companies and some are even in the top management level... so when there is new demand from the market, they always report to our NGO. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

Students' Report

The final method is the report from the students after their internship. It is the requirement of the NGOs that each student write a report after the internship or during the internship according to the policy of each NGO. As the participant from NGO C explained, the reports from the students were really helpful for the NGO as students wrote about their thoughts, challenges, and the relevance of their study. After all of the inputs are collected from the business partners, students' report, and the feedback from the graduates, the committee from the NGOs will decide the subjects in the curriculum of the schools.

Another one which is the most important of all that we have been practicing every day is through the internship... each student will have logbook for the duration of the internship. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 1st June, 2015)

However, the involvement of the government in designing the curriculum for the school was not mentioned by participants, as one interviewee pointed out:

For the government part in designing the curriculum, we do not have any involvement from the government. But the government invites us to a meeting to provide inputs for the planning or for the framework something like that. But for the umm. . . designing curriculum, we only have the meeting with company. (Project Manager of NGO A, 10th July, 2015)

b. Capacity Building of the Trainers

Skilled trainers play a significant role in producing qualified human resource for the industry. As the participant from NGO A mentioned that sometimes the business partners provide training to the teachers from his NGO on new skills or new knowledge so that those teachers can prepare the students for the skills that the business partners need.

The company train our teachers related to new technology or the new skills that our school just adopted, and after the training, we will set those skills in our curriculum. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

5.2.2.3. Internship

NGOs make an effort to establish a connection between schools and the workplace thereby introducing new practices in employment so that it creates an environment where students are able to acquire the knowledge and skills needed in the workplace. Establishing partnerships between training providers and the private sector is the best way to achieve relevance of training and to facilitate the transition of youth from school to the workplace. In particular, training institutions can benefit from greater involvement of employers in curriculum development and options of internships and job vacancies. For students, internships are particularly effective ways to gain valuable work experience and to increase job search opportunities.

NGOs confirmed that they place students in internships with their business partners at the end of the course, and the length of the internship is usually around 3 to 6 months based on the course or the skill. Before sending students to the internship, some agreement will be made by the mutual consent, between the company and NGO *or* between the company and individual student. Terms of the internship such as job conditions, working environment, task and responsibilities are usually written in the internship agreement as participants confirmed in the interviews. The students will be followed up by the school during the time of their internship, in case any problem occurs, the department/unit within the NGO will contact the company directly to find the solution and deal with any problems based on the agreement. At this stage, NGOs see themselves as human resource providers as they supply the trained students to the company (interviews).

Not only students get internships from the company, but also trainers at the NGOs' centers can get an internship from the company as one interviewee explained:

We also send our teachers to get the internship at the company. It is not the internship for the students but for the teachers at our school... they will have to get the internship from the company so that they can get more experience from the company. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

5.2.2.4. Graduation

The outcome of the TVET is its graduates. NGOs offer training programs in marketable skills because they have strong links with industry partners, who are involved in curriculum development, staff training, and provide students with work experience. This

is reflected in fairly high success rates in terms of providing trainees with employment despite their disadvantaged backgrounds.

Our school produces around 250 students per year from all departments, so I can say 100% of our students get the job after the graduation. Even some companies cannot get our students after the graduation since we have limited students.
(Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

Within 2 months after the graduation, our students must have jobs... In some cases, the companies even book our students before they even finish the trainings.
(Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

According to NGO B 98% of their students successfully entered the job market with an average entry salary of USD 167 per month; while the students from NGO C get an average starting salary of USD 170 per month and within 2 years they earn an average salary of USD 300 per month. The standard minimum wage of Cambodia is USD140 per month for wages in the textile, garment and footwear industries (RGC, 2013). The programs of the NGOs in TVET appear to offer good learning experiences in tri-sector partnerships if we look at the successful rate of the students getting employment and earning a reasonable starting.

5.3. Building Effective Partnerships

It is obvious there are many factors to consider in exploring how to make NGOs collaborations with government and the business sector most effective. Tri-sector partnerships not only offer benefits but also create challenges. The two remaining themes (difficulties and challenges described by the three NGOs and recommendations from interviewees) can provide an insightful analysis which, it is hoped, may contribute to more effective partnerships between Cambodia's government, NGOs, and private sector in TVET, particularly from the NGOs' perspectives. The first part of this section is about the challenges that key interviewees mentioned after the challenges are discussed, the next section explores what participants think should be done to manage these challenges.

5.3.1. Challenges and Difficulties of Working with Cambodia's Government and/or Private Sector

The data from the interviews show that challenges in collaborating emerge differently for each of the NGOs, however three main challenges can be identified that could be improved in these partnerships. The interviews revealed some major difficulties in collaboration with their partner ministries and companies, such as the violation of the agreement from business partners, a lack of commitment from the business partners, and the current financial situation of NGOs.

5.3.1.1. The Violation of the Agreement

The violation of the agreement from the business partners is usually reported by the students during their internship period. Among the three NGOs, two of them (NGO A and NGO C) reported that several of their business partners do not comply with the terms of a written agreement during the internship of the students in those companies. Interviewee from NGO A reported that one of the challenges that they faced is the lack of consideration from the business partners as interviewee raised:

We train our students as skilled workers, but some companies that our students have the internship with considered our students as non-skilled workers. We do not tolerate such behavior so we will break the agreement and stop sending our students for the internship in that company. (Project Manager of NGO A, 10th July, 2015)

Project Manager of NGO A saw this issue as a real challenge for his NGO to continue to work with a certain business partner because the aim of project is to produce well-trained vulnerable youth and orphans in Cambodia and to help them to obtain a professional career, and the way in which the company treated the students is the opposite of the original aim.

Another challenge that NGOs mentioned in relation to the agreement is the exploitation of students during the internship. In the agreement, both parties consent to the amount of the salary and the calculation of overtime (OT) wages; however, some companies fail to follow that agreement as one interviewee reported:

In our MoU with the company, the company will have to pay the allowance for our students during the internship because our students are all from the very poor family... Generally, the company does not give any allowance for the internship, but if the company is our partners, we request the company to give some allowance to our students during the internship, they will agree with us to provide the monthly allowance... But in practice, they only give allowance to our students daily. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

Another interviewee agreed:

Some companies, they told us that they want our students for the internship in this kind of skill and then they did not provide allowance for our students for any OT or at weekend, in reality, it is not like what they told us. They even made our students work on Sunday. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

It is clear that the NGOs are aware of these issues with their business partners because each NGO has a clear strategy to deal with these issues as they reported:

We have one department in our NGO to deal with that kind of problem. So, that department will file complaint form to that company. If the company does not follow the term and agreement in the MoU, we will take our students back from that company. And for the serious case, we blacklist that company in our NGO... we have MoU with that company so we based on the MoU because in MoU we stated the number of warnings and how many days the company should they act after the warning. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

When there are some issues that happen during the internship, we have one department in our NGO to deal with such issues –the Education Department. We have another department to work with the company to negotiate the contract during the internship called External Relations. So, both departments have to work closely with each other. For example, if the students have any issue with the company, they will report it to Education Department and then the Education Department will forward that issue to External Relation Department so that the External Department will deal

with the company according to the contract that they made with the students. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

These strategies that interviewees described seem to base on the written agreements that they signed with their business partners, so the NGOs can use that formal agreement as a method of settling the issue with the business partners. Also, the NGOs have clear organisational structure in their organisations so that the roles and responsibilities are assigned for each department/office and when the issues arise, the responsible department can take action promptly.

5.3.1.2. Lack of Commitment from the Business Partners

The commitment of business partners to contribute to effective partnerships is perceived as essential by the three NGOs. However, based on the interviews with participants, the private sector does not contribute much financial assistance to the NGOs and, only a few cases that the business partners offer some training and other non-financial support as one interviewee added:

Only a small amount of companies, in fact very little number that I cannot even count it as official number... the company train our teachers related to new technology or the new skills that our school just adopted. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

The enterprises are not highly interested in providing training for trainers as this interviewee stated. However, it is important to provide trainers with workplace training in order to update trainers' knowledge and skills. At this point, the business partners will be benefitted by obtaining tailored training staff from the NGOs since the business partners are the one who involves in designing the curriculum for the school. , Training can also be considered an investment of the company in the NGOs as it will enhance workplace performance through producing highly trained staff. So, in future the business partners will not have to spend more money on providing training to the staff because they have been trained to company standards by the NGOs already.

One more challenge that the three NGOs have in common is the internal motivation of the business partners since the mission of most companies is to make a profit and compete successfully in the market. However, the business partners viewed these partnerships as

an expense as the key informant from NGO A claimed that several of his NGO's business partners do not feel that the cooperation with his NGO will lead to significant benefits or economic profits. Those business partners were eager to see the immediate benefit of the cooperation rather than a long term benefit as one mentioned:

Maybe another reason is that they only see the short term benefits from our NGO; in fact, they have long term benefits from our NGO. For example, when they help the NGO, they will get very well-trained students to work in their companies. Maybe this is indirect benefits for the companies. (Project Manager of NGOA, 10th July, 2015)

5.3.1.3. Current Financial Situation of the NGOs

This financial issue becomes more and more visible to the three NGOs since most of their funds from the abroad are decreasing due to the global financial crisis in 2008.

For the past years we used to get a lot of funds from the development partners, but since the time of global financial crisis, especially in European countries, donors decrease the funds and for some donors, they only provide small amount comparing to the past years. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

It appears that the government has not provided sufficient financial incentives and reward programs to encourage enterprises to partner with TVET, so as a result business partners become demotivated to collaborate with NGOs as one interviewee reported:

For some companies, they want to support our NGO in terms of finance too, but they cannot give much because of policy around the encouragement for the company to help the NGO. Maybe the government should encourage the companies to help the NGOs. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

Lack of government funding not only poses a challenge to NGO funding mobilization, but it also constrains their effective partnership with government institutions. Very few NGOs (such as Kunthea Bopha Hospital) report receiving direct government grants and contracts while others obtain different types of support including donations or free property leases (a piece of land for office or school), and tax exemptions for their

businesses or imported goods. Among the three NGOs, none of them reported to receive any grant from the government, and what they commonly get from the government is non-financial support such as tax exemption, in-kind donations or free leases of property from the government. However, all of the three NGOs have Memorandum of Understanding with the partner ministries to make sure that NGOs share common goals as mentioned in sectoral plan of the government. This takes the form of collaboration between the government and NGOs at policy level to share the same goals; however, at the technical level, the involvement of the government is very limited as one interviewee reported:

The (government) always supports us when we need to sign the MoU with the government for the project. Yeah, that's what they support us with, but in terms of funding from the government, we have not received anything yet from the government. (Project Manager of NGO A, 10th July, 2015)

This constraint on the NGOs' financial situation can also have an impact on the implementation of the project. The NGOs expressed their concern on the limited number of students that the NGOs can help each year due to the reduced funds from the donors. As one Interviewee claimed:

The committee needs to decide to get the most disadvantage students to get only 100 students because we only have budget for 100 students, even in some cases the students are really in similar situation, but we can only take 100 students. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

Funding from abroad is the major source of income for NGOs operating in Cambodia. Khieng (2013) pointed out the three traditional types of funding strategy (grants and donation, government funding, earned-income) that NGOs use to implement their programs. As shown in the Table 10, the three NGOs interviewed depend totally on funding from abroad which can be strained if training activities were to be scaled up.

Table 10: Source of Fund of the Three NGOs

NGO A	NGO B	NGO C
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Church - International NGO 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Foster Parents in Europe 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Local foundation in France - International NGO

Source: Project Agreements with Government

Based on the interviews with key participants, there is an absence of funding from the government as well as the business partners. There are two possible reasons for this absence of funding. The first reason concerns the lack of policy from the government that offers incentives or encouragement for businesses to support NGOs. As mentioned in the Context Chapter, tax policy in Cambodia allows just 5% of the adjusted profit to be used as a deductible charitable contribution, and the excess amount will be taxed. The business partners may hesitate to give more to the NGOs since that extra amount will be another expense for the company. Businesses are profit-oriented and unlikely to help the NGOs unless the purpose of helping suits their business interest. So, an increased percentage in this deductible charitable contribution may increase the amount of donation from the business partners. One interviewee said:

If company helps NGO, the government should not tax or any encouragement through another form so that the companies can get the immediate benefits from helping the NGO. (Director of NGO B, 18th June, 2015)

Another reason for the lack of support from the government is the limited national budget for the development plan. As shown in the Context Chapter, Cambodia's national budget is limited and public institutions are usually under-financed. The government depends on external assistance to finance the public investment because of the insufficient national budget.

Seeking different types of funding could be an explanation for why NGOs want to engage business partners in their programs. Berger (2004) mentions that some NGOs may seek to collaborate with businesses when those NGOs have some difficulties in financing their programs. Furthermore, there is currently no formal mechanism for the government to provide grants directly to NGOs working to provide important social services. Therefore,

NGOs have to rely on the external fund from the donors to implement the projects which makes NGOs more vulnerable to the external environment.

5.3.2. Recommendations from the NGOs

Some suggestions were made by the interviewees regarding building effective partnerships between the NGOs, government and their business partners. From the perspectives of the three NGOs, most of the recommendations seem to focus on the involvement of government in two main areas.

The first one is to enforce the law regarding to the encouragement for the private sector to help NGOs in TVET sector. As mention in the Cambodia's Context Chapter, there is still limited policy in encouraging the private sector involvement in TVET. It is quite interesting to notice that all of the three NGOs reported the demotivation of the private sector. Government should encourage, support, and promote NGOs and industry collaboration and establish a system guided by the government. As key informant from the NGO A reported, his NGO has been working in TVET for more than a decade in Cambodia and his NGO has experienced many challenges and difficulties yet somehow his NGO has managed to get through those difficult times. However, after the decrease in funding from the major donors, his NGO needs to learn to survive without depending too much on the funding, and in doing so; his NGO needs the support from the government to strengthen the partnership with the business partners. The legal obligation of the business partners seems to be a suitable option for this partnership. As he pointed out:

We (organisation) work in this field since 1991 so we've been through many hiccups but the global financial crisis really hit our organisation very hard and I'm really afraid that if the government still does not do anything to help us, this NGO may close one day. Even I myself, I help our school by doing the sport event to raise fund for our organisation once in a while. (Senior Officer of NGO A, 1st June, 2015)

The second area that the participants recommend is to raise awareness among young Cambodia students about the TVET so that they can be prepared for the TVET. Key participant from NGO C reported that even every year there are around 5,000 youth to

apply for programs at her NGO, half of the participants are not aware of the TVET. Students are influenced by their friends or their parents. They apply for the TVET program hoping to get a job after graduation, so they lack of the foundation knowledge or passion for the study, and in some serious cases, they quit their studies. One interviewee stated:

One thing that I noticed when we recruit our new students, their knowledge in TVET is very limited... they do not receive any knowledge about TVET in the public school. I think the curriculum about TVET in public school is very limited.
(Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

The in mindset of people in Cambodia appears to be a barrier to undertaking TVET (UNESCO, 2013) and this false image of TVET causes students to be more interested in Bachelor Degrees, which are felt to be superior. Regarding this issue, an interviewee from NGO C suggested that the government should introduce TVET in the school curriculum so that students can prepare themselves for careers in TVET sector. By integrating vocational skills with regular school curriculum may minimise the bad perception of TVET and increase its attractiveness to high school students as the one interviewee suggested:

From my opinion, the public school should strengthen their capacity in developing TVET curriculum... the public school should have well-preparing subjects (courses) in TVET for the students in high school so that they will have some idea what is TVET about and what should they expect out of the course because before we accept students to learn in our school. (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July, 2015)

5.4. Discussion of the Four Themes

This study aims to explore the effectiveness of partnerships between Cambodia's government, NGOs, and the private sector in TVET, particularly from the NGOs' perspectives. This discussion section will be based on my research findings about the three NGOs working in TVET sector in Phnom Penh, Cambodia. Drawing on the literature of partnership in Chapter Two, I will discuss the research findings with the research aim through the emerging themes from the interviews.

The very term “partnership” is vague as Cornwall (2007) mentioned and can span objectives that range from information sharing and getting to know each other better, to learning about how two parties might work together, to specific actions of an interdependence that assign responsibilities and accountabilities to two or more parties. Therefore, the interviewees were questioned regarding their understanding of the term “partnerships”, whether it was sharing information within the actors, or whether it is more primarily concerned with roles and responsibilities, or whether it is more attaining benefits from each other.

5.4.1. Complementary Resources

As Warner and Sullivan (2004) mentioned in tri-sector partnerships for sustainable development, the reason for such good collaboration between the three actors (NGOs, government, and private sector) working together is that they complement each other, and building on core complementary competencies of the three actors is very important for effective partnerships. Building tri-sector partnerships on the resource complementary means that the outcomes of the partnerships are more likely to have direct relevance to the core objectives of each partner organisation. Based on the interviewees the collaboration works well in the sense that each partner brings different resources to the partnerships as summarised in Table 10.

Table 11: Summary of the Resources of Each Partner in Tri-sector Partnerships from Three NGOs’ Perspectives

Government	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provide local development plan - Provide decentralized powers (from central government to the local authorities such as provincial department and school directors)
Private Sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provide employment and internships for students from the NGOs - Give information on the current market demand - Provide inputs in designing the curriculum for the school

NGOs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Have human resource (graduated students) - Provide trainings for the staff at company when needed - Train students for work in industry - Support employment creation for underprivileged youth
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Source: Interviews

According to Table 10, the three actors can work together based on the contribution made by each actor. For example, the government sets out the development plan for the TVET sector and specifies the priorities so that the NGOs can align with the goals/objectives of the development plan. At the same time, the NGOs produce well-trained students for the market/private sector while the private sector provides the inputs for the curriculum and places for the internship for the students. In the interviews, all of the three NGOs confirmed that the curricula of the technical training programmes at the three NGOs are reviewed and updated on a regular basis. With the partnership with the private companies and the government, the participants believed that the strong linkages that the three NGOs maintain with the private companies and the government help the NGOs to get the inputs from the relevant sources. As a result of these tri-sector partnerships, the employment rate of the students who graduate from the three NGOs is almost 100 percent (interviews). If all of the three actors are aware of the value that they can bring into these partnerships, the collaboration between them can be more beneficial to all of the actors. However, to make sure that every actor involves in the partnerships get the benefits is quite challenging in the concept of sustainable development Jimena (2007), so a certain strategy must be built on the positive inputs provided by the three actors.

5.4.2. Levels of Partnerships

Based on the interviews, the level and type of collaboration between NGOs, government and business sector appears to be strongly reliant on the types of the agreements that they signed with each other. Clearly, different types of partnerships reflect different levels of trust, structure and management rules which are agreed by mutual consent as explained by Bezanson (2004) and Warner and Sullivan (2004). Table 11 shows the different types of collaborations of the three partners (NGOs, government, and private sector), and what value each partner is able to deliver to the other.

Table 12: Different Types of Collaboration between the Three Partners

Type of Collaboration	Private Sector			Government		
	<i>NGO A</i>	<i>NGO B</i>	<i>NGO C</i>	<i>NGO A</i>	<i>NGO B</i>	<i>NGO C</i>
Financial Support	✓	✗	✗	✗	✗	✗
Non-financial support	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Involvement in planning process	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗
Capacity Building (provide training)	✓	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗
Memorandum of Understanding	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✓
Volunteering/ Charity events	✓	✗	✓	✓	✓	✓
Internship	✓	✓	✓	✗	✗	✗

Source: interviews

As stated in Table 11, all of the three NGOs started their partnerships with the government with a formal agreement; however, only NGO A managed to have a formal agreement with the business partner. Plane (2007) has explained that formal agreements tend to be made between NGOs and the public sector/local governance, while less formal agreements tend to be made between the NGOs and the business sector because of the perspectives of the business sector towards partnerships. The business sector often perceives partnership as sponsorship through providing resources, training, and expertise in technology (Plane, 2007). This point of view in regard to sponsorship was also mentioned in the interviews. Only a few companies are willing to provide training to the trainers in hope of getting the qualified staff for their companies in the future.

Grant (2013) suggested four elements to consider for successful partnerships and one of the elements is written formal agreement because this written agreement will be a reference in case problems arise in the collaboration. Based on the written agreements (MoU between the Cambodia's government and the three NGOs), the written agreement specifies clearly the common objectives of the partnerships, the scope of the responsibilities and the process of the partnerships. However, the agreement between the NGOs and business partners seemed to be an issue for all three NGOs since these

agreements were mostly verbal (informal). In the case of NGO A, even the formal agreement mentioned above is just between the business partners and the individual student. A study by Harangozo and Zilahy (2015) also mentions that the business sector tends to get more benefit from the collaboration than the NGOs by trying to get more control in the partnerships.

5.4.3. Limitation of Government's Roles in Partnerships

However, even with the formal agreement with the government, the interviews show that the roles and responsibilities of the government are still limited because the government is only involved in the partnership process at the beginning. For the rest of the process, only NGOs and the business partners become active partners. A review of tri-sector partnerships from 1998-2007 by Kooiman (2007), stated that the government has limited ability to be involved in the partnership due to the intervention of development partners. This may be the case in Cambodia, where development partners have long had an influence on the country's education and development plans. In Cambodia, the government has been receiving ODA since 1986 (MoP, 2014) and even now the government still needs ODA from development partners to implement its development plan (MoP, 2014). The influence of the external environment on the development plan of Cambodia about TVET was clearly visible during the implementation of the MDGs. The focus on TVET was started in 2000 when the UNESCO decided to include technical and vocational education as part of EFA initiative in 2000 (Hollander & Mar, 2009). In Cambodia, the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training was first established in 2005 and the first national TVET development plan was created in 2006 (NTB, 2008). Because of the global financial crisis in 2008, TVET has become a pathway for employment of the young people and young adults (UNESCO, 2008). Because of this event, TVET plays an important role in supporting the four priorities sector in NSDP 2009-2013 (MoP, 2009).

5.4.4. Limitation of Private Sector's Role in Partnerships

From the data gathered from the participants, a lack of support in term of financial assistance from the private sector has been raised by the three NGOs. According to Weerawardena (2010), reduction in funding from donors is one of the challenges that influence NGOs to seek new sources of funding in order to maintain their services. Because the major donors in Cambodia such as EU, ADB, and Japan were affected by

the global financial crisis and European Crisis, funding has tended to decrease steadily (Table 3 in Chapter 3) (CDC, 2011). Therefore, getting financial support from the private sector in TVET seems to be a very good solution for the three NGOs. Similarly, Heyneman and Lee (2016) also stated that NGO will be struggling to get funds after 2015, so NGOs are beginning to seek funding from somewhere else like the private sector. In this situation, it would seem that the government should create a friendly/encouraging environment for the private sector to provide financial support to the NGOs in TVET. However, the Law on Taxation (2004) in Cambodia is not favorable for the private sector to contribute financial support to NGOs since the Law limits the amount that the private sector can give to NGOs.

5.4.5. Challenges in TVET for Partnerships

However, the main challenges in the TVET sector in Cambodia are more about the false image of TVET and the poor coordination system between the TVET providers and the business sector at the policy level (MoEYS, 2014; UNESCO, 2013).

In terms of this false image, NGO C confirmed that the real challenge is not about false image of TVET, rather it is about the lack of information about TVET going to the public. In the interviews, the students from NGO C knew about TVET from their friends or their parents, so the students just followed their friends/parents' advice rather than going because of their own passion for TVET. In Cambodia's education system, TVET subjects/curriculum do not merge with the general education in the lower and upper secondary school (MoEYS, 2014). The TVET is only introduced to the youth when the students choose to drop the general education to continue their education in TVET at lower secondary education in another school, not with the same school that teaches the general subjects (Senior Officer of NGO C, 21st July 2015). This lack of public awareness or public campaign of TVET can lead to the misunderstanding or devaluing the image of the TVET.

The second challenge is about the poor coordination system in the public sector (UNESCO, 2013). Even after the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training was established in 2005, the other ministries such as Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, Ministry of Woman Affairs, and Ministry of Social Affairs Labour, Vocational Training and Youth still have their own TVET institution and training systems (NTB, 2008). This

case is similar to that of Bangladesh (Alam, 2008). According to Alam (2008), there are 19 ministries which are involved in the TVET and there is no common standard or curricula in the country because of the poor coordination between the various ministries and the private sector. Also, from the Table 7 in finding section, all of the three NGOs have to sign the same project agreement with more than one ministry, which can increase the paperwork for the NGOs and it is quite time consuming when the NGOs need to get the approval from all of the relevant ministries for the same project.

5.4.6. Challenge or Opportunity

At the international level, there are several challenges that have been discussed in the literature and the most common one is mismatch between the demand of skills in the market and the supply from the TVET providers (Amedorme & Fiagbe, 2013; Maurer, 2012;). Surprisingly, the participants in this present study raised that the updated curriculum is one of the strong points of the partnerships, rather than a challenge. Despite the issues discussed above regarding formal agreements and the potential dominance of NGOs and development partners, tri-sector partnerships in TVET in Cambodia appear to be very successful in providing appropriate training for industry. For this reason, it seems important to counter the negative image of TVET and provide better information to the public about its benefits.

5.5. Chapter Summary

There are four main themes that emerged from the interviews: (1) identified partners and their engagement in tri-sector partnerships in TVET sector, (2) partnering mechanism of the NGOs, (3) challenges and difficulties of working with Cambodia's government and/or private sector, and (4) recommendations from the NGOs to improve the current practice of tri-sector partnerships in TVET. The first two themes of this research show the partnership arrangement within the TVET sector from the NGOs' perspectives while the last two themes explore in-depth in these partnerships by identifying the challenges facing by the NGOs and from their perspectives how can these partnerships can be improved.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1. Introduction

The purpose of this research was to gather, examine, and present data to better understand the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of partnerships between Cambodia's government, NGOs and private sector in TVET. This chapter provides a summary of the thesis, including the research questions, aims and overall findings, and also provides recommendations. There are two sections in this chapter. The first one is about the summary of the key findings of the thesis and how those findings respond to the research questions and research aims. Then the implication of study is the next part which will draw the findings and analysis together. The final one is about the recommendations for further research. It is hoped that the identification of the key factors and conditions contributing to effective partnerships will serve to improve and strengthen future partnerships in TVET in Cambodia and beyond.

6.2. Summary of Key Findings

With the aim of understanding how effective partnerships are between Cambodia's government, NGOs, and private sector in TVET from NGOs' perspectives, the research explored three questions:

1. What are the current existing partnerships in TVET and what challenges do they face?
2. How do the NGOs understand their roles and the effect of that perception within the partnerships?
3. Through participants' experiences and understanding, how can the partnerships be improved?

To answer these questions, a qualitative research design within an interpretive paradigm was used. As this study involved four key participants from three NGOs in TVET sector in Cambodia, the case study was chosen as a methodology. Data was collected from in-depth interviews and analyzed with further document analysis such as NGO's annual report, project agreement with Cambodia's government, and other related document.

The first research question concerns the existing partnerships which the three actors (NGOs, government, and private sector) are practicing now, as well as challenges and difficulties within that collaboration. There are three types of partners listed by the three

NGOs. The first one is the partner ministry and in case of the three NGOs, there are three ministries identified: Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, and Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation. Even though the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training is mandated to be responsible for labour affairs in Cambodia, other ministries still do not hand-over all of the TVET work to the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training. The second partner identified by the NGOs is their business partner. Not all of their business partners have a written agreement with the NGOs; therefore, to some extent their collaboration is still considered limited. The third partner identified is other NGOs working in the TVET sector. The responses from the interviewees showed that their NGO partners are NGOs that are funded from the same source. The challenges indicated in this study included the violation of agreements by business partners, a lack of commitment from business partners, and the current financial situation of NGOs. Partnerships can be complicated when there are many partners involved in the process, so it is essential for NGOs to develop strategies and to take the initiative and approach different partners for discussions which may lead to mutually beneficial partnerships.

The second research question was to identify the roles and responsibilities of each actor (government, business sector, and NGOs) from the NGOs' perspective in this current practice of partnership. In determining their role, NGOs need to be aware of the potential resources and investment that may be required to support partnership activities such as creating an up-to-date curriculum so that NGOs can provide the skilled graduates to match the need of industry partners. The roles and responsibilities of the three actors (government, business partner, and NGOs) have been identified throughout various working mechanisms (from recruiting new students to the graduation of the students). Based on the interviews, the involvement of the government is still limited to the first stage of student recruitment. Beyond that there is a lack of technical and financial support. On the other hand, the business partners seem to be considered as active partners since the business partners engage with the NGOs throughout the student training and employment process. For the NGOs, they perceive themselves as the human resource provider for the business partners as they train the students to fit with the current demand of the market.

The third question sought recommendations from the participants to overcome the difficulties and how they think partnerships can be improved so that the future partnerships between NGOs, government, and the private sector will enhance the quality of training collaborations. From these findings, there are two main recommendations from the interviewees. The first one is enhancing the involvement of the business sector through government policy. Since the decrease in funding from donors due to the global financial crisis, the three NGOs need to diversify their sources of funding, and partnerships with the business partners seems to be one possible option. This possibility would be more viable if the government created a more favorable environment for the NGOs to collaborate with the business partners, for example by adjusting existing policies or creating a new policy to fit the new environment. The second recommendation is to try to counteract the negative image of TVET among Cambodian people. TVET continues to be considered inferior to education such as Bachelor Degrees. To counter this, interviewees argued that Cambodia's government should add TVET to the high school curriculum to raise awareness among students, as well as launch a series of campaigns to reduce the misperception of TVET.

6.3. Implications of the Study

In order to improve the current practice of partnerships in TVET, the effort from the NGOs or the effort from government or the effort from the private sector alone is not enough because the one actor is not capable of improving the TVET by itself. The government needs commitment from the NGOs and private sector, and this can be accomplished through partnerships as the partnerships will bring together all relevant actors into one forum. Based upon the findings, the study raises the following implications which could be considered by the government, by NGOs, and by the private sector.

6.3.1. Government

The first implication is about the role of the government. Since the lack of information of TVET to the public is the challenge for the NGOs in TVET, government should integrate TVET subject/curriculum into the overall education system so that there is horizontal as well as vertical mobility making the TVET stream more attractive, and allowing those who drop-out for various reasons to get into the TVET system upgrade their skills and leave the system and come back when convenient and affordable. Also, the Cambodian government may well consider the allocation of funding to nonprofit organisations since

the fund from the donors has been decreased. There is also a need on the part of many governments in all levels to encourage the private sector to invest in TVET and then to support these initiatives so that these efforts could eventually lead to more well-trained students. The government might want to reconsider the taxes on charity contributions so that the private sector would be more willing to donate more income to the NGOs in TVET. Moreover, the government should set up national coordinating bodies to oversee the TVET system in Cambodia and these bodies include representatives from the government, and the private sector so that all of the three actors can meet regularly to identify problems and resolve them. These mechanisms also help to prevent duplication of efforts and wastage of resources so that the providing programs are really for the disadvantaged population groups.

From the literature and from the data gathered, it could be inferred that the three actors were not fully aware of their roles and responsibilities in the tri-sector partnerships because their partnerships are largely negotiated through verbal agreements (informal). Even with formal written agreements between the government and the NGOs, there are still some limitations of roles and responsibilities. Therefore, in these partnerships, the government does have a vital role in establishing an environment that encourages partnerships. The government should decentralise power to local government to facilitate the working process of the NGOs and the private sector in line with development objectives so it will bring the NGOs' objectives and business's objectives closer. When the objectives of each partner align with one another, the partnership will likely to be effective and successful.

6.3.2. Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

In the discussion part, it was shown that NGOs are struggling with a shortage of funds because financial aid has been decreasing, so the NGOs should find additional financial support, or grants, to help develop and sustain the training initiatives needed by their business partners. With additional funds, NGOs could organise a range of staff development programs that could meet the needs of the various industries located in the region. Raising funds both from the government and private sector may be the key in order to maintain the financial situation of NGOs and the growth of the TVET sector. The government and the private sector may help the NGOs to survive at the moment.

Another issue is the agreement between NGOs and the business partners. Agreement should be for the whole partnerships process between the NGOs and the business partners, not only for the duration of the internship. Formal written agreements should start from the beginning of the collaboration because the agreement helps not only outline mutual expectations but also any required changes in the job roles of those who are involved in the partnership. Therefore, when something happens unexpectedly, there is already a reference point in the written arrangement, and the partnership is more likely to survive any such occurrence. Through the partnerships with the business partners and government, NGOs can maintain close interactions with industry that are necessary to overcome the skill mismatches and make TVET more market oriented.

6.3.3. Private Sector

By forming partnerships with NGOs and government, companies can both take advantage of competencies of each party and contribute to the economic development of the community at the same time. Business is in a state of constant change in a highly competitive marketplace. Businesses require the services of NGOs who are willing to keep up with them as the NGOs are able to meet the required skills needed. Also, the improvement of industrial production processes and productivity can be achieved through these partnerships. However, based on the discussion part, some business partners consider this kind of collaboration as expenditure rather than an investment.

6.4. Recommendations for Further Research

The participants in this research openly shared their experiences regarding partnerships between their business partners and their ministry partners. The results of this research and themes emerged from the coding of the interview transcripts and based on the analysis of the effective partnerships between the three actors (government, business partners, and NGOs) shows that further study is needed. There are two areas that the further research should focus on.

Firstly, various factors which impact the tri-sector partnerships in TVET should be explored in more depth to examine the benefits and challenges in maintaining partnerships between NGOs, government, and private sector. The interviewees noted that all of their students have successfully entered the job market. So, additional research is needed to examine the impact of existing partnerships between NGOs, government, and

private sector on the students, organisations, society as well as the country as a whole. It would be interesting to follow the partnerships through their next phases (how they move from the current stage of partnerships to the next level of partnerships), especially as they develop through the next stage of partnership, how the roles and responsibilities of each actor may change or may not change. The next phase of the partnerships might be where all of the three actors have formal agreements with each other, and the private sector are more willing to contribute financial assistance to the NGOs while the government becomes more active in the partnerships.

The second one is how to integrate the private TVET providers into these tri-sector partnerships. In Cambodia's context, there are 227 private providers of TVET training and this research focused only on NGOs as the TVET providers. However, I believe that business organisations as TVET providers also play an important role in producing a qualified human resource since there are many industries and vocational training providers in all regions. Thus, further study is needed to explore not only the benefits that the private training providers can provide to these partnerships but also the challenges and difficulties they will bring into these partnerships.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Ethics Approval



Phone 0-4-463 5676
Fax 0-4-463 5209
Email Allison.kirkman@vuw.ac.nz

MEMORANDUM

TO	Sokha Chhun
COPY TO	John Overton
FROM	Dr Allison Kirkman, Convener, Human Ethics Committee
DATE	21 April 2015
PAGES	1
SUBJECT	Ethics Approval: 21825 Partnerships between Cambodia's Government, NGOs, and Private Sector in Technical and Vocational Education Training

Thank you for your application for ethical approval, which has now been considered by the Standing Committee of the Human Ethics Committee.

Your application has been approved from the above date and this approval continues until 26 February 2016. If your data collection is not completed by this date you should apply to the Human Ethics Committee for an extension to this approval.

Best wishes with the research.

Allison Kirkman
Human Ethics Committee



Appendix 2: Key Themes for the Interviews



Key Themes for the Interview

Research Title: Partnerships between Cambodia’s Government, NGOs, and Private Sector

in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET).

The following key themes will be the focus of the interview. The interview will last up to an hour or more.

1. Participant’s Information (name, occupation, and working experiences)
2. Participant’ understanding of the key term “ partnership”
3. Participan’ perceptions towards effective partnership
4. In participant’ experiences, what are the criteria of effective partnership?
5. Participant’ perceptions of the successful stories and/or challenges of working with Cambodia’s government and/or private sector
6. Participant’ suggestions/recommendations about current partnership.

Appendix 3: Participant Information Sheet



Participant Information Sheet

I would like to invite you to take part in my research project on **Partnerships between Cambodia's Government, NGOs, and Private Sector in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET)**. The research is conducted to find out the perceptions of the three actors towards partnerships and how to improve the current practice of the partnerships between these three actors in TVET sector. The project has been approved by Victoria's Human Ethics Committee.

The research will include semi-structure interview and observation, so I will conduct interviews with several voluntary informants from the management team of the NGOs which are currently working in Phnom Penh and Siem Reap Province in TVET sector. You will have an individual interview of about 50 minutes with researcher to express your opinions and experiences related to the topic.

In the interviews, with your permission, all of your responses will be recorded, noted and transcribed at a later date. If at any point in an interview you do not want to answer a question, you can skip that question because your participation is voluntary. You may also request that the tape-recorder be turned off if you find it uncomfortable. If you decide you would like to withdraw from the study, you can have up until 1st of September 2015 to let researcher know.

All of your responses will be used for the purpose of the study only. A summary of the research and the transcript will be sent to each participant if you wish. Your name and other identification will not put into a written report. All of the collected materials will kept confidential and only researcher and their supervisor can access the information. The written report will be submitted for marking to the School of Geography, Environment

and Earth Sciences at Victoria University of Wellington, and subsequently deposited in the University Library.

Should you have any questions about the project, please do not hesitate to contact me at [REDACTED] or telephone [REDACTED] or you may contact my supervisor Professor [REDACTED] of School of Geography, Environment and Earth Sciences at Victoria University of Wellington at [REDACTED] or telephone [REDACTED]

Sokha Chhun

Appendix 4: Participant Consent Form



Participant Consent Form

Research Title: Partnerships between Cambodia's Government, NGOs, and Private Sector
in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET).

I have read and understood the information presented in the participant information sheet and have had any questions answered to my satisfaction.

I confirm that:

- ☐ I understand that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw at any time from the study
before 1st of September 2015 without having to give any reason
- ☐ I give my consent to take part in the study
- ☐ I understand that any information I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and
their supervisor.
- ☐ I understand that the published results will not use my name, and that no opinions will be
attributed to me in any way that will identify me
- ☐ I understand that the data I provide will not be used for any other purpose or released to others
- ☐ I agree to the interviews being recorded for later transcription
- ☐ I would like to receive a summary of the results of this research when it is completed.

Signed:

Name of Participant:

Date:

Appendix 5: Invitation Email to Participants



Invitation Email to Participants

Dear [title and name],

I hope you are doing fine. My name is Chhun Sokha. I am studying Master's Degree in Development Studies at Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand. In order to complete the degree, i need to write one thesis and my thesis title is **Partnerships between Cambodia's Government, NGOs and Private Sector in Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET)**, particularly i only choose NGOs which are currently working in Phnom Penh and Siem Reap Province in TVET sector. The objective of my research is to examine how effective Cambodia's Government, NGOs, and private sector work together in term of partnership in TVET sector.

Now, i am in the stage of collecting data, so i asked permission from the university to collect the raw data in Cambodia for 2 months. Therefore, i hope you could spare some of your valuable time for me to conduct the interview. The interview will only take 50 minutes to one hour for the longest, and it would be very helpful if you could drop me an email to confirm your participation in this study. In this email, i attach Information Sheet and Consent Form that could help you to understand more about my thesis. You will be asked to sign a consent form once your participant has been confirmed. You can choose to return your consent form by email me or return at scheduled interview.

If you have any question about my thesis, please do not hesitate to contact me through this email or through phone number: [phone number].

Thank you so much for your kind support and your time.

Best regards,

Sokha Chhun

Appendix 6: Formal Letter for Participants

Formal Letter for Participants

Appendix 7: List of NGOs in TVET Sector in Phnom Penh and Siem Reap Province

List of NGOs in TVET Sector in Phnom Penh and Siem Reap Province			
No.	NGO Name	Type	Project Name
1	Asian Hope Cambodia (AHC)	INGO	Asian Hope Schools, Village Development Program, Teacher Training Program, Higher Education and Learning Program
2	Agape International Missions (AIM)	INGO	Prevention (Churches), ARC, Svay Pak, AIM Institute, Bloom Cafe Training Center
3	NGO ALC Communications (ALC)	INGO	Language and Technical Skill Training and Sending the Trainees to Work in Japan
4	Associazione Lo Scoiattolo Onlus (ALSO)	INGO	Vocational Training
5	Agir Pour Le Cambodge (APLC)	INGO	Sala Bai Hotel and Restaurant School
6	Banking Technical College (BTC)	LNGO	Apparel Sewing Training Courses
			Computer Science Training Courses
			Foreign Language Training Courses
			Hospitality Training Courses
			Library Science Training Courses
7	CARE International in Cambodia (CARE)	INGO	Personal Advancement and Career Enhancement (PACE)
8	Cambodian Children's Fund (CCF)	INGO	Cambodian Children's Fund

9	Cambodian Dutch Organisation (CDO)	LNGO	English Education Program
10	Cambodia International Education Support Foundation (CIESF)	INGO	Establishment of a Graduate School of Education
			Spread Entrepreneur Education and Support Venture Business
			Technical and Vocational Education and Training
11	Centre Kram Ngoy (CKN)	LNGO	Integration of Technology and Vocational Idea in Educational System
12	Center for Khmer Studies (CKS)	LNGO	Summer Junior Resident Fellowship
13	Cambodia Trust (CT)	INGO	Rehabilitation Project
14	Cambodian Women's Development Agency (CWDA)	LNGO	Vocational and Education Training
15	Don Bosco Foundation of Cambodia (DBFC)	INGO	Don Bosco Technical School-Phnom Penh
			Don Bosco Vocational School for Girls
16	Hearts of Gold (HG)	INGO	New Child Care Center (NCCC)
17	Japan-Asia Culture Exchange (JACE)	INGO	JACE NGOs School
18	Japan - Cambodia Interactive Association (JCIA)	INGO	Vocational Training for the Disabled, Poor People and Supporting Orphans
19	Journey Within Our Community (JWOC)	LNGO	Scholarship Program
20	KAMONOHASHI Project (KAMONOHASHI)	INGO	Community Enterprise Project

21	Khmer for Khmer Organisation (KKO)	LNGO	School for Vocational Training and Education
22	Korea Ministry Support Center (KMSC)	INGO	Phnom Penh Technical School and Koma Vision Center
23	New Life Foundation (NLF)	INGO	Office Skills Training Center
24	ONG Formation et Progres-Cambodge (ONG-FPC)	INGO	Ecole d'hotellerie et de Tourisme Poul Dubrule
25	Passerelles Numeriquesv (PN)	INGO	Center for Information Systems Training
26	Pour un Sourire d'Enfant (PSE)	INGO	PSE Institute
25	University of the Nations (U of N)	INGO	English Language and Job Skills Training Center
			Youth Leadership Training
26	Vicheasthan Bondos Bondal Neak Krup Krong Karnea Akphiwat (VBNK)	LNGO	Management Service
27	WEC International Cambodia (WEC)	INGO	Vocational Training Centre

Noted: INGO means International NGO, LNGO means Local NGO

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