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Master of Science in Business & Management

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The Client-Consultant Relationship in a Nonprofit Setting

An exploratory study

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to understand how the client-consultant relationship in a management consulting project is affected by a nonprofit setting, i.e. a situation in which the consulting is done *by* an NPO *for* another NPO. The research design is built around an exploratory case study, due to the nascent state of theory and literature available on management consulting projects in a nonprofit setting. 180 Degrees Consulting, the world's largest student-driven consultancy, serves as case organization. 17 semi-structured interviews, two field observations and a document review were conducted. The thesis yields three major findings: 1. Motivation and commitment among consultants is highly impacted by the cause (i.e. "mission") of the client organization. 2. Trust and acceptance are reached easily as a result of the parties having similar values and drive; and due to the lack of financial incentives for volunteer consultants. 3. The expectations of the project outcome are mixed as an effect of the nonprofit setting. While most clients have lower expectations when working with volunteers, the expectations of others remain unchanged. From this, three conclusions can be drawn: 1. Motivation and commitment are vital aspects of the relationship and their sources are in line with volunteer motivation theory, including a strong altruistic element. 2. The nonprofit setting works as a source of trust, acceptance and respect in itself, due to an "ingroup" feeling between the client and consultants. 3. Expectation alignment is complicated by differing perceptions regarding the quality of work done by volunteers.

Key words: management consulting, 180 Degrees Consulting, client-consultant relationship, nonprofit organization, nonprofit setting

Authors: Hannes Jakobsson (21811) and Gregor Kainz (40503)

Supervisor: Filip Wijkström

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1. Introduction

A world of global challenges

More than ever before, humanity is facing truly global problems. From trying to minimize the effects of men-caused global warming to efforts for alleviating extreme poverty, humanity is faced with challenges of tremendous scale and magnitude (UN, 2014). At the same time, the public sector nowadays in many industrial countries, and especially so in Europe, seems paralyzed by the obstacles faced nationally. High levels of public debt, rising income inequality and mass unemployment continue to rattle the very foundations of modern welfare states. The financial crisis of 2008 has further aggravated an already precarious situation. Since governments are already overwhelmed by the problems they face at a national level, addressing truly global issues often becomes an afterthought, as exemplified by the last UN Climate Change Conference in Warsaw, where not more than a minimal consensus could be reached (UN, 2014).

Entrance of the Nonprofit Sector

Given the increasing complexity and diversity of problems societies face worldwide in the 21st century and the limited ability of the public sector to deal with them, one can conclude that the nonprofit sector, or third sector, will increasingly be counted on for resolving some of those issues. From the small, flexible grass-root initiatives to globally operating, professional organizations like Amnesty International or the Red Cross, the sector shows an incredible adaptability when it comes to addressing different problems. Individual citizens, who want to take matters into their own hands, but also governments themselves, who understand the need for a strong civil society, drive this process forward (Salamon, 1994).

On the other hand, nonprofit organizations (NPOs) today, are faced with an increasingly competitive environment, fighting with others for funds, government contracts and volunteers. Consequently, many NPOs have turned to methods from the business world to help them deal with such pressures. Performance measurement, program evaluation, strategic planning and many other for-profit tools have been broadly adopted by the third sector (Epstein et al., 2009; Hwang & Powell, 2009).

1.1 Research Problem and Gap

The consequent professionalization of nonprofit management also opened the door for another emerging phenomenon: the use of management consultants by nonprofit organizations (Hwang & Powell, 2009). Already in 1999 there were roughly 3,000 organizations that provided nonprofit consulting services in the U.S. and the number has been growing steadily since then (Baumann et al., 1999). Yet, so far there has been but limited scholarly interest in the overlapping field of management consulting and nonprofit management: A systematic literature search that was conducted, looking for nonprofit-related articles in consulting journals as well as consulting-related articles in leading nonprofit management journals, yielded only a handful of relevant results (Appendix 1), indicating a clear gap in the literature. The gap is supported by that both, in academic literature (Coates, 1997; Allison, 2002) as well as in popular literature (Cagney, 2010) the need for more research on management consulting for NPOs is stated.

NPOs are in many respects very different from regular businesses, which are the organizations that research on management consulting historically has focused on. For example they differ in their mission-drive, the use of volunteers and the non-distribution constraint (Salamon & Anheier, 1997). Because of this, it is important to shed light on how such factors might influence management consulting projects conducted in a nonprofit setting.

1.2 Purpose and Research Question

The purpose of this study is to better understand a very unique setting of management consulting, namely one in which the consulting is done *by* an NPO *for* another NPO. This will hereafter be referred to as a "nonprofit setting". Since, to the authors' knowledge, no study has so far looked at this specific setting, conducting such research can be expected to yield interesting results (Yin, 2009).

According to Kipping & Clark (2012), management consulting is at its heart "an advisory activity built on the client-consultant relationship". Therefore, shedding light on the relationship between clients and consultants is an important step in understanding how management consulting for NPOs works. Consequently, this research focuses on how the client-consultant relationship develops in such a nonprofit setting. This cumulates in the following research question:

How is the client-consultant relationship in a management consultancy project affected by a nonprofit setting?

In order to answer this question we aim to answer the following sub-questions:

- *Which aspects of the client-consultant relationship are affected by a non-profit setting?*
- *How are these aspects of the relationship affected?*
- *Which aspects of the nonprofit setting affect the relationship?*
- *How can the influence on the relationship, that the nonprofit setting has, be explained?*

Due to its exploratory nature, this study will be built around qualitative research methods (Edmonston & McManus, 2007). A case study approach was chosen, since it was seen as most suitable for gaining in-depth knowledge of such a contemporary phenomenon (Yin, 2009). Consequently, with this thesis the research field on management consulting will be complemented with a case study on the niche topic of the client-consultant relationship when one NPO consults another.

1.3 Clarification of terms in use

The terms "nonprofit sector" and "third sector" will be used synonymously in this thesis. Herein, the term "nonprofit setting" refers to a situation in which both, the client and the consultancy firm are NPOs, whereas a situation where both parties are for-profit organizations is referred to as a "for-profit setting".

1.4 Disposition

In order to answer the above-stated research question the Background (Section 2) will first of all focus on explaining and combining the two underlying phenomena – the rise of the nonprofit sector and of management consulting. Thereafter, in the Theoretical Foundation (Section 3) a thorough literature review on both those research areas is presented as well as an explanation of how these will be used to set up our study. Additionally, theories and concepts that will be used to explain our results are presented. This is followed by the introduction of the Case Organization (Section 4) and the Methodology that has been used in this study (Section 5). The results will then be displayed (Section 6), providing answers to the three first sub-questions of the research question. The results will be explained by the theories and concepts in the Analysis (Section 7), in order to address the last sub-question. The Discussion (Section 8) takes a critical look back at the study conducted and its results as well as highlights further research areas. Thereafter, the Conclusion (Section 9) section deducts essential points from the research. Finally, a full list of references and appendices can be found.

2. Background

In this chapter the two underlying drivers of the study are presented – the growing importance of the nonprofit sector for overcoming societal problems and the rise of management consulting. Thereafter, the intersection of those trends - the recent development of management consulting towards nonprofit organizations, is demonstrated, paying special attention to the case in which the consultancy is an NPO as well.

2.1 The rise of the nonprofit sector

The economic relevance of the nonprofit sector

Salamon (1994) defines nonprofit organizations as "self-governing private organizations, not dedicated to distributing profits to shareholders or directors, pursuing public purposes outside of the formal apparatus of the state". According to data provided by Salamon et al. (2013) "the nonprofit workforce, including paid and volunteer workers, makes up 7.4% of the total workforce on average in the thirteen countries on which full data are available". This puts the sector in front of large industries such as finance and transportation. Furthermore, in six of those countries, nonprofit organizations account for more than 10% of the total workforce (Salamon et al., 2013). Including the value of volunteer work, NPOs account for 4.5% of the gross domestic product (GDP) on average of those countries, roughly the same share as the construction industry (Salamon et al., 2013). In a selected number of fields that have high public relevance, such as arts, education or recreation, the added value by NPOs is particularly high.

Also, the nonprofit sector is a constantly growing field. In eight countries, on which longitudinal data is available, the sector grew at a rate of 5.8% annually (late 1990s to mid-2000s), outpacing the average GDP growth of 5.2% in those economies (Salamon et al., 2013). Furthermore, nonprofit organizations are not only on the rise in industrial countries, but also in many emerging economies (Salamon, 1994). From the roughly 100.000 Christian Base Communities in Brazil to the more than 10.000 nonprofit organizations registered in Bangladesh – there is a multitude of examples available proving that one is dealing with a truly global phenomenon (Salamon, 1994).

Moreover, one does not do justice to the third sector by simply looking at it in terms of employment and its contribution to a country's GDP. Hwang & Powell (2009) estimate that somewhere between 29% and half of all American adults volunteered in some kind of charitable work in 2005, indicating the strong idealistic and socio-political element captured by the sector. Salamon (1994) reasons that "virtually all of America's major social movements […] whether civil rights, environmental, consumer, women's or conservative, have had their roots in the nonprofit sector", making it an important breeding ground for political and social change.

The sector's growing importance, economically and politically, has three underlying drivers: Regular people who want to make a difference in society, governments that embrace the nonprofit sector to cut public social spending (a strategy prominently pursued by Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher in the 1980s), and outside institutions such as the Catholic Church that contribute to the sector (Salamon, 1994).

The nonprofit sector – a diverse field of organizations

The sector is characterized by an incredible diversity of organizations, which is why authors have repeatedly described a clear delimitation of this academic field as difficult (van Til 1988; Salamon, 1994; Wijkström, 2004). With this in mind, three relevant dimensions were identified to consider when talking about the nonprofit sector: type of organizations, functions they fulfil, and differences between countries.

First off, one needs to understand that there is not a typical nonprofit organization. For instance, in Austria NPOs range from small purely voluntary organizations ("Vereine") to large professionally run foundations ("Stiftungen") (Badelt, et al., 2007). Similarly, in Sweden the sector includes everything from small student organizations to large popular movements, the so-called "folkrörelse" (Wijkström, 2004).

A second element of delimitation is the variety in functions that organizations fulfil. Most prominently, NPOs are divided into advocacy organizations and service providers (Lundström and Wikström, 1997). The first being vehicles to give voice to certain groups such as trade unions or ethnic and political minorities. Service providers on the other hand focus on performing different welfare services such as running drug rehabilitation centers, providing elderly care and much more. Other researchers, for example Salamon (1997), have outlined even more nuanced roles for NPOs, however for the sake of this thesis the differentiation between advocacy organizations and service-providers is seen as a sufficiently detailed classification.

Salamon et al. (2013) estimate that in 2013 almost 75% of gross value added by NPOs comes from service-performing organizations, in the 14 countries considered (Salamon et al. 2013). One consequence of this dominance of service provision is that organizations primarily generate revenues through fees and charges (e.g. from service recipients or government contracts) rather than through donations. This goes against the popular sentiment that NPOs primarily rely on the goodwill of their donors to secure funding (Salamon et al., 2013).

For the third dimension, national differences, one illustrative example should be mentioned: The reformation in the 16th century has led to the creation of a State's church in Sweden and the removal of the Catholic Church. This is why the Catholic Church does not play a role in Sweden's nonprofit sector today (Wijkström, 2004), which is is very different to a country like Austria, where strong Catholic institutions prevailed for a long time. Consequently, even today, church-associated organizations like the "Caritas Österreich" are important players in the Austrian nonprofit landscape (Pennerstorfer et al., 2013), being involved in such diverse areas as development aid, homeless shelters and immigration. Other factors, which are popularly mentioned as explanations for national differences between nonprofit sectors, are different levels of welfare state regimes and a different understanding of the role of democracy in the third sector (Salamon & Anheier, 1997).

Different perspectives on the third sector

After having illustrated how multi-faceted the third sector is, it should not come as a surprise to the reader that there are fundamentally different ways of how to understand this phenomenon overall. Wijkström (2004) distinguishes between the nonprofit, the mutual and the movement approach.

The nonprofit approach is the one that has so far, implicitly, been taken. Influenced by business and management thinking, it tries to understand third-sector organizations as "a special kind of firm […] whose objective function is other than that of profit-maximization" (Wijkström, 2004).

The mutual approach, on the other hand, comes from political science and sociology and is "interested in associations in which people organize to be able to meet shared needs and that serve their own members", thereby focusing on self-help groups, cooperatives and similar arrangements (Wijkström, 2004). Coming from a similar field (political science, sociology, but also cultural studies) the movement approach is primarily looking to understand "societal phenomena like social movements, citizens' participation, social cohesion and social capital" (Wijkström, 2004).

Hereafter the authors will continue to speak of "the nonprofit sector" without taking other approaches further into account. Nevertheless, it should be highlighted that other perspectives, which treat this phenomenon very differently, do exist.

2.2 The rise of the management consulting industry

IT outsourcing, systems integration, business process outsourcing, management consulting and many more – the number of consulting services on the market has skyrocketed in recent years (Toppin & Czerniawska , 2005). Yet, "management consulting" per se, defined by Kipping & Clark (2012), should be understood as follows:

"Management consulting is the professional service performed by specially trained and experienced persons in helping managers identify and solve managerial and operating problems of the various institutions of our society […] This professional service focuses on improving the managerial, operating, and economic performance of those institutions."

However, even with this clear definition in mind, the diversity of tasks and the complexity that the practice of management consulting entails should be acknowledged (Furusten, 2009). In practice, there are no clear-cut lines for who is a management consultant and who is not, let alone what their concrete tasks are.

Growth in recent decades

One can estimate the size of the global market for management consulting for 2010 at around $150 billion, out of about $350 billion for the consulting market overall (Kipping & Clark, 2012). However, a clear delimitation to other consulting services (IT consulting, outsourcing and others) seems almost impossible and therefore such numbers should be used as a means of grasping the magnitude of the industry, rather than as precise estimates. Furthermore, such data does not consider the size of company-internal consulting services, as are common in many large-scale corporations today.

The industry has seen extraordinary growth since its early beginnings with industry growth rates of over 20% in the 1980s and '90s (Glückler & Armbrüster, 2003; O'Mahoney, 2010). In 1954 in the U.S., by far the biggest market at the time, total revenues of consulting firms reached around $426 million. Accounting for time value of money, this was equivalent to just $3.45 billion in 2010, which is only a fraction of what the industry is today. Similarly, the UK market, a

somewhat developed market in 1956, has grown a hundred times since then, and now generates almost $23.5 billion annually (Kipping & Clark, 2012). Despite this significant growth of the overall market size, management consulting is still rather small compared to other industries. It accounts for just about 0.7% of European GPD in 2010, compared to 0.53% in the year 2000 (FEACO, 2010; Kipping & Clark, 2012).

However, similar to the nonprofit sector, the rise of management consulting cannot only be understood in terms of total revenues or percentage of GDP. Management consulting has seen emerging academic interest in recent years because the management consultant exemplifies the modern "knowledge worker" like few other professions do: "Their rise has been seen as synonymous with the development of a new economy in which knowledge and intellectual abilities have become the key source of competitive advantage for companies" (Kipping & Clark, 2012).

Reasons for the industry's growth

The institutional explanation attributes the rise of management consulting to the constantly changing economic circumstances, which knowledge-intensive firms can help companies deal with (Maister, 1993). The revolution in information technology and the globalization of markets happened at such a pace that many organizations increasingly started to rely on consulting firms, with their analytical capabilities and up-to-date management knowledge, to support them in their decision-making (Glückler & Armbrüster, 2003). Building on transaction cost theory it is argued that buying consulting services is increasingly preferred over building up capacities in-house because management knowledge changes frequently and is often needed only sporadically by organizations (Williamson, 1979; Glückler & Armbrüster, 2003).

Toppin & Czerniawska (2005) argue that one should hire consultants for one of two reasons: "To gain access to specific knowledge, experience, tool-sets, frameworks and expertise in an area the client chooses not to build internally" or to "allow an unbiased outsider on a specific issue or problem the client has" (Toppin & Czerniawska, 2005). Nevertheless, they stress that the motives for hiring consultants are sometimes very different and less admirable, such as using consultants to back up one's own actions or for personal career gains (Toppin & Czerniawska, 2005).

2.3 Combining the fields: Management Consulting for Nonprofit Organizations

New Public Management and Marketization of the third sector

One cannot talk about management consulting for NPOs without talking about the influence of New Public Management first. Defined by Eikenberry & Kluver (2008) as "the public sector [...] increasingly adopting the methods and values of the market to guide policy creation and management", it brought along a strong emphasis on performance measurement and the contracting-out of public services to private service providers, starting in the mid-1980s. It resulted in an "increased belief in competition and market-like arrangements even in traditional fields of welfare, like social services, health care and education" (Wijkström, 2004).

With nonprofit organizations taking over larger parts of welfare provision, they became an essential answer for the increasing inability of the public sector to deal with certain issues concerning welfare (Wijkström, 2004). However, with governments becoming more dependent on the third sector to provide public services they have, as a reaction, continuously increased the required levels of accountability for NPOs (Smith, 2010). This resulted in greater regulation and performance-based contracting. Consequently, New Public Management–thinking started to impact the third sector as well. Performance measurement, for instance, has become a big topic for nonprofit organizations and is increasingly attracting scholarly interest (Epstein & Buhovac 2009; Salamon et al. 2010; Epstein & McFarlan, 2011; Benjamin, 2012).

However, governments are not the only ones who put pressure on third-sector organizations today. Individual donors become increasingly demanding of the organizations they fund. This paradigm shift, referred to as "new philanthropy" by McCully (2000), emphasises cross-sectorial solutions and focuses on funding issues to be addressed, rather than institutions. Consequently, the donors too, want to see concrete, measurable results.

The emergence of concepts such as social return on investment (SROI) or Social Impact Assessment need to be seen as a reaction by NPOs to deal with those expectations (European SROI Network, 2014). When combining these developments with the "rising popularity of venture philanthropy […] and social entrepreneurship, […] both of which draw heavily on metrics and practices from the for-profit sector [...] one sees a broad, seismic shift toward organizational rationalization underway in the nonprofit sector" (Hwang & Powell, 2009).

This increasing "marketization", at term coined by Salamon (1997), leads to the nonprofit sector becoming "more market-like in their actions, structures, and philosophies" (Eikenberry & Kluver, 2008). This may result positively in efficiency gains, better targeting of services and higher accountability and legitimacy for nonprofit organizations. However, one needs to be critical of this adaption of for-profit methods by the nonprofit sector since it could put at risk the component of democracy and citizenship in NPOs, which is such an important element in the third sector for developing a civil society (Eikenberry & Kluver, 2008). The sector's obligation to represent public interests and consider not just what is legally possible, but also what is morally just, could be undermined (Hodkin, 1993). Eikenberry & Kluver (2008) argue that "a corporate model, which stresses the values of strategy development, risk taking, and competitive positioning, is incompatible with the nonprofit model, which stresses the values of community participation, due process, and stewardship".

Professionalization and management consulting in the nonprofit sector

One consequence of New Public Management influences and the marketization trend has been the increasing professionalization of nonprofit management. Already Salamon (1994) highlights that professionalism is crucial for nonprofit organizations if they want to be taken seriously: "Managers of third-sector organizations will have to give more attention to training and technical assistance, and […] have to go beyond 'feel-good philanthropy'" (Salamon, 1994).

In a world of increasing complexity that requires advanced qualifications, knowledge workers are more important than ever. Consequently, this expansion of professionalism has impacted all areas of society, but particularly the nonprofit sector, where amateurs and volunteers previously used to set the tone (Karl, 1998). Nonprofit managers have taken up business models and practices to adapt to those new circumstances (Hwang & Powell, 2009). Therefore,

"professional" management in NPOs needs to be understood both as a result and, at least partially, as a driver of the marketization of the third sector.

Hwang & Powell (2009) identify the use of strategic planning, independent financial audits, quantitative program evaluation, and consultants as the main indicators of the degree of professionalization in a nonprofit organization. Based on this the use of management consulting by NPOs should be understood as an important element of the professionalization of nonprofit management overall.

The value of management consulting for nonprofit organizations

At this point one might critically ask the following: Is management consulting for nonprofit organizations a good thing? After all, Eikenberry & Kluver (2008) have sufficiently highlighted the downside of the marketization trend in NPOs. And using management consultants, with their for-profit, private sector ideas, only accelerates this process. At a general level, "every organization benefits from being scrutinized and challenged by an objective […] person" (Toppin & Czerniawska, 2005). Having an external expert who question one's most fundamental assumptions about the own organization will be as fruitful for a nonprofit as it is for any other organization. And for nonprofit organizations in particular, additional value lies in working with management consultants to better be able to fulfill the expectations that are placed on their organization by its donors, the government and others (or at least create the image of doing so) (Furusten & Werr, 2009).

Nonprofit organizations consulting other nonprofit organizations – a growing niche

Already in 1999 around 3000 consultancies offered their services to nonprofit clients in the U.S. (Baumann et al., 1999). More than 2000 of those are what Bauman et al. (1999) refer to as "solo practitioners", small one-person consultancies. While those make up the lion share of people consulting NPOs, generating 31% of total market revenues in 1999, there are also medium-sized players, with up to a couple of hundred in staff (Baumann et al., 1999). Some of those are organized as NPOs themselves, for instance as academic think-tanks or foundations.

Nowadays, also most of the larger, well-renowned management consultancies take on projects for nonprofit clients in one form or another. Organizations like the Boston Consulting Group or McKinsey & Company pride themselves in regularly delivering pro bono (i.e. for free) consulting projects to third-sector clients (Baumann et al., 1999). Accenture and Bain & Company have taken an even bigger step, setting up separate entities for consulting nonprofit clients. Accenture has set up the Accenture Development Partnerships (ADP), which provides consulting services to NPOs and small and medium-sized enterprises in developing countries (Changemakers, 2014). Bain & Company created the Bridgespan Group in 1999, which offers a variety of consulting services specifically tailored to the needs of nonprofit organizations (Bridgespan 2014). It is worth noting that ADP and the Bridgespan Group are both nonprofit organizations themselves. This creates a situation, in which one NPO consults another – the special setting that is the focal point of this study.

Moreover, the emergence of such nonprofit settings is not limited to large consultancies creating nonprofit spin-offs. A very recent phenomenon is the emergence of smaller, innovative consultancies that exclusively focus on consulting NPOs or social enterprises – and are legally

set up as nonprofit organizations as well. Examples include Inkludera Invest (Inkludera Invest, 2014) in Stockholm and the Investment Ready Program in Vienna, which focuses on clients in Central and Eastern Europe (Investment Ready, 2014).

3. Theoretical foundation

This section first presents the current state of the two fields of literature that this thesis builds upon: We introduce the features of nonprofit organizations and thereafter the essential aspects on the client-consultant relationship. In the later aforementioned sub section, we first introduce different views of consultant roles that stress different aspects of the relationship as important. We then focus on the one view that we perceive to be most relevant for our case organization (this is further argued for in section 4.3). We also complement this view with literature on important aspects of the relationship that are not included within any of the main views. Lastly, theories and concepts that will later on be used to explain the findings are presented.

3.1 Literature review

3.1.1 The nonprofit organization

The literature review shows that researchers are united in their opinion that there are aspects that differ between nonprofit organizations on one hand and for-profit organizations and public organization on the other. Most researchers state that the characteristics of NPOs make them more complex than business firms. Anheier (2000) refers to this as "the law of nonprofit complexity" which implies that nonprofit organizations are more complex than business firms of comparable size. Hansmann (1987) defines an NPO simply as an organization that is prohibited from distributing residual earnings to individuals who exercise control over the firm. The nonprofit organization is however not prohibited from earning profits. As previously explained NPOs can differ from one another in many different ways. For example, there are a variety of different causes that they can be driven by (Hudson 1999). They may also vary in size and in mode of operation and impact (Anheier, 2000). However, there are several factors that characterize nonprofit organizations in general. Firstly, there is a set of basic aspects that researchers agree on (Salamon and Anheier, 1997), namely that NPOs are:

- Organized, which differentiates them from entities that do not possess the same institutional identity, e.g. movements.
- Private, i.e. they are separate from government.
- Not profit distributing, i.e. not returning earnings to owners. This is what separates them from businesses.
- Self-governing, i.e. they are able to control their own activities.
- Voluntary, i.e. non-compulsory in nature and with some kind of voluntary input to the organization's activities.

The drive of NPOs is also something that characterizes them. Many researchers actually state the drive of nonprofit organizations to be their most defining feature. Hudson (1999) is one of them, as he identifies being driven by a cause, or a mission, to be what unifies the third sector. In connection to this, the motivation to improve the world we live in is also stated as a common characteristic. This is in contrast to commercial enterprises where the main goal is profit maximization (Landsberg, 2004). The values and motivations in nonprofit organizations and for-profit organizations thereby do differ substantially.

The basic features of nonprofit organizations, as well as their drive, also create certain behaviors and outcomes. The mission-drive of a nonprofit organization is closely connected to how its financial systems work. For an NPO, financial health is a means to an end, while in the for-profit world, financial health is the end (Landsberg, 2004). The fact that nonprofit organizations usually do not generate profits through their products and services, but rather drain their resources this way, contributes to that they are often underfunded. It is also common that they are understaffed, under-resourced and undertrained (Silverman & Taliento, 2006).

Anheier (2000) studies reasons explaining the complexity of managing nonprofit organizations and finds several reasons that are based on their characteristics. He states that the NPO is best understood as a conglomerate of different organizations with multiple bottom lines. Further contributing to the complexity of NPOs is their wide variety of stakeholders, thanks to a set of contractual relations and multiple revenue sources. Anheier's (2000) conclusion is that the for-profit business model may be too unsophisticated for the nonprofit organization.

The large amount of stakeholders also makes NPOs consensus-oriented organizations (Silverman & Taliento 2006). On the other hand they are stated to be less command-and-control focused. Communication is another very important point in general in these organizations as it is essential in handling the higher degree of scrutiny from politicians and the press that NPOs are subject to. Finally, as a result of the mission-drive of nonprofit organizations, they usually have vague and intangible goals since such missions are often hard to quantify (Silverman & Taliento 2006).

Table 1. Overview of the characteristics of nonprofit organizations and the respective researchers

Basic concepts (Salamon & Anheier, 1997)	**Drive** (Hudson, 1999; Landsberg, 2004)	**Behaviors and outcomes** (Anheier, 2000; Landsberg, 2004; Silverman & Taliento, 2006)
- Organized - Private - Nonprofit distributing - Self-governing - Voluntary	- Driven by a cause (Mission driven) · Motivated to make the world better · Value-oriented	- Financial health a means to an end - Underfunded, understaffed, under-resourced and under-trained - Multiple bottom lines - Wide variety of stakeholders - Many contractual relations - Several revenue sources - Consensus-oriented - Not control- and command-focused - High degree of scrutiny from outside actors - Vague and intangible goals

To summarize, the characteristics can be attributed to their basic concepts, their drive and the behaviors and outcomes resulting from the two first categories.

3.1.2 The client-consultant relationship

Roles of consultants

Researchers have voiced contradictory opinions regarding the contribution of consultants (Armbrüster, 2006). Some argue that consultants provide significant value, expertise and change (Suddaby & Greenwood, 2001; Ginsberg & Abrahamsson, 1991) and contribute to economic growth in the countries they operate in (Poulfelt, Greiner & Bambri, 2005). Others consider the actual contribution by consultants to be more symbolic (Shapiro et al., 1993; Alvesson, 1993,2001; Clark, 1995; Clark & Salaman, 1996a, 1996b; Kieser, 1997,2002). These two different views: The Functionalist View and The Critical View, result in three different roles that consultants can take on (Kipping & Clark, 2012). The functionalist position, which stresses the importance of consultants' knowledge and their willingness to help, can be divided into "The Expertise Model" and "The Social Learning Model" (Kubr 1996; Mulligan & Barber, 1998). The group of researchers of the contrasting perspective support what is called "The Critical View" (Werr & Styhre, 2002; Armbrüster, 2006; Schwarz & Clark, 2009). Each model stresses different aspects of the relationship as important.

The Expertise Model sees consulting as transmittance of business expertise and techniques (Kubr, 1996; Mulligan & Barber, 1998). It is best applicable for complex strategic projects as well as for routine tasks. The model assumes that the client knows exactly what they are doing when they hire consultants and efficiency is highly regarded. The Expertise Model describes the client-consultant relationship as the "client-expert interaction", emphasizing the importance of consultants and their knowledge in this mode (Gallessich, 1982; Greiner & Metzer, 1983; Wilkinsson, 1995; Aharoni, 1997). The consultants have more power in the relationship as a result of the asymmetry in knowledge that is assumed to exist (Haug & Sussman, 1969; Sharma, 1997; Kubr, 1996; Mills & Moshavi, 1999). The relationship is characterized by the consultants diagnosing the problem on their own and thereafter transferring their knowledge to the client.

The Social Learning Model does not apply as much to standardized solutions, but puts a larger emphasis on the importance of the client in the relationship and sees them as a co-contributor to diagnosing and solving a complex or innovative problem (McGivern 1983; McGivern & Fineman 1983; Schön 1983; Schein 1998, 2002). The Critical Model assumes that the relationship is highly characterized by consultants trying to convince clients of the value they provide, since the clients views the value of consulting as mainly symbolic (Alvesson 1993, 2001; Clark 1995; Clark & Salaman 1998a, 1998b; Kieser 2002).

There is one additional set of perspectives of the client-consultant relationship, outside of the dominant Functionalist and Critical Views, that differs rather substantially from the ones presented so far: The Constructivist Perspectives. Even though differing in many aspects, The Functionalist View and The Critical View agree that communication and mutual exchange is possible (Kipping & Clark 2012). The Constructivist View, however, questions whether a common reality between clients and consultants is possible to achieve at all and whether effective communication is reachable. The Constructivist view has gained popularity and there are now many perspectives within this field (Czerniawska 2003).

The important aspects of the client-consultant relationship

Collaboration and mutual helping

As previously stated, The Social Learning Model has a high focus on the relationship since it relies on a participative learning process and balance between clients and consultants. (McGivern, 1983; McGivern & Fineman, 1983; Schön, 1983; Schein, 1998, 2002). In this model, consulting is about helping the client to solve their own problem – combining the expertise of consultants with the client's knowledge of their organization. Framing and negotiating different perspectives is therefore a large part of the interaction. Consulting is about changing clients' behavior – helping them to help themselves. Consultants also need to accept the client's views as a legitimate frame to work within (Schein 2002). As a result of the demystification of expertise and of that the consulting is about mutual helping, the power relation is rather balanced between the parties (McGivern and Fineman 1983).

The client-consultant relationship described in The Social Learning Model is closely related to the concept of "Process Consulting" (Schein 1998). Schein (1998) puts a larger emphasis on the aspects that need to be fulfilled for the collaborative, or helping, relationship to occur. To enable the creation of this relationship, mutual trust, acceptance and respect are essential. Alike Schein (1998), the importance of mutual trust is also emphasized by Canback (1999) who identifies consultants working closely together with clients in fluid and complex relationships as an increasing trend since the appearence of the industry. Turner (1982) further argues that a partnership of mutual respect is essential for improving client effectiveness.

Aligned expectations

Ulvila (2000) emphasizes managing and meeting the client's expectations as another important aspect of a successful client-consultant relationship. Consultants can do this at several points during a project. Firstly, the project proposal should include a concrete goal formulation and a description of the means required to reach the project goal, as well as a time frame and a description on who will work on what. If things change and the plan presented in the proposal needs to be remade, the client should be informed about this as soon as possible so there are no surprises in the end. Ulvila (2000) also stresses the importance of frequent client contact in the form of meetings or through mail or phone to keep the client involved. Projects that meet the client's needs have a higher likelihood of being implemented and of leading to further work for the consultant. Ford (1985) and Smith (2002) argue along the same line. Ford (1985) states that clarity is normally at the heart of the client-consultant relationship. Aspects, in relation to this, that can make the engagement fail are not communicating, not identifying the real problem, promising too much too soon, not specifying roles as well as recommending unfeasible actions. Smith (2002) argues that neither consulting activities nor client objectives can exist unless both parties clearly understand the intended project outcomes.

High motivation and commitment

A point that we perceive as highly relevant for the relationship has yet to be mentioned. The literature does not put big emphasis on the importance of clients' and consultants' motivation and commitment to a consulting project. Turner (1982) touches upon the importance of

commitment as he stresses the level of involvement given to a consultant by the client. This involvement is partly an effect of client commitment and consensus around a corrective action (Turner, 1982). We see this as an important aspect and predict that motivation and commitment can be especially relevant for a consulting project in the nonprofit context where incentives are different.

Table 2. Overview of the important aspects of the client-consultant relationship and the main researchers on respective field

Main category	Sub categories	Main researchers
1. High motivation and commitment	a. Motivation to work on the project from client and consultants	Turner (1982) and own category
	b. Commitment to the project from client and consultants	
2. Collaboration and mutual helping (The Social Learning Model and Process Consulting)	a. Mutual trust, respect and acceptance	McGivern (1983); McGivern & Fineman (1983); Schön (1983); Schein (1998, 2002)
	b. Balanced power relationship	
	c. Collaborative diagnosis and combination of knowledge to reach solution	
3. Aligned expectations	a. Diagnosing the real problem	Ulvila (2000); Ford (1985); Smith (2002)
	b. Clear project description, goal formulation and roles	
	c. Not overpromising	
	d. Frequent client contact and informing about changes if necessary	
	e. Clear communication	
	f. Recommending feasible actions	

In summary, the aspects of the client-consultant relationship that were frequently brought up and heavily emphasized, within and outside of the Social Learning Model, in combination with the category added by ourselves, could be grouped within three main areas, each with a set of sub-categories to be fulfilled.

Stages of a consulting project

Toppin & Czernaiwska (2005) identify three main stages of a typical consulting project in which the relationship develops:

- Start-up: This stage includes the sales process. The consultants who will work on the project are chosen and the team meets with the client for the first time. Agreements are made on where the team will work and a contractual agreement is signed between the consultancy and the client organization, as well as a potential third party (e.g. technology vendor, customers of client organization).
- Midstream: Actors find their role in the project and the main work is getting done.
- Closing down: The results are presented for the client, a follow-up on the project is done and the results are measured.

Different types of clients

It is important to be aware of the different types of clients to be able to manage them and their needs as necessary. Schein (1998) identifies six basic types of clients:

1. Contact clients. The individual who first is in contact with a consultant about a project.
2. Intermediate clients. Gets involved in certain parts of the project as it evolves.
3. Primary clients. Owns the problem that is worked on.
4. Unwitting clients. Will be affected by the project without being aware of it.
5. Ultimate clients. The final beneficiary, which the consultants must keep in mind in everything they do.
6. Involved "non-clients". Do not fit into any of the above stated roles, but are aware of the projects existence and may have intentions that are not beneficial for it.

3.2 Theories and concepts

3.2.1 Considered theories and concepts

To explain our findings we included theories and concepts both regarding the field of the client-consultant relationship and regarding the nonprofit organization. These go deeper into certain aspects of each field than the literature previously presented (Section 3.1). One theory (Section 3.3.4) is from the socio psychological research field, as this depth was perceived to be necessary as part of explaining one of the findings. Before conducting the study, we also considered theories within the fields of power relationships and expectation management. However, considering our findings these theories turned out to not be necessary or not applicable and we therefore did not include them here. We do however believe that these fields may be appropriate when conducting similar research in the future.

3.2.2 Volunteer management

Volunteering, as defined by Badelt & Hollerweger (2007), is a performance that takes place without remuneration or other kinds of direct return, outside of one's own household and without any legal obligation. Volunteerism is a phenomenon that, although present in the private and public sector as well, is mostly found in the third sector. Pynes (2004) estimates that in 1998 almost two-third of all U.S. volunteers worked in the nonprofit sector, making this ability to attract unpaid labor from millions of people a unique feature of the third sector (Brudney, 2005).

NPOs can greatly benefit from volunteers since they bring in certain knowledge and abilities that organizations often could not afford to pay for. Furthermore, volunteers can forge links between a nonprofit organization and potential new clients or funders, e.g. through a volunteer's personal network (Eckardstein, 2007). The downsides of volunteer work, from an organizational perspective, are that volunteers usually have only limited time to spend and that they might be less reliable due to the lack of formal obligations. Also, not having financial incentives at their disposal might make it more difficult for NPOs to keep volunteers in check (Eckardstein, 2007).

Moreover, relying on volunteers brings along a set of unique challenges for organizations. Two topics mentioned repeatedly in the literature should be mentioned here: First of, wheter an NPO should see voluntary work as a gift that cannot be rejected or treat volunteers just like regular employees (i.e. recruit and evaluate them based on performance) is a fundamental debate in volunteer management literature (Eckarstein, 2007). The second issue, employee – volunteer conflicts, is even more prevalent. Especially in situations where volunteers are used to substitute, rather than complement, the work of paid staff tensions are almost inevitable (Brudney, 2005).

Volunteer Motivation

McCurley (2005) argues that being satisfied with the job they are doing is the number one determinant for every volunteer's commitment. Without being motivated for a volunteering assignment – people would simply not do it. Therefore, understanding the sources of volunteer motivation is essential for any NPO that relies on volunteers. Research suggests that such volunteer motivations "are complex and multifaceted and […] may serve a variety of functions for the individual volunteer" (Brudney, 2005). Badelt & Hollerweger (2007) identify three components of volunteer motivation: Altruism, the value for oneself ("Eigenwert") and the exchange component ("Tauschkomponente").

The altruism component describes the desire in a volunteer to support an institution, an idea or an individual person through their efforts (Badelt & Hollerweger, 2007). This is referred to in sociologically-focused research as "motives" focusing on the person that seeks help (Braun & Röhrig, 1986). From an economic perspective, altruistic behavior is present when a volunteer wants to create utility for another person (Badelt & Hollerweger, 2007). Altruism is at the very heart of volunteerism. Summarizing longitudinal data collected in the U.S. from 1965 to 1991, Brudney (2005) concludes that the desire "to do something useful to help others" is the most frequently cited reason to volunteer. Value for oneself ("Eigenwert") in this context means that someone does at least get an indirect return for volunteering. Herein, it is the "personal motives" that motivate a volunteer, such as personal gratification, social status or finding a meaningful way to spend one's leisure time (Braun & Röhrig, 1986). The last element of motivation, the exchange component ("Tauschkomponente") interprets voluntary work as a process in which the volunteer actually does get a direct return – for instance when someone gets to develop their practical skills or collect professional experience through a volunteering assignment (Badelt & Hollerweger, 2007). Pynes (2004) indicates that this motive is particularly present in people who are unemployed and therefore become volunteers.

Admittedly, a clear delimitation between the categories is almost impossible in practice. However, by keeping these three archetypes of volunteer motivation in mind, one can grasp just how nuanced volunteers' motivation can be. Since the altruistic and the exchange component might seem somewhat contradictory, we want to stress that "volunteering is "prosocial" rather than self-sacrificial; it is activity intended to benefit others but not restricting possible benefits to the volunteers as well", as Brudney (2005) explains. Interestingly enough, the motivation of a volunteer can change substantially over the time of engagement with an organization. While the altruistic element is often the trigger for someone starting to volunteer in the first place, the longer that person then is involved in the organization the more important the social element becomes, i.e. making friends and becoming part of a group (Pearce 1983).

3.2.3 Process Consulting

Both The Social Learning Model and Process Consulting are connected to theories of Organizational Development and Organizational Learning. Process Consulting refers to what happens between a helper and a person or group that is getting helped. Schein (1998) argues that you have to be aware of how things happen – the process, and not just what happens. The Social Learning model describes the collaborative and helping relationship well. However, the concept Process Consulting puts bigger emphasis on what psychological processes need to take place for the helping relationship to be created. To enable the creation of a functioning relationship, mutual trust, acceptance and respect have to be established (Schein, 1998).

Initially, there is usually a status imbalance between the client and consultant since asking for help, or consultation, in most cultures is perceived to be a sign of weakness. This may create a variety of reactions from the client's side. The client may respond with resentment and defensiveness towards the opinions of the consultant. The client may also be relieved to have shared the problem or may even become dependent and submissive to the consultant. The client can also react by transferring earlier experiences with consultants on the current one. As a result of the client's reaction it is possible that the consultant takes advantage of the situation, e.g. by using the authority. It is also normal that the consultant tries to provide more help than is actually needed as a result of dependency. However, for the helping relationship to take place, the consultant must equilibrate the status imbalance. The relationship becomes productive when both parties feel comfortable with each other's relative status and role (Schein 1998).

The process of reaching this state can be described as a series of mutual tests to see at what level each party can accept the other. It is important for the client that the consultant is listening and understands what the client shares, but also that he asks questions about the situation. On the other side, the consultant is observing how responsive the client is and how dependent he wants to be. While accepting each other more and more, the client will open up and tell about their problems in more detail. This process can be seen as mutual helping and gradually leads to the relationship becoming equilibrated (Schein, 1998).

3.2.4 Ingroups and Outgroups

The concepts of ingroups and outgroups stems in the fields of sociology and social psychology and are largely based on social identity theory (Tajfel, 1969, 1970; Tajfel & Wilkes, 1963; Tajfel et al., 1971). Social identity can be described as a portion of a person's self-concept that is derived from perceived membership to a certain social group (Turner et al., 1979). An ingroup is a group which a person psychologically identifies with, whereas an outgroup is one which a person does not identify with. In social situations individuals may perceive ingroups and outgroups through e.g. gender, culture or race (Tajfel, 1969, 1970; Tajfel & Wilkes, 1963; Tajfel et al., 1971). Individuals tend to favor members of an ingroup over members of an outgroup (Aronson et al. 2010). This is referred to as ingroup favoritism. For example, this can be expressed in terms of evaluation of others. In a similar fashion, individuals tend to think negatively of outgroup members. This is called outgroup negativity and implies that you punish or put burdons on outgroup members (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

3.2.5 The service role of the nonprofit sector

Salamon et al. (2000) theorizes about the purposes and consequent roles in society of the nonprofit sector. Five main roles are hypothezised: The service role, the innovation role, the advocacy role, the expressive and leadership development role as well as the community building and democratization role. The service role was proven to be the most significant role that the nonprofit sector takes on. The service role implies that nonprofit organizations are assumed to provide certain services of public or collective character. The nonprofit sector is assumed to provide services in certain ways that are more benefitting than if the for-profit sector or the public sector would provide them (Salamon et.al. 2000). Except for delivering services at lower cost, greater equity and more specialization, the services are also assumed to be of higher quality (Weisbrod, 1989; Billis & Glennerster, 1998). The higher quality is argued to be present because NPOs are not profit-oriented and therefore can afford to provide higher quality instead of choosing the most cost-efficient alternative. Furthermore, the normally smaller size of nonprofit organizations usally increases their responsiveness and adaptability (Weisbrod, 1989; Billis & Glennerster, 1998)

4. Case Organization

In the following we provide a description of our case organization, 180 Degrees Consulting (180DC). We do so to give the reader a thorough overview of the organizational setting and the surroundings in which our research takes place. We introduce the background of the organization, explain why 180DC should be seen as a nonprofit organization and finally, how the client-consultant relationship usually looks in a project of 180DC.

4.1 Introduction to 180 Degrees Consulting

As the largest student-driven consultancy in the world, 180DC conducts about 150 projects per semester in 35 branches worldwide. It is comprised of over 1000 student consultants, 200 branch executives and 100 international executives (Interview for Pre-Study, Nr. 3, 2014). Currently, the organization is in a phase of lateral expansion in order to scale up its impact (Interview for Pre-Study, Nr. 3, 2014). It aims at having 50 branches by the end of the year and being financially self-sustainable by then as well. 180DC delivers pro-bono management consulting projects (on strategy development, market entry strategies, volunteer management etc.) to organizations that are not in a financial position to pay for such consulting services. Students who join 180DC, most of whom are business students, benefit from getting hands-on consulting experience and intense mentoring throughout their projects. The projects are set up very similarly worldwide: They run over one semester, teams usually consist of four to five team members, one of which serves as project manager (team leader). All project teams are trained in the same consulting methodology, which structures and facilitates their work.

4.2 180 Degrees Consulting as an NPO

The organization defines its mission as "helping nonprofits and social enterprises to overcome challenges they are facing so they can have a greater social impact" (180DC, 2014). Going by the criteria laid out by Salamon and Anheier (1997), 180DC needs to be, first and foremost, understood as a nonprofit organization: It is a self-governing private organization, it does not distribute profits and it pursues a strong social mission (i.e. trying to help other nonprofit organizations and social enterprises become more effective). Moreover, going by the definition of Badelt & Hollerweger (2007) – that volunteerism means performing a task without remuneration, outside of one's own household and without any legal obligation – all members of 180DC, at a branch as well as at an international level, are volunteers. This is another clear indicator of 180DC being an NPO in its own right (Pynes, 2004).

4.3 The client – consultant relationship in 180DC projects

Since this study is concerned with how the relationship between clients and consultants develops in 180DC projects, special attention is herein given to their interactions. This is done in connection with the project-lifecycle stages as defined by Toppin & Czerniawska (2005), i.e. start-up, midstream and closing down. During the start-up phase, teams meet their clients and

negotiate a concrete project scope.[1] In the midstream, between the first and the final meeting, most of the actual project work is done (teams structure their projects, define work-streams, conduct analyses etc.). The consulting teams typically have one or two client meetings to discuss ideas, get the client's feedback or simply keep them involved in the process. In the closing down phase, a final meeting takes place in which recommendations are presented to the client and a ceremonial final event for all clients and consultants is organized to finish off a project-cycle.

It is important to note that contact client and primary client, as defined by Schein (1998), are usually the same persons in 180DC projects. However, the ultimate client, the final beneficiary of the project, is more varying: Depending on the project it can be the NPO's end-beneficiaries, its employees, its volunteers, another stakeholder group and sometimes the primary clients themselves.

Table 3: Overview of project types and relationship characteristics in the main views of consultant roles in research (Kipping and Clark 2012) and of 180DC

	The Social Learning Model	**The Expertise Model**	**The Critical Model**	**180DC Projects**
Types of projects typically carried out	Complex or innovative tasks	Complex strategic projects and routine tasks	*Not specified*	Innovative tasks
Nature of consulting	Assisting client in solving problem by combining knowledge	Solving client's problem by transferring knowledge to them	Creating impression of value contribution	Large emphasis on diagnosing the issue together with client
Knowledge asymmetry	Consultants and clients both have knowledge necessary for solving the problem	Consultants as experts have the ability to solve the issue more or less without including the client	Clients have difficulties estimating the knowledge of consultants	Combination of consultants' university skills and clients' knowledge of own organization

We perceive The Social Learning Model (Kubr, 1996; Mulligan & Barber, 1998) to be the best fit for the projects that 180DC takes on and we therefore use this model as a starting point for studying how the important aspects of the client-consultant relationship are affected by the nonprofit setting. The Constructivist Perspectives assume that a mutual relationship is not possible to achieve. We therefore choose to assume that these perpectives are not true. Compared to the other available views, we believe that The Social Learning Model is the most relevant model based on the type of projects that are usually carried out, the nature of the consulting and the degree of knowledge asymmetry that applies to 180DC. The projects that are carried out by 180DC are often of an innovative character where the consultants are hired to think outside the box. The model is, however, usually applicable to client problems that are of high importance, which is not always the case for 180DC projects. The project type is still considered to be most in line with this model though. Moreover, a large emphasis is usually put

[1] Acquiring a client and defining a preliminary project scope is the job of the respective client or consulting director, not that of the project teams.

on diagnosing the issue in collaboration with the client. This is based on the need for combining the client's knowledge of their own organization with the university knowledge of the consultants.

5. Methodology

In this section we first off introduce the research design, argue for the selection of our case study and explain the pre-study we conducted. Thereafter, we give an in-depth description of the data collection and data analysis process. We end the section by highlighting the limitations of our research study and by arguing for the validity and reliability of our study.

The research design is built around an exploratory case study, which was selected due to the nascent state of theory and literature available on management consulting projects in a nonprofit setting (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Therefore, the study primarily relies on inductive research methods based on the empirics. However, there is a deductive element as well, since the literature review yielded certain theoretical issues that can be applied to the context of this study.

5.1 Case Selection

A single case study on 180DC was conducted. The rationale for selecting this case organization was two-fold: First, since the purpose of this thesis is to understand what shapes the client-consultant relationship in a nonprofit setting, 180DC offers unique potential for analyzing that very setting.

Secondly, both of us are very much involved in 180DC. We were part of the Stockholm branch in 2013 and currently serve as two of the co-founders of the branch in Vienna, Austria. Consequently, we were able to get access to data, such as project reports, presentations and interview partners. Such information would have been difficult to obtain for an outsider – and is therefore all the more valuable (Yin, 2009).

Selection Process for Projects and Interviewees

After having received access to the worldwide online database of 180DC, we could obtain detailed information on 169 projects coming from 17 branches in total.

Table 4: Selection Process for Identifying Suitable Projects and Interview Partners

Selection Steps	**Description**	**Number of Projects (Number of Branches)**
Projects found on online database	Projects on which final reports or presentations were available online	169, (17)
Criterion 1 - Language	Only projects conducted in English included (i.e. final reports in English)	163, (15)
Criterion 2 - Novelty	Only projects conducted in Spring 2013 or more recently included	81, (12)
Establish contact with branches	Exclusion of branches that did not reply (on time)	58 (8)
Identify and contact clients	Exclusion of branches that did not find and contact suitable previous clients for interviews (on time)	19 (3)
Clients willing to participate	Projects from which clients were willing to participate	7 (3)
Two field observations	*Adding field observations of ongoing projects to complement interviews*	*2 (1)*
TOTAL	**Projects on which interviews or field observations were conducted**	**9 (4)**

As suggested by Yin (2009), we then went on to define criteria for reducing the number of potential projects to look at. "Language" (project information available in English) and "Novelty" (projects no older than spring 2013) were chosen as the most relevant criteria. This helped reduce the number of potential projects from 169 to 81, coming from twelve branches. Next, we tried to establish contact with the current presidents of those twelve branches. The number of potential branches was hereby reduced to eight since four of them did not reply (on time). With the remaining eight branches a dialogue was started to identify suitable previous clients for our study. We specifically looked for people that showed a high understanding of their own organization and would feel comfortable with the setting of our interview (i.e. a Skype interview, in English). Due to the time and effort it took to identify and contact former clients, five of those branches could not come up with suitable clients early enough to consider those as interview partners. However, one branch offered the possibility to conduct two field observations of ongoing projects instead. In the end four branches participated in the study:

- Canterbury, New Zealand
- Riga, Latvia
- Stockholm, Sweden
- Vienna, Austria

The final selection of interviewees then came down to a simple convenience sampling, as proposed by Weiss (1994): Any former client, consultant or project manager, who was deemed suitable by the respective 180DC branch and willing to participate in our study, was taken in. In total, interviews and field observations on nine 180DC projects served as units of analyses (Yin, 2009), coming from those four branches.

5.2 Pre-study

A thorough pre-study was considered necessary due to the insufficient academic research on management consulting for NPOs and the, consequently, exploratory nature of our study. Four semi-structured interviews were conducted (Table 5); one of them in Swedish, all others in English, lasting between 60 and 90 minutes each. Interview questions and field notes from all interviews were composed entirely in English. Such pre-study participants were chosen that would enhance our understanding of, either, management consulting for NPOs or the case organization 180DC.

Table 5 – List of Interview Partners for Pre-Study

Interview Topic	Number	Name of Interviewee	Date of Interview (Location)
Management Consulting for Nonprofit 0rganizations	1	Professor, Stockholm School of Economics	February 20th, 2014 (Stockholm)
	2	Managing Partner, Consulting Firm	March 12th, 2014 (Vienna)
180 Degrees Consulting	3	International Executive of 180DC	January 16th, 2014 (via Skype)
	4	International Executive of 180DC	March 9th, 2014 (via Skype)

A leading professor for management consulting at Stockholm School of Economics gave us valuable theoretical input on the client-consultant relationship in management consulting in general and specifically on the hurdles of consulting nonprofit organizations. The managing partner of an Austria-based consulting firm, with years of experience in consulting NPOs, complemented this with an interesting practitioner's perspective. To better grasp the worldwide organizational structure and strategy of 180 Degrees Consulting interviews with two high-level international executives were conducted.

5.3 Data Collection

Semi-structured interviews, using open-ended questions, are our main source of data, since, according to Weiss (1994) they are best aligned with the exploratory study that we pursue.

However, being aware of the critique by Silverman (2013) that interviews are often the default data type for qualitative research, we complemented our data collection with field observations and a document review of relevant project reports by 180DC. Many of our respondents are still in one way or another affiliated with 180DC today, which is why we guaranteed confidentiality to all interviewees and field observations participants. Weiss (1994) argues this is necessary to avoid potentially harming the reputation of any of the respondents and to allow them to speak more openly.

Semi-Structured Interviews

A total of 17 interviews were conducted with four consultants, six project managers and seven clients from previous 180DC projects (Table 6). Even though interviewing branch presidents or consulting directors of 180DC was also considered, we decided that those three groups – consultants, project managers and clients – would yield the most interesting and unique findings for our study. This is due to their direct involvement in the events (i.e. the projects), which Weiss (1994) states to be an important factor in any case study research.

14 interviews were conducted via Skype, three were conducted in person. They lasted between 35 and 55 minutes. Interviews were performed in a semi-structured manner: A questionnaire was set up in a diachronic fashion (Weiss, 1994) to provide a structure for the respondents (Appendix 2) and slightly adapted for consultants, project managers and clients respectively. This questionnaire was structured around the three main categories of important aspects in the client-consultant relationship, which we had identified from the literature (Table 2): High motivation and commitment, Collaboration and mutual helping, Aligned expectations.

Moreover, a number of rather broad questions were included to possibly discover other interesting factors. While this questionnaire provided a guideline for all interviews, additional questions emerged spontaneously in the process of each interview. Furthermore, a lot of freedom was given to the interviewees in order to be able express their thoughts and concerns and to allow for more depth in the interviews. During interviews one of us would take over the role of the interviewer, while the other one would take notes, paying close attention to a respondent's reactions. We exchanged roles every other interview. Interviews were tape-recorded, fully transcribed and then compared with the field notes taken during the interviews to get a more balanced view.

Table 6 – List of Interviewees[2]

Number	ID	Respondent (project role, age, gender)	Date of Interview (Location)
1	PM 1	Project manager, 22, male	April 9th, 2014 (via Skype)
2	CLI 1	Client, 37, male	April 14th, 2014 (via Skype)
3	PM 2	Project manager, 22, female	April 15th, 2014 (via Skype)
4	PM 3	Project manager, 25, female	April 16th, 2014 (via Skype)
5	CLI 2	Client, 56, female	April 17th, 2014 (via Skype)
6	PM 4	Project manager, 29, male	April 18th, 2014 (via Skype)
7	CON 1	Consultant, 24, male	April 18th, 2014 (via Skype)
8	CON 2	Consultant, 24, female	April 19th, 2014 (via Skype)
9	CON 3	Consultant, 21, female	April 21st, 2014 (via Skype)
10	CLI 3	Client, 27, female	April 22nd, 2014 (via Skype)
11	PM 5	Project manager, 23, female	April 23rd, 2014 (via Skype)
12	CLI 4	Client, 29, female	April 23th, 2014 (in person)
13	CLI 5	Client, 49, female	April 24th, 2014 (via Skype)
14	CLI 6	Client, 29, female	April 24th, 2014 (in person)
15	CLI 7	Client, 29, female	April 24th, 2014 (in person)
16	PM 6	Project Manager, 26, male	April 24th, 2014 (via Skype)
17	CON 4	Consultant, 25, male	April 26th, 2014 (via Skype)

[2] We made a conscious choice to not state which branch of 180DC a respondent is associated with, since this would jeopardize the respondents' confidentiality.

Field Observations – Kickoff Meetings

We conducted two field observations, witnessing kickoff meetings between teams of 180DC and their clients (Table 7). Both meetings lasted about 90 minutes and in both cases it was the first time that the project team and their respective client met in person. For us as passive observers this provided an interesting real-time insight into how the client-consultant relationship develops in such projects (Yin, 2009). We did not actively participate in any discussion in order to interfere as little as possible with the setting of the meeting as Biklen & Bogden (2007) advice. Since we had already anticipated beforehand that interviewees might have some difficulty remembering the early phases of their respective projects, observing those two kickoff meetings was of great value in complementing our interview data, just like Yin (2009) suggests.

Table 7 – List of participants in field observations

Number	Participants (project role, age, gender)	Date (Location)
1	- Project manager, 30, female (PM 7) - Consultant, 24, male (CON 5A) - Consultant, 26, female (CON 5B) - Consultant, 21, male (CON 5C) - Consultant, 22, male (CON 5D) - Client, 30, female (CLI 8)	April 2nd, 2014 (at client's office)
2	- Project manager, 24, male (PM 8) - Consultant, 23, female (CON 6A) - Consultant, 22, male (CON 6B) - Consultant, 23, female (CON 6C) - Consultant, 20, female (CON 6D) - Client, 21 male (CLI 9A) - Client, 21 female (CLI 9B) - Client, 24 male (CLI 9C) - Client, 25, female (CLI 9D)	April 4th, 2014 (In a project room at a local university)

Document Review – Project Reports

As third and final source of data we looked at the project reports from the projects from which we interviewed consultants, project managers and clients. Before every interview we would make sure to familiarize ourselves with the finished consulting reports of a given project. This, again, improved the data triangulation, since we did not only rely on people's subjective experience of what the results of a project were, but could actually fall back on the actual reports – the tangible result of every one of those projects (Yin, 2009).

5.4 Data Analysis

In our data analysis we used a combination of inductive and deductive methods, namely thematic analysis and pattern-matching, for identifying relevant themes in our data set, in accordance with the methods described by Yin (2009) and Braun & Clarke (2006). Thematic analysis offers high flexibility, since it is not tied to a certain epistemological approach and can be applied to various research paradigms, which fits well for our exploratory study. Nevertheless, the six-phase approach offered by Braun & Clarke (2006) provides a clear guideline for data analysis, which helped us avoid drowning in the vast amount of data we had collected (Figure 1).

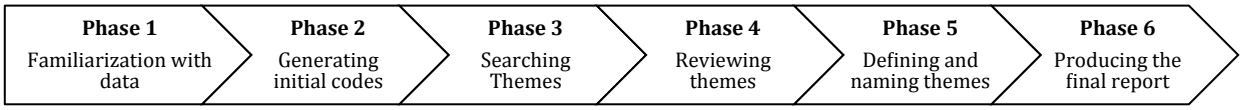


Figure 1: Illustration of six-phase approach (Braun & Clarke 2006)

In phase one, the researchers should immerse themselves in the data to then be able to come up with initial codes (phase two). Thereafter, themes are built up from those codes (phase three) and reviewed by going back to the date once more (phase four). In the end, themes need to be given names and a clear definition (phase five), before a report can be written (phase six). At the same time we integrated in our research the method of pattern-matching by Yin (2009), i.e. comparing empirical patterns with theoretical ones. A number of relevant theoretical issues had been identified from the literature review, which we then wanted to analyze deductively from our data set.

Phase 1. Familiarization with data

We decided to personally do all interview and field study transcriptions, as opposed to using a professional transcription service, since we prioritized a deep familiarization with the data over having an even wider range of interviews conducted. All transcriptions were conducted within a day of the interview to make sure our impressions of the respondents were accurate. Each of us transcribed the interviews, in which he had played the role of the interviewer and then compared the transcripts with the field notes taken by the other person. This allowed for an early data-triangulation (Yin, 2009).

Phase 2. Generating initial codes

Already while transcribing interviews an initial coding was done by both of us individually, following the advice by Lofland et al. (2006) to start with coding at soon as possible. Therefore, the qualitative analysis already started parallel to the data collection. In the next step, both of us thoroughly read through all transcripts to immerse ourselves in the data. After identifying potentially interesting codes, we went on by thoroughly discussing each of those "potential codes", as we called them. We agreed on a list of 42 potential codes and then went back, individually, to the transcripts to search for each code in every interview.

While screening interviews that way, seven more potential codes were found, making it 49 in total. Consequently, it was necessary to turn to each interview one more time, making this a lengthy, iterative process. Thereafter, we discussed text passages from all 17 interviews, wherever we had disagreements on what we had observed, until we had reached a common understanding of all potential codes. To define which codes to include in our further analysis, we counted the frequency of codes (i.e. in how many interviews a code appeared) to narrow them down. However, in our so-called "relevant codes" we also included codes that appeared in only a limited number of interviews, if we felt that they presented particularly insightful ideas or were heavily emphasised.

Phase 3. Searching themes

All in all, 40 relevant codes were defined, from which themes were then constructed. Herein, we relied partly on a deductive, partly on an inductive approach. Using the method of pattern-matching, theoretical patterns were compared with empirical ones and codes were grouped around theoretical themes previously identified in our literature review (Yin, 2009). However, a number of relevant codes could not be explained by previously identified, theoretical themes. Consequently, this required an inductive approach of constructing new themes from those codes, for which we then made use of the thematic analysis by Braun & Clarke (2006).

Phase 4. Reviewing themes

We then turned back to all quotations from interviews and field observations, which had been collected to support a theme, to check the relevance and coherence of patterns. In this phase, a partial restructuring of themes occurred, with some themes being split or merged and sub-themes being created. As suggested by Braun & Clarke (2006) we used our best judgement when reviewing themes, taking into account how frequently and how extensively themes appear in our data, but also considering how important a theme actually is for answering our research question. Herein, we benefited greatly from the thorough work we had done previously in selecting and defining relevant codes, which meant that only minor changes in the structure of themes were required.

Phase 5. Defining and naming themes and Phase 6. Producing the final report

The defining and naming of themes was a process that had already taken place iteratively over the previous phases, which is why at this point our focus was on determining concise descriptions of every theme and sub-theme, which we would then use for our research report. When eventually drafting the report we would put great emphasis on giving vivid examples, using prominent statements from interviews and dialogs from the field observations, to illustrate the themes we would present.

5.7 Limitations

After taking a critical look at our research design, we identified language and culture as well as doing interviews via Skype as the main methodological limitations of our study.

Language and culture

In our sample of 17 interviews we had respondents from eight different nationalities (two Latvians, one Lithuanian, three New Zealanders, one Moldavian, one Rwandan, seven Swedes, one Swiss and one Ukrainian). This presents a limitation in that cultural codes might have led to us misunderstanding or simply overlooking certain subtle points by interviewees (Weiss, 1994). Furthermore, 13 of the 17 people we interviewed are non-English native speakers. Although we never experienced language to be a major obstacle, there were a number of occasions where respondents were unable to formulate the nuanced answer they were looking for.

Interviews via Skype

14 interviews were conducted via Skype, since, as Weiss (1994) argues for phone interviews comparably, this is the next best thing to doing interviews in person. Although we never experienced technical difficulties and all respondents seemed comfortable with this interview setting, we are aware that personal interviews might have yielded even deeper insights. The fact that the three interviews we had in person took about ten minutes longer than the average Skype interview indicates that this might have been the case.

5.8 Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are important concepts in any kind of research, but even more so when dealing with qualitative data, which is always subject to a researcher's own interpretation (Yin, 2009; Silverman, 2013).

Reliability

The fact that we are two people conducting the research helps strengthen the reliability of our study (Yin, 2009). We coded all interviews and observations individually before comparing the patterns we had identified, and we made extensive use of field notes to complement the initial coding of the other person. Lengthy discussions to reach a common understanding of all relevant codes further contributed to a higher reliability of our findings.

Validity

The use of multiple sources – interviews, field observations and a document review – to allow for data triangulation is a clear strength of our case study research (Yin, 2009). The high level of comparability between the nine projects, our units of analysis, is another advantage: Weiss (1994) reasons that the same behavior can be expected from any group with the same dynamics and constraints. The fact that 180DC projects worldwide are very much comparable (Section 4) is one of the great strength of our research design for creating validity (Weiss, 1994).

On the downside, our study may contain a significant project selection bias: As we were dependent on the goodwill of previous clients to take time for an interview, it seems likely that primarily those clients responded for whom working with 180DC had been a pleasant experience. Clients who were dissatisfied with the results or did not enjoy working with their project team were presumably less willing to be interviewed.

6. Results

In this section the findings from the 17 interviews and two field observations are presented. They are divided into the three main categories of important aspects in the client-consultant relationship: High motivation & commitment, collaboration & mutual helping and aligned expectations (Table 2). We here provide answers to our first three sub-questions:

- *Which aspects of the client-consultant relationship are affected by a nonprofit setting?*
- *How are these aspects of the relationship affected?*
- *Which aspects of the nonprofit setting affect the relationship?*

The categories are ordered in accordance to the relevance of findings in each of them. Findings are supported with quotes from the interviews and observations. Sources are indicated after each quote (Table 6). Note, however, that not all quotes supporting a finding are displayed. Instead, findings are supported by quotes that capture the opinion by sometimes several interviewees. In cases where material from several interviews or observations complement each other to make a point they are all included. The same applies in cases when a finding is of high importance. Important points from each interview and observation were picked out instead of presenting all the interview material. This way to present our material and to carry our analysis forward was chosen because of the exploratory nature of the study, which means that large parts of the data did not contribute directly to the findings.

6.1 High motivation and commitment

One project manager captured the problematics of motivation in a nonprofit organization rather well as he realized that other sources of motivation are essential since no financial incentives are present.

"*The main problem with a non-for-profit organization doing a project like this for another non-for-profit organization is that it lacks the commercial motive that is necessary to motivate your staff or your team. In that sense, if the people that are involved aren't emotionally attached to the aspirations of the project it creates an obstacle*" *– (PM 6)*

Being motivated and committed to the project were frequently indicated to be important aspects of the relationship. Except for being brought up repeatedly, this was proven by motivation and commitment to the project not being present in all projects– not even from the consultants' side. In various projects, interviewees witnessed that they themselves or other team members had low motivation or commitment to the project at one point or throughout the entire consulting

assignment. The clients' commitment also varied strongly from project to project. Most notably, the motivation seemed to have a rather essential impact on the outcome of projects. For example, in teams where the motivation of some consultants was low, the team's work was negatively affected. It also impacted other team members negatively.

"We had a little bit of challenge with motivation in the team. […] The new people were not as committed. Looking back I think it would have been more efficient to not have those people. […] This was a bit frustrating for the rest of the team. " – (PM 4)

When it came to sources of motivation to the project from the consulting teams' side, a clear trend connected to the nonprofit setting could be seen: A majority of consultants and project managers stated that contributing to the mission of the client increased their motivation to work on the project.

"*We met some of the mentees and mentors and it felt that they were doing a really great thing. […] [It was motivating] to contribute to, like, a good organization that does good things.*" *– (PM 3)*

"*Yes! This is really cool [referring to the project] They are doing good stuff and we really wanted to give them as much value as we can*" *– (PM 3)*

"[Our client organization's mission] was to me a great cause, because it would help a lot of people so I wanted it to work as well. And it was something I believed could work. So I wanted to give them a result that was good and I wanted to do my best. I think that was what drew the rest of us to do the project well to the end."- (PM 5)

"*I think, when we just started with it and just looked at what [the client organization] actually does. I think that was motivating enough. To see how big it is, how many lives it touches.*" *– (CON 2)*

"*Their project was very much needed at the time… and it actually is still needed in Christchurch because of the situation that is currently prevailing. There was this void, and this project seemed to be ideal to fill that void, which is, like I said, pretty much generated a passion within me to fill this void. And it made me work a lot harder than we initially had expected.*" *– (PM 6)*

Often this was also expressed in direct connection to helping the beneficiaries of the client organization, even though the project was of a character that would only help these in a highly indirect way.

"*We really felt we could make a difference for a lot of people and learn a lot at the same time. So I was really happy that I had the opportunity to work on this project*" *– (PM 3)*

"*It seemed like a nice purpose. It seemed like a nice project. Help out people who came to Christchurch. Help Christchurch in the first place because the earthquake in 2009 has really impacted a lot in the city. It's pretty sad because I came here in July and was excited by the view*

and I really wanted to help it get back on its feet and how it was in the first place. The city and obviously its people." *– (CON 3)*

Most of the consultants who said they were motivated by being able to contribute to the cause of the client also declared that "doing good" was one of the reasons for joining 180DC in the first place.

"*It was a way to do something good*" *– (PM 3)*

"*I think it's very important, at least for me, to have an impact and do something that is socially relevant*" *– (CON 1)*

Later on, this was expressed by the same interviewees in terms of gaining something intangible personally from being a part of 180DC.

"It showed that this organization does make a difference – it feels good to be associated with this project. And we knew it would not just be a project that they put in the archive. It would actually be used and make the life of a lot of people a lot better." – (PM 3)

One project manager openly stated that his motivation had switched during the initial phase of the project, from career-focused reasons to wanting to help.

"*I thought it would be good to get my name on it. So perhaps it was rather selfish, the reason why I got involved, but in the end, once I got involved in it, my aspirations, my motives just changed and became very much focused on the client and on the project.*" *- (PM 6)*

Gaining experience was also frequently stated as a source of motivation for project managers and consultants. In connection to this, building their CV's was mentioned to be important.

"All the practical skills that you can gain from it was a rather big selling point." – (PM 5)

The motivation related to the mission of the client also showed to have a stimulating effect on the motivation and commitment of the different parties. At one point the motivation that the client had for their cause was stated to additionally motivate the consultant as well. The motivating effect of the client's cause was therefore further strengthened.

"*He was very enthusiastic about the project himself and that was kind of motivating I suppose. Cause he had a real passion for that and wanted to help people and make it work and just make it the best possible way it can go and that was quiet motivational.*" - *(CON 3)*

Many clients also stated themselves that they were highly committed to their project with 180DC. This was, however, not always seen as positive by the consultant teams as in the example above. In two projects, consultants thought that the client had become overly-involved to the point where it was interfering with the team's work.[3]

[The client]" was very involved so we almost had to tell [the client] to take a step back so it wouldn't affect the results. […] It did make it a bit difficult for us as we didn't want to ruin the relationship that we had."

"*The client was extremely motivated. [The client's] vision, and ideal was so strong and thriving that it created some difficulty dealing with [the client] at points. [The client] was so fixated on the vision of the project.*"

The commitment of clients also led to other issues. In the same projects, consultants witnessed that the high commitment of their clients had suddenly dropped to a very low level when the teams had met obstacles and the high expectations of the client could not be met.

"*Once that sort of banged head with [the client's] vision, I think [the client] might have gotten a bit disheartened. […] I actually had to deal with that also. So I had to deal with the client's motivational issues also, not just my own.*"

A couple of aspects outside of the nonprofit context were also stated to affect the level of motivation and commitment to the project. Having made a commitment to the client and to 180DC was stated to create motivation since the people felt they were obligated to do what they had promised. The level of motivation and commitment that the client had for the 180DC project was in some projects limited by other responsibilities and the consequent time restraints they had.

[3] Since this is a sensitive point, the gender of the respective clients, as well as the ID of the interviewee, will not be disclosed here to guarantee confidentiality.

6.2 Collaboration and mutual helping

An influence of the nonprofit setting on trust, respect and acceptance could be found. No clear connections to the nonprofit setting could be seen when it came to the power relation or the level of collaboration. The results of these two aspects are therefore not displayed.

All clients expressed that overall they had a lot of trust in the consultants and the recommendations they gave. This was proven by that several of the clients have implemented, or had plans of implementing, the recommendations provided by their respective 180DC teams. Clients also acknowledged that the consultants were similar to them in their social drive and values.

"We share the same ethos – promoting the individuals' input, volunteerism, supporting worthy causes in the community, making a difference." – *(CLI 1)*

The fact that the consultants also represent an NPO and consequently shared the same drive and values was shown to increase the trust, respect and acceptance that the clients had in them. This was emphasized by a majority of the clients. The consultants' lack of financial incentives of the consultants was expressed to further increase the trust in their motives.

"*I have, like, a sympathy for nonprofit organizations more than for business men and other organizations*" *- (CLI 3)*

"If I go and talk to a for-profit business you just don't know what you're getting. People can promise a lot and deliver little because they're expecting a paycheck. But with a charity you know they're not expecting a paycheck, they're definitely doing it because they want to do it" *– (CLI 1)*

One client, also representing an advisory firm focusing on nonprofit organizations, emphasized this point by drawing a connection to the work they are doing themselves.

"*I think since the, kind of, social focus is so important for them in their social organization, it makes them a little bit more secure working with us, knowing that we also keep, you know, social interest in mind so to speak.*" *– (CLI 7)*

One consultant also perceived that her client would have a hard time accepting to work with someone from the for-profit sector and therefore thought the client liked working with 180DC better.

"I think she doesn't quite like the whole corporate thing so I think she was quite happy to work with 180. […] She doesn´t like big businesses and all these sort of things. There has to be a cause for her." – (PM 5)

Both field observations of meetings between clients and consulting teams further strengthen the finding that trust, acceptance and respect were created through the nonprofit context. In these meetings we could notice that these aspects were building up from both sides (client's trust in consultants as well as consultants' trust in clients). Both parties started off by introducing their motivation to be in the nonprofit sector and their previous experience in it. It was in both cases the clients that initiated this.

"First of all, I would like to know who you are, what you do, why you're doing what you're doing […] and then we can go through a round of questions." - (CLI 8)

"I've done a lot of volunteering at the Red Cross back home […] but in Vienna you have the professional ambulance so it's more difficult to volunteer there […] (a friend) introduced me to 180 Degrees and convinced me that here you could really make a social impact." - (CON 5C)

"I worked in companies in Macedonia for 5 years, in corporate branding. Then I decided to do something more meaningful and created my own NGO in Macedonia, working with young people. […] So then I decided that I don't want to do business in general, but only social business. - (CLI 8)

After establishing that the intentions and values among the members were the "right ones" the client usually jumped quickly into taking advice from the team.

" I just like to do something social, besides my studies." – (CON 5A)

"Ok great, so what do you then think about our concept here?" – (CLI 8)

"I think it's great, I really like the idea […] However, I think the connections on the website are not clearly communicated. For example, I don't get how I as a customer would actually profit from joining the network. So why would I actually want to join the network, what's in it for me?"

– (CON 5A)

"Yes, yes, … I agree." – (CLI 8)

In the other field observation it became even more apparent that the nonprofit aspect was used as a source of trust, acceptance and respect in a direct manner:

"What do you get from it? What do you get out of [doing this consulting project]?" – (CLI 9B)

"Well, just as you volunteer for [your organization] and, kind of, get something out of it, not monetary, but something intangible, you know, that you contributed to something… we think 180 Degrees is helping organizations, social enterprises or NPOs, to maximize their impact through providing free consulting services to them. And also for every one of us to have our own, personal impact." – (PM 8)

"Ok, cool… interesting." – (CLI 9B)

In the interviews, another reason contributing to the increase in trust was that the consultants were perceived to understand their client better because they represented an NPO, namely 180DC.

"*I think they kind of understand us because they know that we are not-for-profit, so we come from the same page.*" *– (CLI 1)*

"A nonprofit organization knows how other nonprofit organizations work. Because others, for example the business men, who don't know about the NGO sector, they don't understand us and maybe they can't understand the needs which we have." - (CLI 3)

Also the consultants and project managers noticed the fact that trust, respect and acceptance were positively affected by them representing an NPO as well and in particular by them sharing the drive and values of the clients and having no financial incentives.

"They [the clients] felt that we were equal and they didn't think we had any side benefit from this. We just did this for ourselves and to help others that can benefit from our knowledge and we are more or less equal." *– (PM 2)*

Furthermore, the trust in the 180DC team was for one client further strengthened by the fact that 180DC has the niche to consult only NPO's.

"*It has got a good mission towards the charities, that's a good target." – (CLI 1)*

A number of other reasons were mentioned as sources of the trust that the clients had in the consultants and their recommendations. Firstly, both, clients and consultants, witnessed that the nonprofit setting was no guarantee for a trusting relationship. Trust had to be earned by managing the relationship and keeping in touch, being committed to the project and working hard. Furthermore, in a majority of the projects the fact that the consultants had based their recommendations on strong empirical or academic grounds was perceived to be a major factor

for why the clients trusted the recommendations. Also, the fact that 180DC consultants are young and innovative was stated twice as a source of trust in them from the clients' side.

6.3 Aligned expectations

One tendency of the nonprofit setting affecting the expectations of the projects could be noticed. The expectations of project outcomes were in some cases affected by that the consultants were volunteers and the projects were free of charge. Not because the volunteer consultants acted differently, but because the quality of their work was expected to be lower. We found evidence of this both on the consultant and on the client side. In about half of the projects clients indicated that they had lower expectations of the outcomes of the project because of the consultants being volunteers.

"*If we had a consultancy, like a consultancy that we actually had to pay for, we would have had a little different expectations on it.*" – *(CLI 4)*

Being a nonprofit organization was sometimes also in general perceived as something negative which created an inferiority complex for a few clients. This further explains why the expectations in general are lower when a nonprofit is doing the work.

"We are a nonprofit organization but we still maintain a very high standard" – (CLI 4)

The consultants also found the volunteering aspect of the nonprofit setting to be a factor that should lower the client's expectations of the project.

"We were volunteers […] She had to limit her expectations because we were not working for this full-time. We were not getting paid. So the whole dynamics were different. […] You get what you pay for – if you don't pay anything, you take what you get." – *(PM 4)*

However, it became apparent that not all clients had lowered their expectations because of the consultants being volunteers. This became an issue, as the consultants in these projects still felt that the expectations should have been lowered.

"*She wanted essentially everything. […] It was a bit too much to ask from a group of volunteers." – (PM 4)*

"*So obviously he was disappointed but he was aiming at getting a document which requires a lot of work and information and he was aiming at getting it for free, voluntarily, but it was impossible to do.*" – *(CON 3)*

If the expectations of all respondents had been affected in the same way, the expectation alignment would probably not have been affected. However, in this case the expectation alignment was found to be complicated in some of the projects since clients did not lower their expectations the way consultants did. This seemed to cause problems, such as less frequent communication during large parts of the relationships. However, in the end of the projects all clients stated that they were satisfied with the end result. In many projects the clients even expressed that their expectations had been exceeded.

"Very good. I was very impressed by them all. They all did a great job!" – (CLI 5)

"My opinion of it was actually better at the end than at the beginning. Because at the beginning I wasn't too sure about it, and in the end I thought: Wow this is pretty good!" –(CLI 1)

As can be noted from the above, the nonprofit context was not found to affect any of the subcategories in the main category "Aligned expectations" per se – it was not found to affect the consultants (or clients) ability to align the expectations. Instead, the nonprofit context directly affected the perception of a majority of the respondents.

6.4 Summary of main results

Table 8. Overiview of main reults

Part of relationship that is affected	**Sub-part of relationship that is affected**	**Aspect of the nonprofit setting that has affected it**	**How the relationship is affected**
1. High motivation and commitment	1.a) Motivation, and b.) Commitment	Mission drive	Cause of client organization is major source of motivation for consultants
2. Collaboration and mutual helping	2. a) Trust, respect and acceptance	Values, drive and voluntary aspect	Trust and acceptance are reached easy
3. Aligned expectations	N/A	Voluntary and pro-bono aspects	Expecation alignment is further complicated

There were three main results of the study: Motivation and commitment among consultants were highly impacted by the cause of the client organization, Trust, respect and acceptance were reached easily as a result of the parties having the same values and drive in combination with that the lack of financial incentives for volunteer consultants, Expectation alignment was further complicated by differing expectations regarding the quality of the volunteers' work.

6.5 Additional results

The degree, to which clients perceived their nonprofit status as a defining trait of their organization, varied widely. While some found it very important that their organization is an NPO and showed a strong emotional connection to it, others rather saw this as a necessary evil and would prefer to be of for-profit nature instead.

"It's really important [for us to be an NPO]. Because we are not, like, earning the money […] We are making something good for society." – (CLI 3)

"It [nonprofit] is actually something that we would like not to be. I think we are one of the most commercially-minded nonprofits that you can find." – (CLI 6)

In a few cases the consultants were rather perceived as students than as consultants - both from the clients' and the consultants' point of view. This may have affected the clients' expectations of the outcome of the projects. One client stated this explicitly.

"My expectations were lowered because it was a student thing" – (CLI 6)

7. Analysis

In this section we present the theoretical analysis of our empirical results, in which we connect the theoretical framework (Section 3) with our empirical findings (Section 6). We thereby provide an answer to our last sub-question:

- *How can the influence on the relationship, that the nonprofit setting has, be explained?*

Just like the findings (Section 6), the analysis is structured under the main categories of the client-consultant relationship that this thesis studies: High motivation and commitment, Collaboration and mutual helping and Aligned expectations. The categories are, once again, sorted in decreasing relevancy of findings.

7.1 High Motivation and Commitment

Being motivated to the project was proven to be an important point, and a point that is not to be taken for granted, even though it is usually not stressed in the literature on client-consultant relationships. There may be several reasons for why these aspects are not emphasized in the literature. We believe the main reason to be that it is seen as a given that both clients (who in a for-profit context pays for the help, and consultants (who have large financial incentives) should be motivated and commited to projects they are involved in. We do, however, think that you have to consider that motivation can have many different levels and an even higher degree of motivation may yield better results. Therefore, even if extrinsic forms of motivation such as remuneration are present, intrinsic forms may be useful as well.

Motivation and, consequently, commitment to the projects proved to be highly influenced by the nonprofit setting. In accordance to theories on volunteer motivation (Badelt & Hollerweger 2007), motivation could be derived from three different categories: An exchange element, an element of value for oneself and an altruistic element.

Consultants stressing work experience and CV building as reasons for being part of 180DC, are clear signs of the exchange element of volunteer motivation, which states professional experience and skills as two main examples of this component (Badelt & Hollerweger, 2007).

Value for oneself was not as frequently stated explicitly as a source of motivation. However, we see this category as the hardest one to depict from the interviews. At times it was expressed as a desire to be associated with the project, which was a good example for this category. Our interpretation from this is that the social involvement is perceived as something that will increase ones social status. This is in line with what the component "Value for oneself" would predict (Brain & Röhrig, 1986).

The altruistic motivation was the by far highest emphasized source of motivation. In line with literature on volunteer motivation, doing something to help others was a central element of motivation (Brudney 2005). Both, consultants and clients, showed to find motivation in this category. However, the pattern was more prominent among consultants. Also, we see this as the most interesting aspect found within this part of the relationship, because the altruistic aspect seems to have been transferred from the client organization's beneficiaries to the consultants,

i.e. the altruistic motivation one can usually find among the volunteers within an NPO towards its own beneficiaries was extended to the volunteers of the consultancy.

One might have predicted that the consultants, who are not part of the client organization per se and who in most of these projects contribute to the end beneficiaries of the client only very indirectly, would have a hard time getting motivated by this aspect. However, to do something good for the beneficiaries of the clients still was shown to be at the heart of the sources of motivation. This may indicate the strength of the altruistic component or that just knowing that you "do good" is what is important, rather than being able to clearly see what good you do.

The clients being highly motivated and commited to the projects was often stated as an effect of their passion for the cause of their organization. This is a sign that the altruistic component was also very significant within the client organizations, in line with what earlier research has shown (Pearce 1983). The high motivation and commitment was someting that had both positive and negative effects on the relationship and on the project in general. Sometimes it contributed to higher passion for the cause among the consultants – the motivation of one party motivated the other. In other cases the passion created a commitment that at points became irritating for the consultants. This shows that higher motivation is not always positive. Furthermore, the clients' passion sometimes turned on the consultants if the project plans did not turn out as expected. This indicates that not being able to help the client can have large repercussions when the client is highly passionate about a cause.

We also saw an explicit example of the motives changing over the project span, as theory states is common (Pearce 1983). The expressed change was not from altruistic motives to the more social part of the category "value for oneself", though. Instead this motivation was stated to change from the exchange component to the altruistic one. This seems to have been due to that the cause of the client was so inspiring that the previously low interest in helping the end beneficiaries suddenly became relevant for certain consultants.

7.2 Collaboration and mutual helping

The interviews indicated that trust, respect and acceptance between clients and consultants have been affected positively by both organizations being NPOs. Especially, the trust and acceptance that the clients felt for the consultants seem to have been increased by this.

The consultants' lack of financial incentives made the clients feel secure about the consultants' intentions. More importantly though, the clients and consultants expressed that they felt they were very much alike. Especially the clients stressed that the two groups have the same drive and values. Furthermore, this was perceived to increase the consultants understanding for their organizations. We believe that this can be explained by the parties identifying with being of nonprofit nature and therefore perceiving each other to be part of the same ingroup, whereas for-profit people represent an out-group, in accordance to socio psychological research (Tajfel 1969, 1970; Tajfel & Wilkes 1963; Tajfel, et al. 1971). In the field observations it could be noticed that presenting the reasons for being part of nonprofit organizations was a way to control the similar drive and values between the parties. This feeling of, together, representing an ingroup has consequently made the clients think higher of the consultants in accordance with previous research (Aronson et al., 2010). A prerequisite for the ingroup feeling is probably that people in the nonprofit sector acknowledge that there are big differences between them and other sectors.

Since NPO's can be perceived as a minority in the business society, the ingroup feeling is probably further strengthened.

In the observations one could notice that the clients were able to open up very quickly and take input from the consultants. This is not in line with how an initial contact looks as described by Process Consulting (Schein 1998). The increased trust and acceptance that clients have for consultants, because of them being part of the same ingroup and because of the lack of financial incentives for consultants, seem to have decreased the need for the series of mutual tests that it usually takes for the client to open up, according to Process Consulting (Schein 1998). Normally, consultants have to earn the acceptance through listening and coming with insightful question for a rather long period before the client opens up. This process seems to have been shortened substantially.

7.3 Aligned expectations

The perceptions of the quality of results that a nonprofit organization can deliver were divided between the respondents. The volunteering and pro-bono aspects of 180DC being an NPO lowered the expectations of the project outcome for all consultants, but only for about half of the clients.

The general perception among most the interviewees, that work by nonprofit organizations is of low quality, is not in line with earlier research (Salamon et.al. 2000; Weisbrod, 1989; Billis & Glennerster, 1998). In accordance to earlier studies it would not have been surprising to find that the client organizations expected a higher value from the consulting teams because they come from the nonprofit sector. 180DC is not profit-oriented and therefore would fulfill one of the underlying arguments that Weisbrod (1989) and Billis and Glennerster (1998) have for the higher quality of the nonprofit sector. However, the second underlying factor, that nonprofit organizations often are of smaller scale, cannot be said to be fulfilled and may play a part in the observed results.

In combination with the argument that you get what you pay for, the perceptions of most respondents were lowered. We also believe that the fact that 180DC consultants are student has had a certain impact on this category. As presented (Section 6.5), one client did explicitly state to have lower expectations because of the consultants being students. For the remaining consultants and clients the lowered expectations were always stated as an effect of the nonprofit setting though. It was also confirmed when being asked specifically, that it was the nonprofit aspect that was the influencing factor for these respondents. We still see this as a distorting factor to this category though. Moreover, we believe that the divided expectations may be an indication of that disperesed perceptions about the nonprofit sector exist. This may be a result of the rather nascent state of academic research on the sector or the complexity of the phenomenon as such.

8. Discussion

In this section the theoretical and practical contributions are first presented and discussed, followed by the limitations to these contributions. Lastly, possible areas for future research are brought forward and discussed.

8.1 Theoretical contributions

The study emphasizes the importance of motivation and commitment in a client-consultant relationship. It indicates that this aspect is not given sufficient space and importance in the client-consultant relationship literature. It also contributes to the nonprofit literature by providing an example of that the altruistic motive of a volunteer can be extended to an organization which the volunteer is not formally part of. This emphasizes the strength of the altruistic component in volunteer motivation as it was found to be such a strong source of motivation even though the consultants did not have any direct involvement in the organization and had only a very indirect contribution to the beneficiaries of the client organization.

Furthermore, this research complements the concept Process Consulting in that it points out that trust in a relationship can be heavily affected by other points than simply the actions performed by consultants and clients. Socio-psychological aspects can create better or worse preconditions for how fast trust, respect and acceptance are built up and how big the need for mutual tests is. For example, ingroup perspectives can create a lowered need for the mutual tests as this per se increases trust, respect and acceptance.

Current literature focuses a lot on actions that are important to manage and on aligning the expectations of a project. However it does not put big emphasis on what influence external forces and circumstances can have on how hard it is to align expectations. This study shows that the nonprofit setting is a circumstance in which perceptions are divided in regards to quality of work. This implies a setting that further complicates the alignment of expectations. Additionaly, the fact that the nonprofit aspect was predicted to yield lower quality results adds to the literature regarding roles and characteristics of the third sector.

8.2 Practical contributions

When discussing practical contributions we focus on what contributions the study has for nonprofit consultancies. Implications for other types of organizations will be discussed later (Section 8.3). Our findings speaks for that, if being a nonprofit consultancy and having volunteer consultants, it is very important to recruit people who are genuinely interested in doing good and helping others - i.e. recruiting people who are motivated by the altruistic component of volunteer motivation. The need for going through several steps of mutual acceptance was found to be smaller in the nonprofit setting. Because of this, consultancies in this setting can be more direct in searching for the actual problem. The divided perceptions of the quality of work provided by organizations in the nonprofit sector imply that this is an extra force to take into account when trying to align expectations. Especially when it comes to communicating clearly

and not overpromising, it should be stated form the consultants' side what can be expected from a volunteer.

8.3 Limitations to contributions

In addition to the limitations brought up in the methodology (Section 5.7), there are some further limitations to the contributions of this research. These are in relation to the generalizability of the findings, the lens through which the nonprofit sector has been studied as well as certain aspects of the case organizations that should be viewed as weaknesses.

Generalizability of findings

As indicated earlier, nonprofit organizations can vary in a lot of different ways, which limits the generalizability of our findings (in terms of inferring from this case study to client-consultant relationships in other nonprofit settings). Therefore, the findings may not be applicable to relationships in which the consultancy, the client, or both are very different from the ones studied in this case.

Regarding generalizability towards other settings, the findings are by nature specific to the nonprofit setting. We do, however, perceive that certain parts of our findings have indirect implications for client-consultant relationships in other settings as well. The existence of altruistic motivation builds on the nonprofit setting. However, we do think that our results emphasize the importance of pairing consultants with client organizations, whose mission they are passionate about, in other settings as well. Regarding the findings on mutual trust, respect and acceptance we see a clear implication for for-profit consultancies looking to enter the nonprofit sector. Since the increased trust is built on that the consultants represent an NPO, it should be favorable for the consultancy to set up a separate organization, of nonprofit kind, for consulting NPOs. This is meant in contrast to having the consultants within the for-profit organization advice nonprofit organizations, which does not generate trust through the ingroup perception. Creating a separate unit for consulting nonprofit organizations is in line with, for example, Bain & Company who started the nonprofit organization The Bridgespan Group.

The lens through which the nonprofit sector has been studied

The different perspectives of viewing the nonprofit sector (the nonprofit, the mutual and the movement approach) (Section 2.1) may yield different results. As we chose to view this phenomenon through the nonprofit perspective we may have excluded other angles on the phenomenon. The results of the study would probably have been different if another perspective had been taken. On another note, the fact that we are business students may have impacted the responses that the interviewees expected us to look for. The responses might have been different if we had another academical background.

Aspect of the case organization

The consultants of 180DC are all students. This has surely affected the client's perception of them and in certain ways distorted the results. We have however, for our main findings, checked that the student aspect has not been too big of an influence. In any case, we do consider this to have been a somewhat distorting factor.

Another aspect of the consultants to consider is their academic background. 180DC consultants are usually business students and therefore might have mindsets that are more in line with the

forprofit sector than the nonprofit sector. Furthermore, business models are often used to solve the issues of the clients. These factors may impact the degree to which 180DC can be viewed as a nonprofit organization.

We, the authors of this thesis, are, as earlier stated, both part of 180DC. At the same time as this has given us unique access to the projects that are pursued by the organization and a great insight to how it operates, it may have biased our analysis. We have, however, attempted to be as distanced as possible and look at the organization with fresh eyes.

8.4 Possible areas for future research

As this study is of an exploratory nature its findings provoke deeper research in certain areas. Looking at further research opportunities within 180DC as a case organization, we see potential for a more quantitative analysis – since our study focused on only nine out of several hundred projects that have been conducted. Herein, a study on cultural and geographical differences or differences between certain types of projects could be interesting.

As for our research area, management consulting for NPOs, a larger, comparative study between for-profit consultancies and nonprofit consultancies would seem the next logical step. This would yield better results on how much the nonprofit aspect really matters when looking at consultancies. Alternatively, a case study, assessing how the nonprofit setting plays out in professional nonprofit consultancies, e.g. The Bridgespan Group, could be of great academic value.

9. Conclusion

We have found that the client-consultant relationship in a management consultancy project is affected in three ways by a nonprofit setting. Firstly, motivation and commitment are vital aspects of the relationship and the sources of them are in line with volunteer motivation theory. The main foundation for motivation for the consultants is to help the beneficiaries of the client organization – the altruistic aspect of volunteer motivation is herein extended from the client organization to the consultants. Secondly, the nonprofit setting works as a source of trust, acceptance and respect in itself. This seems to be due to an "ingroup" feeling between the client and consultants as well as due to that consultants' motives are trustworthy considering the absence of financial incentives. The automatically increased trust, respect and acceptance seem to work as a facilitator for the clients to open up and discuss the real issues of their organizations. In this way the series of mutual tests that is usually needed for the client to open up, as described in Process Consulting, seems to be less necessary. Third, the expectations of the project outcome are mixed as an effect of the nonprofit setting. While most have lower expectations because of this, the expectations of some clients remain unchanged. The unaligned perceptions of the quality of the volunteers' work further complicate the expectations alignment. We do think that these points are of high importance for the client-consultant relationship and have implications for how to manage such relationship. We do, at the same time, want to stress that no further influences by the nonprofit setting were discovered and, except for the discovered influnces, earlier research could explain also the client-consultant relationship in a nonprofit setting.

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Appendix

Appendix 1. Literature Search[4]

Search for Consulting-related articles in nonprofit journals			
Journal Name	*Source*	*Search for: "Consulting"*	*Search for: "Advising"*
Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations	ABI/INFORM Global Mar 1997 (Vol. 8, no. 1) – present	"title": 0 results "abstract": 1 result "key words": 0 results	"title": 0 results "abstract": 1 result "key words": 0 results
Nonprofit Management and Leadership	Wiley - Blackwell (BIBSAM) 1998 to present	"title": 1 result "abstract": 4 results "key words": 0 results	"title": 0 results "abstract": 0 results "key words": 0 results
NVSQ – Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Quarterly	Sage Premier (BIBSAM) 1999 to present	"title": 0 results "abstract": 1 result "key words": 0 results	"title": 0 results "abstract": 1 result "key words": 0 results
International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing	Wiley - Blackwell (BIBSAM) 1999 to present	"title": 0 results "abstract": 3 result "key words": 0 results	"title": 1 result "abstract": 3 results "key words": 0 results

[4] Literature search limited to: Full-text, peer-reviewed Journal articles, English language; search conducted on April 6th 2014

Search for Nonprofit-related articles in consulting journals		
Journal Name	*Source*	*Search for: "Nonprofit"*
Consulting to Management	ABI/INFORM Global 1993 - 2006	"title": 1 result "abstract": 1 result "key words": 2 results
Journal of Practical Consulting	Business Source Premier 2012 to present	"title": 0 results "abstract": 0 results "key words": 0 results
Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research	Business Source Premier 2003 – 2006	"title": 0 results "abstract": 1 results "key words": 0 results

Appendix 2. Interview protocol

Checklist before starting interview

- Who is the investigator (mail)

- Reason for the study (mail)

- Study's sponsorship – not financially, but supported by 180 DC International
    - How we found the interview partner (recommendations by branch presidents)

- Why the respondent was selected (recency of project, English…)

- What the purpose of the interview is:
    - To collect data on the consultant-client relationship (in a non-profit-to-non-profit setting)

- What will be asked of the respondent
    - We'd like you to give the most detailed account on the project
    - We'd like you to take your time, think about questions for a minute if necessary
    - We might interrupt you during the interview, when we feel we have collected enough information on a certain topic

- Confidentiality is guaranteed; only state:
    - branch name
    - type of client organization
    - role of interviewee (PM, consultant, client)
    - gender
    - age of interviewees

- Use of information:
    - Primarily about academic use for our thesis
    - Secondary use: relevant insights from the thesis will be communicated to 180 Degrees International
    - Is that ok for you?

- Interview will be tape-recorded – is that ok?

Client Interview questions

With basis in initiation of the project

How come you decided to take on a consultancy project?

Why did you decide to work with 180DC?

- If because non profit: How come you wanted a nonprofit consultancy?
- if because several reasons, please rank them!

Did the fact that 180 Degrees only work with socially conscious organizations influence your decision to work with them? In what way?

Do you think it is of big importance for your organization that you are a non-profit?

- Is this a defining factor for your organization?

With basis in start-up phase of project

Looking back at the initial meeting with the 180DC team/with the client:

- *What was the setting of the meeting (where, when etc.)?*
- *How many people from each side (consultant/client) were there? Which people from your organization (roles)?*

What were your expectations about the project at this point?

Were there clearly defined goals of the project?

Did your expectations about the goals change during the initial meeting? In what way? Why?

Did the consultant team in any way influence this change in expectations? How did this change come about? Who was the main driver of the change?

What were the consultant's overarching goals and expectations for the project?

How would you describe the consultant team's understanding of the project?

- Do you feel that the consultant team had realistic expectations about the goal of the project?

How would you describe the consultant team's understanding of the intended outcome of the project as you saw it?

- Do you feel that the consultant team understood the intended goal of the project?

How would you describe the consultant team's understanding of your organization?

- Do you feel the consultant team understood the nature of your organization?

How did you reach agreement on the project scope?

- What did the negotiation process look like?
- What did you agree on? Please elaborate!

Do you feel that any decisions about the project scope were made without your agreement?

Who were the main beneficiaries of the project and were there others in your organizations that were involved in the project or were relevant for the project outcome?

- Did you feel the consultants took these actors into account?

With basis in midstream phase of project

What contact with the 180 DC team did you have between the initial meeting and the final meeting when presenting the solutions? (Now we focus on this time span).

How would you describe the level of commitment among the people involved in the project?

How would you describe the consultant team's commitment to the project?

Did you perceive that the consultants were motivated to the project throughout the process?

How would you describe your commitment to the project?

Did you feel motivated about the project?

Did the consultant team affect your motivation to the project? In what way?

Do you feel that the fact that 180DC is a nonprofit in any way affected your motivation and commitment to the project?

How important was it for you that the students had a good learning experience?

- What did you do to make this happen?

With basis in closing down phase of project

Looking at the final meeting with the client/the final presentation we are now looking at how the project ended…

What were the recommendations of the team?

How did you feel about the recommendations that the consultants had?

Did you feel that you trusted the team and their recommendations?

- How come?

Did you implement the recommendations?

- To what extent?

Do you feel that your trust in the team and their recommendations in any way was affected by the fact that they also represent a non-profit organization?

In what way did this affect?

Additional concluding questions

What was your overall satisfaction with the project?

Would you consider working with 180 Degrees Consulting again in the future?

How do you feel that the relationship overall between you and 180DC was throughout the project?

Do you feel that the fact that 180Degrees consulting is a nonprofit organization had any implications for how the relationship between you team and the consultant team turned out?

Consultant Interview questions

With basis in initiation of the project

How come you decided to get involved in 180DC?

Can you shortly describe the project you were involved in?

With basis in start-up phase of the project

Looking back at the initial meeting with the 180DC team and the client:

- What was the setting of the meeting (where, when etc.)?

- How many people from each side (consultant/client) were there? Which people from the client (roles)?

What was the goal of the project?

What were your expectations about the outcome of the project and the projects' contribution to the client organization?

What do you think the client expected from the project?

Were there clearly defined goals of the project?

Did you do anything to influence the client's expectations of the project goal? In that case what and how did that change come about?

How did you reach agreement on the project scope? Please elaborate!

Were there other people (apart from your client contact) present in meetings?

Who in the client organization did you include in decisions in the meeting?

Did you consider other stakeholders in the client organization than the ones who were present in the meeting?

Did you ever feel that you and the client were not of the same opinion about some part of the project? If yes, how did you resolve this?

With basis in midstream phase of the project

What client contact did you have between the initial meeting and the final meeting when presenting the solutions? (Now we focus on this time span).

How would you describe the level of commitment to the project by the people involved?

Did you feel committed to the project during this time?

Did you feel motivated to work on the project throughout this time span?

Was there ever a time where you felt that the project had stalled?

- How did you then keep going?

What was it that motivated you to work on it?

Did the client do anything in particular to motivate you to work on the project?

Did you feel that the client wanted you to make this to a good learning opportunity for you?

- In what way?

Did you feel that the client organization was committed to the project during this period?

- Equally much over the entire project?

Did you do anything to influence their commitment to the project?

With basis in closing down phase of the project

Looking at the final meeting with the client/the final presentation we are now looking at how the project ended.

What were your recommendations?

How did the clients react to your recommendations?

Did you feel that the client trusted your recommendations?

Do you know if the recommendations have been implemented?

Why do you think the client trusted/did not trust your recommendations?

Do you think that the trust the client had for you in any way was affected by the fact that you are also a non-profit organization? In what way?

Additional concluding questions

What is your overall satisfaction of the project?

How do you feel that the relationship overall between you and the client was throughout the project?

Do you feel that the fact that 180Degrees consulting is a nonprofit organization had any implications for how the relationship between your team and the client organization turned out?