Horizontal collaboration between international and local non-governmental organisations: A cross-sectional study regarding the Syrian refugee crisis in Jordan

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Abstract

Purpose-This thesis seeks to explore supply chain collaboration within a humanitarian context, and to appraise relationships between international non-governmental organisations and community-based organisations during disaster relief. It also aims to identify challenges facing such collaboration in the humanitarian supply chain, and to discover whether effective partnerships contain a set of identifiable facilitators, drivers and mechanisms which promote relationships between local and international NGOs.

Design/Methodology/Approach-Literature from both commercial and humanitarian sectors is discussed in the context of horizontal partnerships. A Jordanian cross- sectional study spanning a network of NGOs is explored via semi-structured interviews. Insights are synthesised into a conceptual model of how NGOs can form partnerships during a humanitarian response.

Findings-The research provides valuable insights into the challenges facing local and international NGOs when developing partnerships. Four types of challenge are identified: organisational, inter-organisational, external, and donor-related. The conceptual model highlights the essential elements required for effective partnerships. **Research limitations/Future research**-The research is built on a single cross-sectional study from one country during an extended humanitarian crisis. The majority of the empirical data is only from one actor's perspective, thus further research into dyadic and network relationships is required. Further investigation is required into approaches to addressing the diverse cultural and decision-making perspectives of local and international NGOs.

Practical Implications-Recognising the challenges and major elements to horizontal partnerships between local and international NGOs will assist managers, both at strategic and operational levels, to find solutions and evolve strategies to build effective

partnerships. Compromise and consideration for partner's drivers and cultural views are essential for effective humanitarian relief.

Originality/Value- The research extends supply chain collaboration to a humanitarian context. Overcoming the challenges facing collaborative efforts and the complementary nature of the facilitators, drivers, and mechanisms provides a means to achieve effective partnerships. Despite the uniqueness of the humanitarian context, such as the secondary nature of cost and dynamic demand, the core principles of collaboration still hold.

Keywords-Humanitarian, supply chain collaboration, partnerships, community-based organisations (CBOs), non-governmental organisations (NGOs), international NGOs (INGOs).

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Abbreviations

3PL	Third-party logistics
4PL	Forth-party logistics
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DSS	Decision Support System
ERP	Enterprise Resource Planning
GIS	Geographic Information System
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organisation
JHCO	Jordan Hashemite Charity Organisation
JPS	Jordan Paramedic Society
JV	Joint Venture
KPI	Key Performance Indicator
LNGO	Local Non- Governmental Organisation
LSS	Logistics Support Systems
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MOPIC	Ministry of Planning & International Cooperation
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OXFAM	Oxford Committee for Famine Relief
PRA	Participatory Rapid Appraisal
RAIS	Refugee Assistance and Information System
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USAID	United State Agency for International Development

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

The 1st Chapter

INTRODUCTION

1 Introduction

1.1 Background: humanitarian supply chain collaboration

Nowadays, man-made and natural disasters happen more frequently in comparison to one hundred years ago (EM-DAT, 2013). In 2010, around 385 different disasters struck, causing total economic damage valued at USD 123.9 billion, and affecting over 217 million people (Guhu-Sapir et al., 2011) In the following year, tens of millions of internally displaced people and refugees were reported (Gilmann, 2010; OCHA, 2012). The existing literature also estimates that the number of disasters will multiply five-fold over the next 50 years, because of global warming and rapid urban expansion, placing people and assets at greater risk (Thomas & Kopczak, 2005; Schulz & Blecken, 2010; Nikbakhsh & Farahani, 2011; IPCC, 2012). In response to the diversity and intensity of disasters, the humanitarian system, with its excess of humanitarian organisations, all with various agendas, has revealed the importance of delivering the right aid to the right people at the right place quickly to alleviate unnecessary distress (Thomas & Kopczak, 2005; Chandra, 2006; European Commission, 2008). This is particularly important for the survival of displaced persons and communities. For this reason, seeking a balance between time, cost, and quality has grown into an international industry (Carroll & Neu, 2009; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009a). Particularly, there is a greater focus on the development of logistics and supply chains, which are charged with transforming resources into tangible products and services and delivering them effectively and efficiently to the multiple points of consumption (Larson & Halldorsson, 2004; Thomas & Kopczak, 2005).

Over the years, supply chain management has demonstrated its applicability in the commercial sector, but less so in the humanitarian arena, that is described by Fawcett and Waller (2013) as "*a new business discipline that is going through growing pains*" (p.183). This is because the commercial supply chain is driven by relatively predictable demand,

reliable data, measurable outcomes, and adequate capacities (Beamon, 2004). Whereas, humanitarian demand is unpredictable, very time sensitive and often constrained by supply, thus side-lining any profit goals (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009b). It is also characterised by zero lead times and incomplete data (Bui et al., 2000; Eriksson, 2000; Beamon, 2004; Rodman, 2004; Chandra, 2006). The staff of humanitarian organisations also lack experience regarding relief work, since most of them have backgrounds related to the commercial world. Moreover, funding is typically available over a short period (Balland & Sobhi, 2013), while the outcomes of relief actions are hard to quantify and evaluate accurately (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009b; Nikbakhsh & Farahani, 2011).

Failure by the humanitarian system to deliver aid effectively has led to a huge loss of lives (Balland & Sobi, 2013). For instance, the 2004 Asian tsunami has revealed issues related to flight and warehousing capacity and infrastructure availability, as well as coordination difficulty, causing high inventory costs, long lead times, and fewer beneficiaries to serve (Simatupang et al., 2002; Yamada et al, 2006; Kovács & Spens, 2007; Tomasini & van Wassenhove, 2009; Balcik et al., 2010, Balland & Sobhi, 2013). To overcome the coordination risk, attain economies of scales, and improve the supply chains' agility, Schulz and Blecken (2010) cited the necessity of initiating partnerships between the humanitarian key actors to allow exchanging of valuable resources such as information, money, abilities, products, and manpower. This was also supported by Cooper et al. (1997), Porter et al. (1998), and Mason et al. (2007) who stated that collaboration is a silver bullet that can enhance the supply chain performance and improve the resilience and recovery of affected communities (Chandes & Pache, 2010).

Supply chain collaboration falls into two categories: process focused and relationship focused, and it is defined as *"a long-term partnership process where supply chain partners work closely together to achieve common goals and mutual benefits"* (Cao & Zhang, 2012,

p.57). It comprises information and resources sharing, goal compatibility, joint decision making, and collaborative communication (Cao & Zhang, 2012). Existing collaborations in the humanitarian sector are often found between international non-governmental organisations (INGOs), local community-based organisations (CBOs), private sector organisations, governments, and military forces, each having varying motivations and missions. For example, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) collaborate to enhance their organisational capacities, alongside the effectiveness and efficiency of their relief operations (Snavely & Tracy, 2000; INTRAC, 2001; UK Charities Commission, 2009). Governments including military, collaborate when they lack the capability to deliver aid individually (Collier, 2007:2010). Private corporations collaborate to strengthen their brand and expand their work (Martin & Darcy, 2011; Gray & Stites, 2013). These collaborations often entail significant challenges such as lack of mutuality, poor communication, and resources uncertainty (Kovacs & Spens, 2010; Balcik et al., 2010).

Recently, the collaboration between INGOs and CBOs has received great attention. This is because INGOs have access to global resources, but they lack knowledge and experience about the new affected regions (Crowther, 2001; Svoboda & Pantuliano, 2015). CBOs, on the other hand, have a strong knowledge relevant to their country's policies and beneficiaries' geographical distributions, but they lack resources (Libal & Harding, 2011; Charles et al., 2014; Svoboda & Pantuliano, 2015; ICRC, 2017). Thus, collaborative partnerships and coordination within and between organisations can lead to improved efficiency and effectiveness in resource allocation, and benefits that cannot be achieved by individual organisations.

1.2 Research objectives and questions

Current literature investigates the applicability of the commercial supply chain practices in the humanitarian sector. The literature assumes that application of the theories,

conceptions, and frameworks of the commercial model to the humanitarian supply chain, will allow satisfactory results to be achieved, however contextual differences and complications can also be observed (Oloruntoba & Gray, 2006, p.115). Therefore, this study aims to investigate the applicability of humanitarian supply chain collaboration between INGOs and CBOs firstly by exploring the challenges that impact creating or modifying effective dyadic partnerships between NGOs responding to the Syrian refugee crisis in Jordan and secondly by identifying the elements that promote sustainable relationships. By conducting this research, the collaboration maturity level between INGOS and CBOs in Jordan will be revealed.

Specific research questions to be addressed are:

Phase One (identifying challenges):

Q1: What are the potential challenges that constrain an effective partnership between an INGO and a CBO at the dyadic level, during disaster relief operations?

Phase two (identifying the partnership elements):

Q2: How can a successful partnership be enabled between an INGO and a CBO at the dyadic level, during disaster relief operations?

➢   What are the potential key drivers and facilitators of an effective partnership?

➢   What are the potential mechanisms to promote an effective partnership?

1.3   Research methodology overview

Since 1948, millions of refugees from Palestine, Iraq and Syria have fled to Jordan (UNRWA, 2016). The massive influx of refugees has forced the Jordanian Government to stretch beyond its capacity in order to provide the affected people with the necessary services such as water supply, food, education, and healthcare (Francis, 2015). To enhance the response to the Syrian crisis, the international community was asked to intervene and INGOs became responsible for filling the gap and supporting the limited local capacity. In time, several challenges like hidden communities and governmental restrictions appeared

and these affected the INGOs' endeavours to serve more beneficiaries. In response, collaborative efforts with local CBOs have been created to increase the number of relief projects within Jordan (Libal & Harding, 2011). Disappointingly, challenges related to power, funding, and hidden agendas have allowed the creation of inauthentic relationships between INGOs and CBOs.

A qualitative, interpretivist, constructionist research methodology was undertaken. First, literature from both the commercial and humanitarian sectors was discussed in the context of horizontal-dyadic partnerships. Second, a Jordanian cross-sectional, exploratory study spanning a network of NGOs was explored via face-to-face, semi-structured interviews. Insights were then synthesised into a conceptual model of how NGOs can collaborate effectively during a humanitarian response. It is important to note that the reliability and validity of the qualitative methodology would be one of the researcher's main concerns that emerged at an early stage (Gieryn, 1983; Ramsden, 2014).

1.4 Potential contribution to knowledge

The challenges facing the collaborative efforts, alongside the facilitators, key drivers, technical and relational mechanisms, complement each other to achieve effective partnerships. Despite the uniqueness of the humanitarian context, such as the secondary nature of cost and dynamic demand, the core principles of collaboration still hold and the existing related publications are disjointed and generalised (Ramsden, 2014). This issue stems from the attention given to enhance commercial supply chain collaboration, whereas a few empirical studies discussed the following: (a) how NGOs understand and define the partnership concept; (b) what obstacles they normally face; and (c) how effective partnerships can be implemented in the humanitarian sector (INTRAC, 2001; Beamon, 2004). Consequently, operational failures such as *"lost time, wasted resources and*

ultimately a deeply disorganised supply chain" are still predominant in the humanitarian sector (Chandes & Paché, 2010, p.337).

This study further extends supply chain collaboration research from the commercial sector to the humanitarian arena. Particularly, it explores horizontal-dyadic partnerships between INGOs and Jordanian CBOs, since the existing partnerships are unsatisfactory. The study also brings practical insight to NGOs that wish to modify their partnerships by addressing the challenges facing NGOs' partners, illustrating their root causes, as well as identifying the key elements that allow effective horizontal partnerships between INGOs and CBOs. A leading partnership model was adopted and modified to bring about the research goal. The majority of respondents agreed that no existing studies discussed the status of humanitarian partnerships between INGOs and CBOs in Jordan. They also described existing reports that demonstrate theoretically how to build effective partnerships as generic guidelines do not fit within the context. Additionally, the researcher is not aware of previous studies that present the key elements of facilitators, drivers, technical and relational mechanisms in one framework.

1.5   Scope and boundaries of the research

Humanitarian supply chain collaboration can be explored at both the network and dyadic level. Although recognising the importance of exploring the partnerships at the network level, the expected outcomes of a Master research project, the complexity of data collection, as well as the constraints of time, cost, effort, and geographical proximity resulted in the decision to explore the partnerships only at the dyadic level. Furthermore, this research focuses on the human, slow onset disasters (Syrian refugee crisis) because of the feasibility of access to the NGOs that are operating in Jordan, thus allowing an exploration of existing partnerships. Although the importance of all types of collaborations such as joint venture, intersectional, or vertical partnership is acknowledged; this research

concentrates on horizontal partnerships where competitors from the same area collaborate to enhance their reputation and brand (Barratt, 2004; Mangan et al., 2008). This is because the level of interaction between INGOs and CBOs is still under development, thus requiring further investigation.

1.6   The importance of the research

The researcher took this topic a step forward because of a lack of authentic partnerships between the INGOs and Jordanian CBOs. A recognition of the challenges to horizontal-dyadic partnerships between NGOs will assist managers, at both strategic and operational levels, to find solutions and evolve strategies to build effective and genuine partnerships which serve a greater number of beneficiaries. Compromise and consideration for a partner's drivers, cultural views, and social connections are also essential for effective humanitarian relief.

The theoretical value of the study is a partnership model that illustrates how NGOs should collaborate. The practical value, on the other hand, is two-fold. First of all, a reduction in administrative costs will be possible after improving existing partnerships since mismanagement of donations received is a common issue. Grey Matter, in his research about how NGOs spend money, indicated that 60% or sometimes more of every dollar is spent on overheads (Matter, 2008), and around 50% to 80% of the total budget is dedicated to logistics (Van Wassenhove, 2006). The issue of misspending can be eliminated by utilising the free spaces of CBOs such as free warehousing alongside acknowledging the existence of skilled local staff, who require fewer expenses. Secondly, the study will mitigate some of the adverse effects of the disaster and will allow serving the right beneficiaries, with the right aid, at the right time and quality. For instance, enhanced coordination during disasters and prevention of random resource allocations will be achieved since local CBOs have a better understanding of the actual needs of the affected

population. This confirms the work of previous researchers (Cooper et al, 1997; Porter, 1998; Yamada et al, 2006; Kovács & Spens, 2007; Tomasini & van Wassenhove, 2009b) who pointed to the coordination of logistics resources as a serious issue which can be enhanced by encouraging the organisations within a supply chain to combine their objectives and operations to create value, and is a valuable contribution of the thesis.

1.7 Research limitations and implications

The research is built on a single snapshot of the situation in Jordan during an extended humanitarian crisis. It was difficult to represent the entire population since the researcher was limited by time. Therefore, the research findings are limited to this context and the views of the research participants. Most of the empirical data are only from one partner's perspective, thus further research into dyadic and network relationships is required. Particularly, the applicability of a shared platform that is comprised of a collaborative network of different organisations and cooperatively managed by multiple NGOs has the potential for further exploration. Moreover, most of the CBOs were located in remote areas and the effect of distance and cultural dissimilarities have limited the researcher's ability to present the perspectives of local respondents adequately. Consequently, approaches to addressing the diverse cultural and decision making perspectives of local and international NGOs requires further investigation.

1.8 Structure of the research

The thesis comprises five further chapters, namely: literature review, method, findings, discussion, and conclusion.

- **Chapter 2. Literature review:** This chapter begins by setting out an overview of disasters and relief operations. Next, the major supply network is introduced, followed by a comparison between humanitarian and commercial supply chains, and a brief overview of the humanitarian supply chain collaboration. After this, there is a discussion on the type

of constraints facing NGOs alongside the facilitators, key drivers, and mechanisms that may together produce satisfactory relationships. Finally, a partnership conceptual model, research gaps, and chapter summary are provided.

- **Chapter 3. Research method:** A detailed description of the research methodology is offered. It starts by discussing the research philosophy., and then the research methodology followed by the research design, selected sample, data collection and analysis. The chapter is then concluded by the methodology evaluation, ethical considerations, and a chapter summary.

- **Chapter 4. Research findings:** The empirical findings that were collected from primary and secondary sources are explored. The secondary data was collected from websites, articles and reports, whereas the primary data was gathered from 35 respondents who occupy prominent positions in 25 local and international NGOs in Jordan. This chapter begins with a case background and sample description. Then, the respondents' perspectives regarding both challenges and those elements that complement each other to achieve effective relationships are presented, followed by an exemplar case and a synthesis of the findings.

- **Chapter 5. Discussion:** The empirical findings are mapped against previous research to identify the potential academic insight of the thesis. The research questions are answered and managerial implications are recommended.

- **Chapter 6. Conclusion:** This chapter includes the research conclusion, contribution to knowledge, limitations and potential area for future research.

The 2st Chapter

LITERITURE REVIEW

2 Literature Review

This chapter outlines in detail the published literature relating to NGOs' supply chain collaboration. Since NGOs act in response to disasters, an overview of disasters and types of relief operations, as well as phases of a disaster management system, are presented. Next, the major humanitarian actors and their interrelationships are identified, with a great focus on the NGOs' role in alleviating the suffering of the affected populations. An overview of humanitarian and commercial supply chains, supply chain collaboration, and horizontal-dyadic relationships is presented to clarify the characteristics of humanitarian supply chain collaboration between two NGOs. After that, the development of NGOs' partnerships requires exploring the challenges, facilitators, key drivers, and mechanisms that promote effective relationships. Finally, an INGO-CBO partnership model is introduced followed by research gaps and chapter summary.

2.1 Disaster management system

2.1.1 An overview of disasters and types of humanitarian operations

Disaster is a "*disruption that physically affects a system as a whole and threatens its priorities and goals*" (Van Wassenhove, 2006, p.476). Four types of disasters can be found: natural-sudden onsets (e.g. earthquakes), human-made sudden onsets (e.g. industrial accidents), natural-slow onsets (e.g. poverty), and human-made slow onsets (e.g. refugee crisis) (Van Wassenhove, 2006; Reed, 2016). Humanitarian operations are divided into disaster relief operations and continuous aid operations (Kovacs & Spens, 2007; Oktarina et al., 2013; Venkatesh et al., 2014; Apte et al., 2016). The disaster category and current environment's stability are the key determinants of the type of humanitarian operations (Kovacs & Spens, 2007). For instance, when the environment is stable and planning is possible like in the case of slow onsets disasters, continuous aid operations are applied. The core focus of the continuous aid operations is a community's self-sufficiency and

sustainability (Byman et al., 2012). Disaster relief operations, on the other hand, evolve in unstable environments, such as sudden onset disasters (Balland & Sobhi, 2013). Relief operations concentrate on "*designing the transportation of first aid material, food, equipment's, and rescue personnel from supply points to a large number of destination nodes geographically scattered over the disaster region and the evacuation of people affected by the disaster to health care centers safely and rapidly*" (Barbarosoglu, Ozdamar, & Cevik, 2002, p.118).

2.1.2 Phases of a disaster management system

The disaster management system is composed of the mitigation, preparation, immediate response, and reconstruction phases (Kovacs & Spens, 2007; Nikbakhsh & Farahani, 2011; Murray, 2015; Center for disaster Philanthropy, 2016). A set of strategies is planned during phases one and two, whereas an actual programme planning takes place in phases three and four (Long, 1997). Figure 2.1 represents the phases of a disaster management system.

Figure 2.1: The main phases of a disaster management system (Nikbakhsh & Farahani, 2011)

The mitigation phase aims to track hazards, prevent them from turning into serious problems, or decrease their impacts when they occur (Balland & Sobhi, 2013; Miller et al., 2015; Murray, 2015; Reed, 2016). Both structural and non-structural measures are used in the mitigation phase such as flood levees and land-use planning (Balland & Sobhi, 2013; Wenger, 2015). However, this phase is neglected since it requires long-term planning and huge investments (Balland & Sobhi, 2013). At the second stage comes the preparation phase that aims to develop the communication systems, partnerships, joint governance, and distribution networks to facilitate services provision when disasters strike (Cozzolino, 2012; Miller et al., 2015; Apte et al., 2016). All the knowledge that has been learned from previous experiences, is employed in this phase (Kovacs & Spens, 2007). Irrespective of how beneficial it is to prepare for a response plan, the preparation phase is also ignored, since donors prefer their funds to be spent directly on the beneficiaries, instead of supporting the back-office operations (Murray, 2005).

In contrast, more attention is given to the response phase, as this phase aims to rescue the affected people from immediate danger and restore the basic services as fast as possible (Cozzolino, 2012; Wex et al., 2014; Murray, 2015; Apte et al., 2016). Therefore, information that offers precise needs evaluation capability to allow immediate support is critical (Apte et al., 2016). Unfortunately, in the response phase, the humanitarian actors depend strongly upon often inaccurate and incomplete data collected when a disaster strikes, to assume the affected region's need of supplies (Long & Wood, 1995). Therefore, wrong assumption of vital needs and weak supply coordination are the major problems within the response phase (Long, 1997; Long & Wood, 1995). At the fourth phase comes the reconstruction. It is defined as "*restoring the areas affected by disasters to their previous state*" (Nikbakhsh & Farahani, 2011, p.299; Natarajan & Keene, 2015), normally starting after providing the primary services to the beneficiaries. In fact, the reconstruction phase is

essentially concerned with the beneficiaries' secondary needs such as infrastructure rebuilding and displaced people rehabilitation (Balland & Sobhi, 2013; Comes et al., 2010; Phillips, 2015; Murray, 2015). Up to now, limited efforts are assigned for the long-term projects of this phase in comparison to the short-term projects (Kovacs & Spens, 2007; Phillips, 2015).

2.2 Humanitarian supply network

The humanitarian supply network is composed of international actors (e.g. international donors, international private companies, international aid agencies), and local actors (e.g. military forces, host governments, local aid agencies), with different goals, organisational cultures, and expertise who closely work together when a disaster strikes (Hilhorst, 2002; Kovács & Spens, 2007; Balcik et al., 2010; Varella & Gonçalves, 2016). Figure 2.2 represents the main actors in the humanitarian sector.
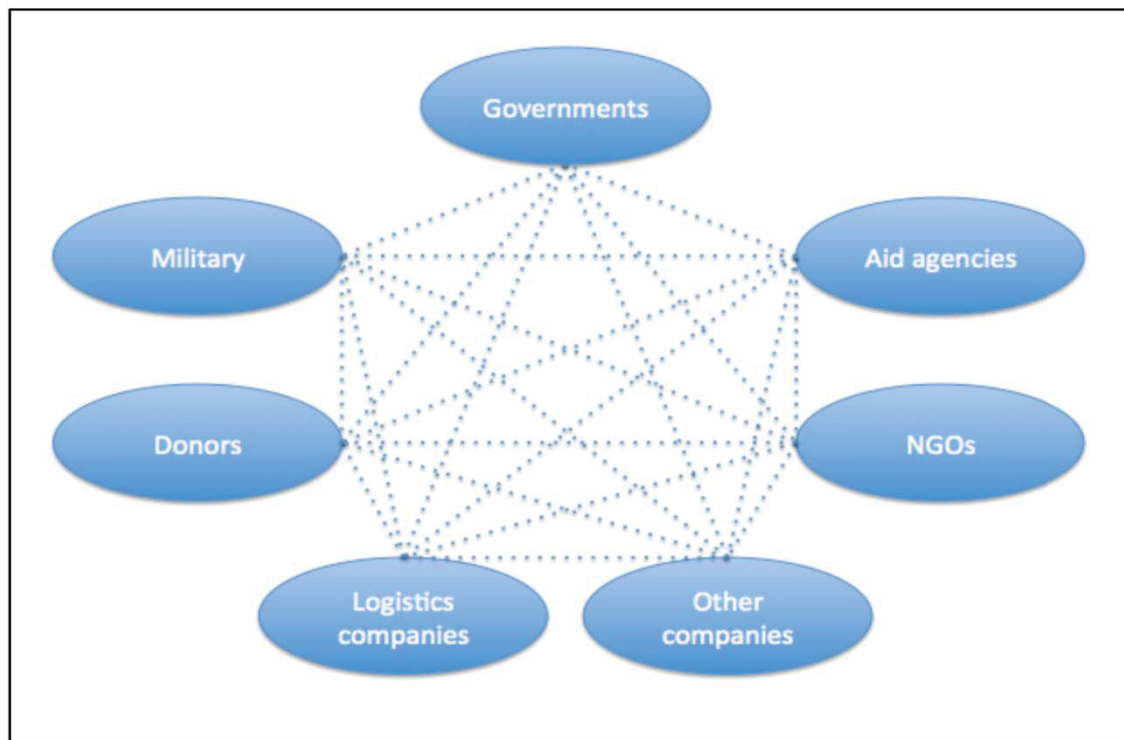
Figure 2.2: Humanitarian supply network (Cozzolino, 2012)

Aid agencies are organisations that work as mediators between donors and aid recipients (Martens, 2005). Governmental, multilateral, and non-governmental aid agencies are evident during relief and continuous aid operations, such as United State Agency for International Development (USAID), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and Oxford Committee for Famine Relief (OXFAM) (Moshtari, 2013). This study focuses on partnerships between two types of aid agencies: international non-governmental organisations (INGOs) and local non-governmental organisations (LNGO) that is often interchangeable with words such as community-based organisations (CBOs).

Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are well known as "*self-governing, private, not-for profit organizations that are geared to improving the quality of life for disadvantaged people*" (Vakil, 1997, p.2060). They supply aid for the countries that suffer from poverty (CARE, 2016), hunger (ACF, 2016; FH, 2016), or diseases (FH, 2016). They also contribute to resolving conflicts (Relief International, 2016), protecting displaced people (Refugees International, 2016), reuniting separated families (Refugees International, 2016), providing treatment to war-traumatised children (Save the Children, 2016), and rebuilding devastated communities (IRC, 2016; IFRC, 2016; The Lutheran World Federation, 2016). However, no aid operations are allowed without the host government's permission (Cozzolino, 2012). Commonly, host governments hold the responsibility for identifying disasters, as well as contacting and coordinating international aid agencies' work (Harvey, 2009; Hasmath et al., 2016). They are also responsible for protecting civilians and humanitarian actors (O' Callaghan & Pantuliano, 2007; Popovski, 2017). Permanent or semi-permanent federal agencies might be established in the case of wealthy host governments to work along with the military in providing transportation, telecommunication, shelters, and engineering efforts (University of Florida, 1998; Cozzolino, 2012). The international governments, in particular, the neighboring countries'

governments, may also contribute to the relief operations. Their participation is a delicate matter as it relates to their country-to-country relationships (Cozzolino, 2012). Wherever NGOs exist, the donors' presence become essential. The donors' role is summed up as a major source of funding (Moshtari, 2013). One of the key donors is the private sector organisations (Stirk, 2015). their contribution can be as logistical services (Cozzolino, 2012; Stirk, 2015), communication services (Offenheiser, 2014; Stirk, 2015), or fundraising (Cozzolino, 2012; Zyck & Kent, 2014). Table 2-1 categorises the main aid activities of governments, military forces, aid agencies, donors, and private sector organisations.

Table 2-1: Humanitarian supply network activities

Activities	Humanitarian supply network					
	Governments		Military forces	Aid agencies	Donors	Private sector
	National	International				
Poverty-Income generation				X		X
Social development	X			X		X
Supply water, food, shelter, & sanitation	X	X	X	X		X
Healthcare	X	X		X		X
Education	X	X		X		X
Protection	X	X	X	X		
Coordination, registration	X		X	X		
Cash assistance & in-kind donations	X	X		X	X	X
Search & Rescue			X			
Services - transportation, engineering efforts, so forth	X	X	X			X
Psychologic-al rehabilitation				X		
Conflict resolution	X	X	X	X		

The overlap of competing NGO activities has been addressed for years as a serious issue, due to its negative impact on the speed and cost of the relief operations, as well as on people's lives (James, 2008; Gilmann, 2010). Therefore, a much-touted solution is for humanitarian collaboration where actors share competencies and resources to improve their visibility, responsiveness, and efficiency.

2.3 Humanitarian supply chain collaboration

2.3.1 Humanitarian supply chains vs. commercial supply chains

A supply chain is defined as the alignment of companies that deliver physical products and services to the marketplace (Lambert et al., 1998; Varella & Gonçalves, 2016). The continuous change of markets has gradually made it more important for firms to identify the characteristics of the supply chains in which they are since there is strong competitions between supply chains. Learning how to create and contribute to robust supply chains will allow firms to have a significant competitive advantage in their markets (Hugos, 2011; Soosay & Hyland, 2015).

The characteristics of the humanitarian and commercial supply chains differ due to the different nature of the working environments (Table 2-2). While the humanitarian supply chains are charged with *"ensuring efficient and cost-effective flow and storage of goods and materials for the purpose of alleviating the suffering of vulnerable people"* in unstable environments (Thomas & Kopczak, 2005, p.1; Overstreet et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2015), the commercial supply chains are driven by a more predictable demand in terms of timing, type, and size (Beamon, 2004; Natarajan & Keene, 2015). Time becomes crucial in the non-profit world. Thus, while it is acceptable for the lead time to be extended for a couple of weeks or months in the business sector, the humanitarian supply chains are charged with responding immediately after the disaster, (Chandra, 2006; Balcik & Beamon, 2008; Holguin-Veras et al., 2012; Natarajan & Keene, 2015). The performance

measurement systems also differ. The performance of commercial supply chains is measured by their ability to produce high-quality and low-cost products or services to satisfy customers and achieve revenue (Holguin-Veras et al., 2012), whereas the speed of response to the disaster, and the number of lives saved are what determines the success or failure of the humanitarian supply chains (Yu et al., 2015). Lastly, replications and variations in inventory amounts, demand, and locations create a great issue related to inventory control in humanitarian relief chains (Natarajan & Keene, 2015). In fact, this sector lacks inventory levels measurements when compared with the commercial sector (Beamon, 2004) (Table 2-2). Fawcett and Waller (2013) identify *"the top barrier to more effective humanitarian aid and disaster relief is inadequate logistics, followed by weak governance and insufficient collaboration"* (p187). Thus, humanitarian supply chain collaboration is discussed in the following section.

Table 2-2: A comparison between commercial supply chains and humanitarian supply chains (adapted from Beamon, 2004)

	Commercial supply chains	**Humanitarian supply chains**	**References**
What is demand?	Products	Supplies and People	Beamon, 2004; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009a
Demand pattern	Relatively stable, predictable. Demands occur at fixed locations in set quantities	Demand is generated from random events That are unpredictable in terms of timing, type, and size. Demands are estimated after they are needed, based on an assessment of disaster characteristics	Beamon, 2004; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009b; Beamon & Kotleba, 2006
Inventory control	Uses well-defined methods for determining inventory levels based on lead-time, demand and target customer service levels	Inventory control is challenging due to high variations in lead times, demands and demand locations	Beamon, 2004
Lead time	Lead time determined by the Supplier-Manufacturer-DC-Retailer-chain	Zero time between the occurrence of the demand and the need for it, not the actual lead-time determined by the chain of material flow	Chandra, 2006; Beamon, 2004; van Wassenhove, 2006
Network configuration	There exist methods for supply chain network design	Challenging due to the nature of unknowns (locations, type and size of events, politics culture) and "last mile" considerations	Beamon, 2004; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009b
Information systems	Typically, well defined, making use of advanced technology	Information is often unreliable, incomplete or non-existent	Nikbakhsh & Farahani, 2011
Performance measurement systems	Historically, focused on resource performance measures, such as maximizing profit or minimizing costs	Primary focus on output performance measures, such as the time required responding to a disaster or ability to meet the needs of the disaster victims	Beamon, 2004
Strategic goals	Usually, to produce high quality products at low cost to maximize profitability and achieve customer satisfaction	Minimize the loss of life and alleviate suffering	Balcik B., Beamon, Krejci, Muramatsu, & Ramirez, 2010; Balcik & Beamon, 2008

2.3.2 Humanitarian NGO supply chain collaboration

"*While individual success stories of supply chain collaboration have been reported, mainstream implementation has been much less successful than expected*" due to lack of clarity surrounding the nature and characteristics of supply chain collaboration in both humanitarian and commercial sectors (Holweg et al., 2005; Cao & Zhang, 2012, p. 55; Fawcett et al., 2012;). Supply chain collaboration is defined in several ways, but mainly all the definitions fall into two categories: process focused and relationship focused (Cao & Zhang, 2012; Oliveira, & Gimeno, 2014). Many scholars have considered supply chain collaboration as a business process or interaction between two or more actors in the supply chain who work toward mutual objectives and gain join benefits such as cost reduction and service quality improvement (Speakman et al., 1998; Whipple et al., 2002; Linden, 2002; Buono, 2003; Bamford et al., 2003; Sanders & Premus, 2005; Bahinipati et al., 2009; Soosay & Hyland, 2015). Supply chain collaboration can be achieved, for example, through integrating cross-functional processes (Lambert & Cooper, 2000; Soosay & Hyland, 2015), coordinating the joint operations and resources along the supply chain (Kim, 2000), as well as evaluating outsourcing and sourcing options (Heriot & Kulkarni, 2001). Other scholars have defined supply chain collaboration as relationships where supply chain members communicate openly and share data, resources, risk, and trust in a long-term, close partnership to achieve shared goals (Burnes & New, 1996; Boddy et al., 2000; Golicic et al., 2003; Olorunniwo & Li, 2010; Boyce et al., 2016).

Creating or adjusting an effective supply chain collaboration requires an accurate and complete information sharing in a timely manner (Cheung et al., 2011; Soosay & Hyland, 2015; Boyce et al., 2016), goal congruence (Lejeune & Yakova, 2005), decision synchronisation (Harland et al., 2004; Soosay & Hyland, 2015; Boyce et al., 2016), incentive alignment in terms of costs, risks, and benefits (Grandori & Soda, 1995; Boyce et

al., 2016), resource sharing (Bowersox et al., 2003; Gomes & Dahab, 2010), collaborative communication (Cao & Zhang, 2012), and joint knowledge creation (Malhotra et al., 2005), among independent supply chain partners. Two types of partnerships can be found in the humanitarian and commercial sectors: vertical partnerships that are concerned with the relationships between suppliers and customers, and horizontal partnerships that represent the collaborative efforts with other competitors and supply chain actors (Barratt, 2004; Mangan et al., 2008; Li, 2014; Bauer, 2015). In this study, the horizontal supply chain collaboration among NGOs will be reviewed.

A horizontal dyadic supply chain collaboration is a collaborative effort between two organisations (Moshtari, 2013). It is divided into three types based on the level of collaboration: Type I (low level), Type II (medium level), and Type III (high level) (Lambert et al., 1999). Since the researcher is exploring the horizontal supply chain collaboration between international and local NGOs in the humanitarian sector, collaboration levels at the preparedness, response, and recovery phases are addressed. At the preparedness phase in Type I collaborations, NGOs meet to identify potential partners, to share information, to build robust relationships, or for networking purposes (Moshtari, 2013). For instance, they exchange information about the size of a disaster and the levels of demand and supply. They also discuss the presence of active NGOs in order to enhance responsiveness and facilitate the establishment of collaborative efforts (Zhang et al., 2002; Moshtari, 2013). At the response and recovery phases, they work together to develop instant solutions (McLachlin & Larson, 2011). In Type II collaborations, further collaborative efforts are required for a medium period of time to prevent any replications in activities, and to close gaps, as well as to exploit available resources efficiently and effectively (Van Brabant, 1999). At the preparedness phase of Type II, a set of initiatives is designed to prepare partners to conduct projects jointly through initiatives such as the Sphere project.

Through these initiatives, partners develop guidelines, standards, or capability-building programmes in different aspects like quality. This enables promotion of these guidelines among NGOs through training courses at a later stage. At the response and recovery phases of Type II, the initiatives are used to facilitate project planning or capacity analysis (Van Brabant, 1999; Moshtari, 2013). In Type III collaborations, a long-term commitment accompanied with a high level of interaction between partners is required to increase their capacities and capabilities. Accordingly, they share and employ all their supply chain processes in different events at the same time. This includes sharing knowledge, such as availability of supplies and aid delivery schedules, and resources, such as financial and/or in-kind resources, local or international connections, technical expertise in logistics, distribution, transportation, warehousing (Kovacs & Spens, 2010; Moshtari, 2013).

In conclusion, Moshtari (2013, p. 28) revealed that NGOs collaborate, regardless of the collaboration level, to benefit from activities such as "*information management, fund mobilization, relationship building, technology and innovation management, human resource management, and quality management*". Figure 2.3 represents the initial visualisation for the classifications mentioned above, based on the preceding reviews.

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┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│     Horizontal collaboration    │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
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Type I: Low level	Type II: Medium level	Type III: High level
Sharing Information, identifying potential partners, and networking in order to…	Sharing Information, using resources, designing and implementing initiatives in in order to…	Employing all partners supply chain processes, knowledge, and resources in different events at the same time in order to…
Develop instant solutions	Prevent any replications, close gaps, facilitate the projects planning or capacity analysis for a medium term	Strengthen the partners capabilities and maintain on going improvement for a long term

Figure 2.3: The activities and goals of Type III, II, and I of horizontal collaboration among NGOs (adapted from Lambert et al., 1999)

Regardless of the NGOs' endeavours to initiate effective dyadic partnerships in the humanitarian sector, the collaborative efforts are still unprofessional. Different trade-offs exist such as efficiency vs. administrative control, and effectiveness vs. efficiency (Folta, 1998). Moreover, the attention has been directed toward commercial supply chain collaboration, with less effort has been spent on testing the applicability of those partnerships practices in the humanitarian sector, causing ineffective partnerships between NGOs (Tomasini & van Wassenhove, 2009b; Day et al, 2012; Heaslip, 2012). Accordingly, the elements that allow initiating effective partnerships among NGOs or developing the existing ones will be explored. The elements of challenges, facilitators, drivers, and mechanisms will be discussed in the following sections.

2.4   Challenges

The literature review classifies the challenges constraining NGOs (INGOs and CBOs) from creating effective partnerships into inter organisational, organisational, external, and donor (Moshtari, 2013). One of the major inter-organisational challenges, is the absence of mutuality, at both strategic and operational levels, in terms of objectives, missions, policies, timeframes, and techniques (Campbell & Hartnett, 2005; Balcik et al., 2010; Schulz & Blecken, 2010; Steets et al., 2010; Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Akhtar et al., 2012; Svoboda & Pantuliano, 2015). The absence of mutuality led to distrust and misunderstanding among humanitarian partners (Moshtari, 2013; Soosay & Hyland, 2015). Another inter-organisational challenge is the shortage of physical and interpersonal resources, specifically during peak seasons, that bring about intense competition over media (Van Brabant, 1999; Weiss, 2013; Apte et al., 2016), and poor communication among NGOs, thus less collaborative efforts (Balcik et al., 2010; Kovacs & Spens, 2010; Tigist, 2016). The power imbalance, accompanied with a poor distribution of responsibilities for each partner, has also led to inauthentic partnerships that lack accountability over performance (Campbell & Hartnett, 2005; Tchouakeu et al., 2011; Knudsen, 2011; ICRC, 2017). The organisational challenges, likewise, play a major role in reducing the enthusiasm for collaboration. For instance, the benefits of initiating partnerships among NGOs are still ill-defined (Moshtari, 2013). NGOs believe that partnerships increase bureaucracy which in turn decrease timely response to the vulnerable people needs (Campbell & Hartnett, 2005; Houghton, 2011; Akhtar et al., 2012). They also believe that partnerships threaten their independency (Schulz & Blecken, 2010), identity (Tchouakeu et al., 2011), missions (Minear, 2004), and values (Steets et al., 2010). Furthermore, the stability of partnerships has been endangered by high staff turnover and by the employment of new and inexperienced humanitarian leaders, who do not have

adequate knowledge to manage them effectively (Rawal et al., 2005; Stoddard et al., 2007; Balcik et al., 2010; Dolinskaya et al., 2011;Tchouakeu et al., 2011; Oliveira, 2015; ICRC, 2017). For instance, those leaders might have poor communication skills for working with other partners and donors. They may also lack the ability to plan, implement, or evaluate the joint programmes professionally (Moshtari, 2013).

The third category comprises challenges associated with external factors. This category indicates the uncertainty of resources and demand that affect the participation of NGOs in collaborative projects (Sommers & Watson Jr, 2000; Cooley & Ron, 2002; Balcik et al., 2010; Saeyeon et al., 2015; Tigist, 2016). For example, there is rarely access to accurate and complete data as well as timely exchange of data about the disasters' consequences (McEntire, 2002; Day et al., 2009; Schulz & Blecken, 2010; Weronikaszcz, 2015; Natarajan & Keene, 2015). The fourth category includes challenges caused by donors (Svoboda & Pantuliano, 2015). The donors' orientation to introduce programmes with special conditions, prevents the NGOs from investing properly in improving their partnerships (Besiou et al., 2014; Tigist, 2016). For instance, funding is not allowed at the preparedness phase (Moshtari, 2013), and it is mostly available to be used over a short period (Cooley & Ron, 2002; Cairns, 2012; Oliveira, 2015; ICRC, 2017). In this way, the NGOs' propensity to create partnerships, particularly long-term ones, was reduced (Balcik et al., 2010; Kovacs & Spens, 2010). Table 2-3 highlights the challenges constraining NGOs from creating effective partnerships in the humanitarian sector.

Table 2-3: Challenges affecting the collaborative effort among NGOs in the humanitarian sector (Moshtari, 2013)

Challenges	Category	Indicators	References
External challenges	Context	• Location and timing of disasters • Availability of adequate & reliable information • Political environment	Balcik et al., 2010; McEntire, 2002; Sommers & Watson Jr, 2000
	Demand	• Quantity, characteristics and needs of affected population • Urgency of relief response	Balcik et al., 2010; Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Tchouakeu et al., 2011
	Supply	• Remaining local infrastructure • Availability of local and international resources • Number and experience of involved Humanitarian organisations	Balcik et al., 2010; Cooley and Ron, 2002; Van Wassenhove, 2006
Inter-organisational challenges	Strategic compatibility	• Shared organisational objectives, missions, mandates • Shared cultural values • Shared language • Level of trust among organisations • Strength of sense of mutuality	Akhtar et al., 2012; Balcik et al., 2010; Schulz and Blecken, 2010; Thévenaz & Resodihardjo, 2010; Van Wassenhove, 2006; Zoraster, 2006
	Operational compatibility	• Similar operational policies • Similar programming approaches, timeframes • Similar standards and techniques	Akhtar et al., 2012; Campbell & Hartnett, 2005; Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Steets et al., 2010
	Competition	• Competition for funds • Competition for visibility & media coverage	Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Stephenson Jr & Schnitzer, 2006; Weiss, 2013
	Power	• Similarity in organisations' power and resources • Symmetry between the parties	Campbell & Hartnett 2005, McLachlin & Larson, 2011; Tchouakeu et al., 2011

To be Continued on the next page.

Challenges	Category	Indicators	References
Inter-organisational challenges	Process	• Adequate mechanisms to allocate costs, benefits, risks • Accountability over performance • Clear roles and responsibilities • Adequate access to tools and technical skills • Adoption of transparent and responsible policies	Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Thévenaz & Resodihardjo, 2010
Organisational challenges	Unclear benefits	• Bureaucracy, transparency, accountability, flexibility • Required speed of response • Risks to own competencies • Risks to humanitarian identity	Akhtar et al., 2012; Balcik et al., 2010; Cairns, 2012; Campbell & Hartnett, 2005; Houghton, 2011; Schulz & Blecken, 2010
	Capabilities	• Propensity toward command & control focus • Management capacity & leadership style • Staff capability (e.g. attitude, knowledge, experience) • Incentives towards collaboration	Akhtar et al., 2012; McEntire, 2002; Tchouakeu et al., 2011; Thévenaz & Resodihardjo, 2010
	Resources	• Availability of resources • Stability of team leaders & focal points	Akhtar et al., 2012; Balcik et al., 2010; Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Rawal et al., 2005; Van Brabant, 1999
Donors-related challenges	Use of Resources	• Timing of resource availability • Required burn rates • Earmarked funds establish uses	Balcik et al., 2010; Stephenson Jr & Schnitzer, 2006
	Incentive mechanism	• Access to short-term & reusable contracts • Competition over scarce local resource	Cairns, 2012; Cooley & Ron, 2002; Taylor et al., 2012

2.5 Facilitators

The compatibility of organisational culture, compatibility of management philosophy, complementarity of capabilities, symmetry, and mutuality have been identified as the facilitators of effective relationships among supply chain actors (Lambert & Knemeyer,

2004; McLachlin & Larson, 2011; Moshtari, 2013). In this study, the facilitators of symmetry and mutuality were neglected, as they would overlap with the first three facilitators.

The organisational culture refers to *"the way of life in an organisation"* (Hatch, 1997, p.204; Lewis, 2002; Williams, 2016). It is also defined as the mutual beliefs and behaviours that evolve among employees (Lewis, 2002). When developing a partnership, the organisational culture of the potential partner should be considered, due to the culture's effect on the internal and external understanding people have toward their entities and the outer world (Baldwin, 2008). In particular, the differences in objectives, values, priorities, and feelings that can create complications between partners, should be identified (Balland & Sobhi, 2013). Cartwright & Cooper (1993) pointed out that a successful collaboration depends on the capability of both partners to develop a united culture that merge elements of both cultures.

Academics also recognise the essential role of organisational culture in forming management practices (Beugre & Offodile, 2001; Devinney et al., 2010; Thomas et al., 2015). Drucker (1969) and Hofestede (1980) referred to management as culture dependent. Beugre and Offodile (2001) stated that the readiness to understand the prevalent culture of a group of individuals helps in delivering effective management practices to suit the context. However, scholars such as Lewis (2002) still believe in the applicability of Western management practices in the developing countries, and assume that Western practices will help these countries to develop. Therefore, the necessity of finding the strategy that can enhance the compatibility between partners, from different cultures, was acknowledge (Marsden, 1991). One of the suggestions is to identify the values, beliefs, and traditions of potential partners alongside examine the similarities in management styles (Lambert, 2008). The more the similarities, the higher the opportunity to have a robust basis for an extremely

integrated partnership (Lambert, 2008). Finally, the complementarity of capacities and resources is required (Balland & Sobhi, 2013). Therefore, organisations search for the partners who can complement them (Management Association, Information Resources, 2012).

2.6 Key drivers

The motivations for collaboration vary, depending on the objectives and visions of the humanitarian actors. This section highlights the key motivations that encourage NGOs, private corporations, governments, and military forces to create dyadic partnerships with NGOs.

2.6.1 Partnerships between NGOs

Political effects have been highlighted as one of the main reasons for collaboration among NGOs (Sowa, 2009; Scobie et al., 2013). NGOs unite their voices to reinforce their position and to develop a focal point to facilitate the communication with governments (Richards & Heard, 2005; UK Charities Commission, 2009; Incentivising Collaboration Workshop, 2012). They also collaborate to maintain human security because of their reach and closeness to vulnerable people (Michael, 2002). Sharing resources, both tangible and intangible, was reported as another motivation for collaboration (Hardy et al., 2003; Nabatchi & Balogh, 2012; Mitchell, 2014a). Scholars believe that sharing leads to a creation of knowledge (Hardy et al., 2003), greater fundraising capacity and highly efficient operations (UK Charities Commission, 2009), alongside organisational sustainability (INTRAC, 2001). Sharing also teaches partners how to work as a team to decrease the replication in processes (Snavely & Tracy, 2000; Waugh & Streib, 2006). Another common key motivation is effectiveness (Snavely & Tracy, 2000; Mitchell, 2014b). Effectiveness is expected to be achieved from both sharing and political effects (Scobie et al., 2013), as

partnerships allow NGOs to use their resources in good management or academic research or in building reliability with others (Ferrari, 2011).

2.6.2 Partnerships between NGOs and the private sector organisations

It is a bidirectional relationship in which private corporations collaborate with NGOs to enhance their reputation and image, improve their staff morale, expand their markets, as well as reflect their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) toward communities and stakeholders (CCIC, 2001; Ross, 2008; Jamali & Keshishian, 2009; Reichel & Rudnicka, 2009; Martin & Darcy, 2011; Gray & Stites, 2013; Zyck & Kent, 2014; den Hond et al., 2015). NGOs, on the other hand, rely on the resources of private corporations (e.g. financial resources, management skills, social marketing) to promote their humanitarian causes, guarantee organisational sustainability, improve efficiency (Damlamian, 2006; Ross, 2008; Jamali & Keshishian, 2009; Zyck & Kent, 2014), as well as access more people and innovation (Ross, 2008; C&E Advisory Services Limited, 2015)

2.6.3 Partnerships between NGOs and governments

Non-governmental organisations rely on the funding of wealthy governments, both host and neighbour governments, to support their relief programmes financially (The Treasury, 2003). They also enter such type of partnerships to accelerate their external and internal relief operations since host governments offer exemptions on taxes and customs clearance (Harvey, 2009). Other NGOs, however, consider host governments the main source of information (e.g. availability of local resources, community's needs), when disasters strike (Chan & Li, 2016). In contrast, governments collaborate with NGOs when they lack the ability to provide the affected people with the essential services such as infrastructure rehabilitation, education, health and so forth (Elliott, 1987; OECD, 1988; Clark, 1993; Collier, 2007:2010; Mitchell et al., 2015; Sheu & Pan, 2015). Governments

also collaborate to benefit from the NGOs' long experience of working with populations in conflicts and environmentally sensitive regions (Clark, 1993).

2.6.4 Partnerships between NGOs and military forces

Military forces secure and support NGOs through their logistics expertise and advanced technological equipment (Penner, 2013). They are also responsible for the evacuation of citizens (USIP, 2016). on the other hand, the motivations of military forces are still unclear. Several scholars report the NGO's role in enhancing the innovation side of the relationship that is described as limited due to the military's strict mindset (Tendler, 1982; Kyazze, 2015). Others indicate the NGO's responsibility of providing the military with accurate information related to the affected communities such as beneficiaries' demand and number (Penner, 2013). The key drivers that motivate dyadic collaborations among NGOs, private sector corporations, governments, and military forces are listed in Table 2-4

Table 2-4: Humanitarian supply chain collaboration drivers

Types of humanitarian supply chain collaboration	First partner drivers	Second partner drivers	References
NGO-NGO	• Reduce cost (efficiency) • Sharing (capacity building). • Increase effectiveness • Eliminate duplications • Establishing focal point to facilitate dealing with governments • Sustainability • Security	• Reduce cost (efficiency) • Sharing (capacity building). • Increase effectiveness • Eliminate duplications • Establishing focal point to facilitate dealing with governments • Sustainability • Security	Snavely & Tracy, 2000; INTRAC, 2001; Michael, 2002; Hardy et al., 2003; Richards & Heard, 2005; Waugh & Streib, 2006; UK Charities Commission, 2009;Hudnurkr et al., 2014
NGO-private sector organisation	• Getting financial & technical support • Social marketing • Getting access to more contacts • Innovation • Support their position among others • Improving the organisational structure • Volunteers • Ability to work at scale • Sustainability	• Applying Corporate Social Responsibility programmes • Improving employees' morale • Reputation and credibility enhancement • Market development & brand enhancement • Build trust among stakeholders • Spread the corporation's value • Capability to pilot new innovations	CCIC, 2001; Damlamian, 2006; Ross, 2008; Jamali & Keshishian, 2009; Reichel & Rudnicka, 2009; Martin & Darcy, 2011; Kabdiyeva, 2013; Gray & Stites, 2013; C&E Advisory Services Limited, 2015
NGO-government	• Financial support • Facilitating their in-country work • Getting ongoing information and feedback about the community' needs	• Providing primary services to their affected populations • Developing their local governmental programmes • Enhancing their interpersonal and technical skills	Clark, 1993; The Treasury, 2003; Harvey, 2009; Collier, 2007:2010; Chan & Li, 2016

To be Continued on the next page.

Types of humanitarian supply chain collaboration	First partner drivers	Second partner drivers	References
NGO-military forces	• Securing their operations • Supporting their operations such as providing technical assistance • Coordinating and planning the humanitarian activities • Getting access to critical regions	• Getting accurate information about the affected communities • Enhancing innovation	Tendler, 1982; Seiple,1996; Harvey, 2009; Penner, 2013; Kyazze, 2015; USIP, 2016;

An overlap in motivations exists among NGOs, private sector corporations, governments, and military forces (Table 2-4). Owing to the study context that explores the dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs in Jordan, four key drivers (sustainability, effectiveness, efficiency, empowerment or capacity building) have been selected to build the proposed partnership model.

2.7 Mechanisms

Present literature identifies the key characteristics of effective partnerships between two or more humanitarian or commercial organisations. In this study, both technical and relational mechanisms are presented.

2.7.1 Relational mechanisms

Eight characteristics for successful partnerships among supply chain actors are identified by Huxham and Vangen (2000), Çotur and Öztürkoğlu, (2015), and Cheng et al. (2016) including, managing the objectives of partnerships, flexibility, communication, power, equity, trust, commitment, as well as stamina. Watkins (1995) and Lewis (2002) also indicate the genuine participation and personal connections, that sometimes exist between the staff of an entity or members of a community or between organisations and government to allow a convenient external environment, as qualities for success.

Commitment, which is referred to by the term loyalty (Heenan & Bennis, 1999) is a fundamental component of relationship capital since committed partners are expected to be more cooperative and communicative (Anderson & Weitz, 1992; Madhok, 1995; Shirley, 2014; Çotur & Öztürkoğlu, 2015). Committed partners also demonstrate an enduring enthusiasm to make future relation-specific investment to maintain valuable relationships (Anderson & Weitz, 1992; Moorman et al., 1992; Çotur & Öztürkoğlu, 2015). For instance, when partners are committed to investing in information-sharing, it means that they will be able to gather specialised information about each other to be used later in developing new strategies (Dyer & Singh, 1998; Palmatier et al., 2007). Other forms of relation-specific investment are investments in personnel and training programmes (Grover & Malhotra, 2003; Varella et al., 2014; Yadav & Barve, 2015). However, long-term commitments cannot be achieved without the presence of trust between partners (Manske, & Frederickson, 2016). In fact, trust recorded the highest rank among the twenty-six factors that were identified by Mattessich's et al. (2001) meta-analysis of successful collaborations. It has a positive impact on the partnerships' performance in terms of efficiency, flexibility, and effectiveness (Zaheer et al., 1998; Laaksonen et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016). This is because trust reflects the partner's goodwill to identify, examine, and resolve the complicated issues openly (Wuyts & Geyskens, 2005; Shah & Swaminathan, 2008; Kolfschoten & Brazier, 2013; Cheng et al., 2016), respect each other's suggestions (Mattessich et al., 2001; Sharkie, 2005), forgive mistakes (Tamm & Luyet, 2005), and allow equal participation in planning and decision making (Henneman et al., 1995; Postma, 1994; Watkins, 1995; Huxham & Vangen, 2000). Therefore, the researcher chose three relational mechanisms (trust, commitment, relation-specific investment) to formalise the proposed conceptual model (Figure 2.4).
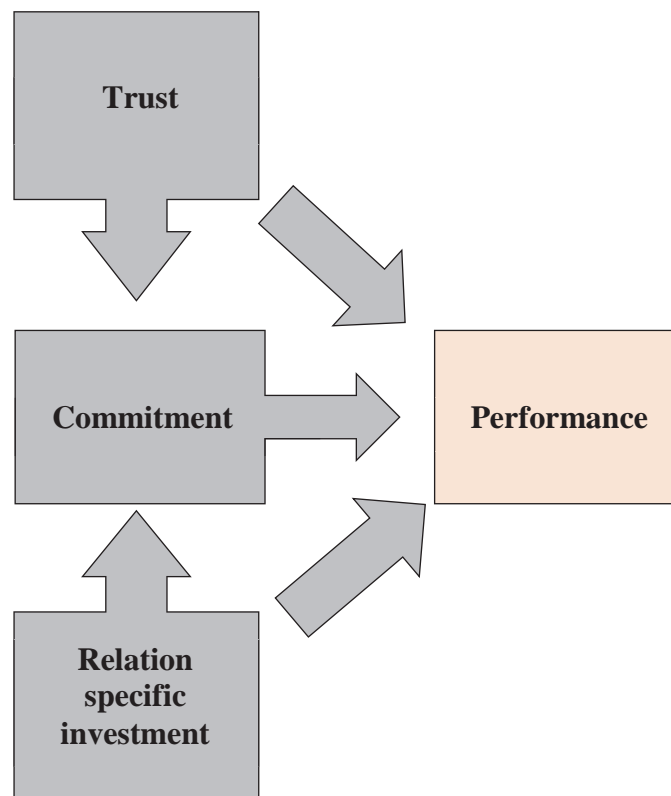
Figure 2.4: Key relational mechanisms to support effective partnerships among NGOs in the humanitarian sector (adapted from Moshtari, 2013)

2.7.2   Technical mechanisms

Several policies and mechanisms are used to promote effective partnerships among supply chain actors (Figure 2.5). Five technical mechanisms are presented in the literature review: information and communication technologies, decision support systems, incentive mechanisms, capability-building initiatives, and effective inter-organisational initiative. The other mechanisms (Figure 2.5) were neglected, as they are all embedded in the five selected mechanisms.
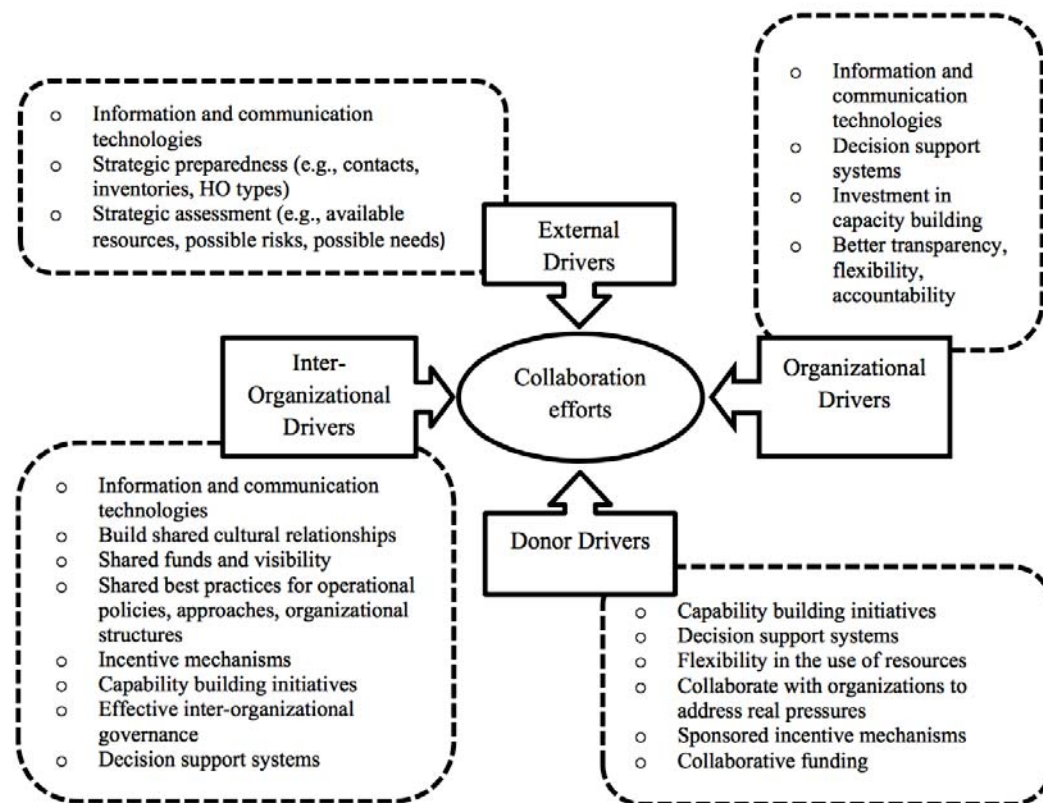
Figure 2.5: Technical mechanisms and policies to support effective partnerships among NGOs in the humanitarian sector (Moshtari, 2013)

2.7.2.1 Information and communication technologies (ICT)

Sharing information about the affected territories (e.g. the host government's policies, affected people statistics), and information about the active humanitarian actors (e.g. programmes, existing collaborations), assists in maintaining effective communication between stakeholders, decreases the effect of environmental turbulence caused by actors on site, increases the speed of response, and strengthens relationships (Moshtari, 2013; Varella & Gonçalves, 2016). Several websites and platforms such as ReliefWeb.Org, Irinnews.Org, and RedHum.Org were launched to facilitate information-sharing and support the humanitarian leaders with decision-making (Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Moshtari, 2013; Reliefweb, 2017; IRIN, 2017). Logistics Support Systems (LSS) was also designed to track inventories, and manage in-kind donations (LSS, 2016).

2.7.2.2 Decision support systems (DSS)

Collaborative decision support systems (DSS) can help overcome the differences in objectives and missions of stakeholders and resolve conflicts, thus increasing trust and commitment, by delivering a shared service (Campbell & Hartnett, 2005; Filip et al., 2017). This can be achieved, for instance, by designing platforms that combine data from various stakeholders to allow effective strategic and operational planning during disasters. Thus, instead of surveying the same vulnerable people several times, by different humanitarian organisations, which is described as an ineffective process, the data can be collected by authorised delegates and later shared with stakeholders (Moshtari, 2013). Furthermore, humanitarian leaders can learn how to work in a complicated environment (Gonçalves, 2011), decrease the unknowns in the system (Milner-Gulland & Shea, 2017), and explore new tactics to overcome the existing gaps (Moshtari, 2013), by using methods such as conflict analysis, scenario planning or management science methods (Campbell &Hartnett, 2005; Altay& Green III, 2006; Franco, 2006; Varella et al., 2014; Yadav & Barve, 2015; Marito, 2016).

2.7.2.3 Effective incentive mechanisms and capability-building initiatives

Donors should support a network context where humanitarian originations, including international and local NGOs, can compete and cooperate with each other to deliver aid effectively and efficiently (Nalebuff &Brandenburger, 1996; Gnyawali & Park, 2011; Moshtari, 2013; Raza-Ullah et al., 2014; Bouncken et al., 2015). Accordingly, several incentive programmes that support long-term relationships were designed (Barnett, 2005; Cooley & Ron, 2002; Huxham, 1993; Campbell & Hartnett, 2005). 'SeaChange-Lodestar Fund' and 'Humanitarian Innovation Funds', for instance, are two programmes employed by donors to allow partners to combine all or part of their resources, technologies, or processes permanently (EM-DAT, 2012; Moshtari, 2013; Parater, 2015; SeaChange Capital

Partners, 2017). By acting this way, the competition will be changed from competing for funding to competition over enhancing competencies and creating customer value (Fujimoto, 2001; Ritala et al., 2014). Other incentive programmes can be designed by donors to allocate more funds to support the humanitarian operations in the preparedness phase such as strategic assessment of the affected areas (Moshtari, 2013; Preventionweb, 2015; FEMA, 2017). To allow a successful coopetition capability, partners should organise periodic meetings and learning clusters to exchange experiences, share practices, strengthen relationships, as well as monitor and evaluate each other's work (Wilhelm, 2011; Moshtari, 2013).

2.7.2.4 Effective inter-organisational governance

The need to initiate long-term partnerships (e.g. forth-party logistics (4PLs) providers), including commercial and humanitarian organisations, led many scholars to suggest applying effective inter-organisational governance to protect and manage the relationships between partners (Miles & Snow, 2007; Moshtari, 2013; Kamensky, 2014; Boström, et al., 2015; Varoutsa & Scapens, 2015). This will also allow better forecasting and negotiating power, as well as efficient, effective, and high-quality relief operations (Balcik et al., 2010; Moshtari, 2013; Varella et al., 2014; Yadav & Barve, 2015; Oliveira, 2015). AirLink platform, that matches the humanitarian organisations with their needs of transportation, is an example of a network collaboration managed by an effective governance (Dolinskaya et al., 2011). This initiative aims to reduce the impact of external factors through deploying information about resources and capacities availability along the chain (Moshtari, 2013). It also helps, through the restricted procedures that are followed in choosing the subscribed members, in enhancing the level of trust and overcoming problems related to logistical coordination (Golbeck, 2008; Lazer et al., 2009). In this study, three

technical mechanisms (ICT, DSS, capability-building initiative), were selected to formalise the proposed conceptual model.

2.8 INGO-CBO partnership model

The relationship model of Lambert and Knemeyer (2004) is used to explore how effective horizontal-dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs could be created in the humanitarian sector. The model comprises four elements: facilitators, drivers, components, and outcomes. Both facilitators and drivers activate the decision to initiate or modify a partnership (Balland & Sobhi, 2013). Facilitators indicate the supportive factors that improve the collaboration. Key drivers refer to the motivations that encourage the NGOs to collaborate. Components indicate the tools, policies, or activities that promote a collaborative effort, while outcomes present the results of a collaboration (Lambert & Knemeyer, 2004). In this study, the components element was divided as technical and relational mechanisms.

Since the study aims to explore the existing partnerships between INGOs and CBOs in Jordan, three key facilitators were selected to formalise the conceptual model: compatibility in organisational culture, compatibility in management philosophy, and complementarity of capabilities. The way of managing the differences between the Western and Middle-Eastern cultures in terms of religious beliefs, traditions, languages, or management practices, plays a critical role in the success or failure of a partnership. For instance, speaking different languages can lead to misunderstanding and poor communication among partners. The differences in religious beliefs may cause problems related to the offered services (e.g. Halal food), whereas the complicated mentality of local communities may result in refusing charity (Libal & Harding, 2011). To allow achieving effective partnerships, INGOs and CBOs should also complement each other. Commonly, INGOs have access to international resources, but they are not able to act freely in the

affected regions without the assistance of CBOs (Crowther, 2001). CBOs, on the other hand, have a strong knowledge relevant to their country's rules, refugees' geographical distributions and needs, but they suffer from scarcity in resources and expertise (Crowther, 2001; Libal & Harding, 2011).

With respect to drivers, four motivations were selected: sustainability, efficiency, effectiveness, and empowerment. The Palestinian, Iraqi, and Syrian displacements led the majority of NGOs to deliver a high level of services, such as creating job opportunities, alongside basic services, to maintain the stability of Jordan (Libal & Harding, 2011). To promote a sustainable community development and allow the delivery of effective and efficient relief services, NGOs started designing collaborative, long-term initiatives that promote self-efficacy and capacity-building (e.g. organisational capacity building and community capacity building) (Langran, 2002; Nikkhah & Redzuan, 2010).

A set of technical and relational mechanisms, including ICT, DSS, capability-building initiatives, trust, commitment, and relation-specific investment were explored. ICT mechanism is selected to enhance the communication and transparency among stakeholders, while DSS can help NGOs to explore new tactics and make better decisions, for example, the location of distribution centres and numbers (Moshtari, 2013). In Jordan, the real number of refugees remains unknown, as many of them are unregistered, owing to the lack of awareness of the help that can be provided by NGOs (Libal & Harding, 2011). Therefore, ICT and DSS may help the INGOs and CBOs to communicate transparently and estimate the geographical distributions of refugees, their numbers and needs, thus allowing better aid distribution. The rest of mechanisms have been selected for two reasons: first, the majority of Jordanian ministries lack well-trained employees who can manage the local development programmes professionally (Libal & Harding, 2011). Therefore, the researcher will explore the investments that should be employed to strengthen the local

capacity. Second, trust alongside long-term commitment is required to reach the partnership's goals, attract new funders, and increase the opportunities to be nominated for future joint projects (Moshtari, 2013). Figure 2.6 is designed to answer the question of how an effective partnership between an INGO and a CBO could be created in the humanitarian sector.

Drivers

Sustainability

Efficiency

Effectiveness

Empowerment

Create or adjust INGO-CBO partnership

Facilitators

-Compatibility in Organisational culture

-Compatibility in Management philosophy

-Complementarity of Capabilities

Technical Mechanisms

Information & Communication Technology
Decision Support Systems (DSS)
Capability Building Initiatives

Relational Mechanisms

Commitment
Trust
Relationship specific investment

Outcomes

Figure 2.6: The proposed INGO-CBO partnership model (adapted from Lambert & Knemeyer, 2004)

2.9 Research gaps

Collaborations within a supply chain are initiated to achieve a competitive advantage (Mentzer et al., 2000). Different frameworks have been suggested to promote effective collaborative efforts among organisations. However, scholars' attention has mostly been directed toward partnerships within the commercial sector, with inadequate examination of the applicability of those partnership practices implemented in the commercial sector in the humanitarian sector (Day et al, 2012; Moshtari, 2013). Therefore, the researcher investigates the applicability of supply chain collaboration in the humanitarian sector, by identifying the elements and challenges that impact dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs responding to the Syrian refugee crisis in Jordan. The applicability can be examined by using different empirical methods such as case studies or laboratory experiments (Gupta et al., 2006; Fisher, 2007; Craighead & Meredith, 2008). Since few literature in the humanitarian sector has used empirical research methods (Moshtari, 2013), the researcher will attempt to fill the gap by collecting data through semi-structured interviews, and a single cross-sectional study.

2.10 Literature review summary

This study aims to identify the challenges and elements that impact horizontal-dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs responding to the Syrian refugee crisis in Jordan. Collaborative working, at both commercial and humanitarian sectors, has been described as a silver bullet that allows organisations to achieve a better value (Cooper et al., 1997; Porter, 1998). However, the application of supply chain collaboration to humanitarian relief is relatively new (Day et al, 2012; Kunz & Reiner, 2012; Fawcett & Waller, 2013). As a result, the collaborative partnership techniques deep-rooted within commercial supply chain have been integrated in the humanitarian sector without ensuring their suitability (Day et al, 2012).

The key challenges (inter-organisational, organisational, external, and donor), that interrupt building effective dyadic partnerships among NGOs, have been reviewed. Both facilitators (compatibility in organisational culture, compatibility in management philosophy, and complementarity of capabilities) and key drivers that activate the decision to create or modify existing partnerships were also identified (Lambert & Knemeyer, 2004). The drivers of NGOs, private corporations, governments, and military forces vary, depending on their agendas (Manzini, 2015). NGOs collaborate to improve their organisational capacities, maintain sustainability, and enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of their relief operations (Snavely & Tracy, 2000; INTRAC, 2001; UK Charities Commission, 2009; Mitchell, 2014b). Private sector corporations collaborate to improve their image, brand, or enter new markets (CCIC, 2001; Martin & Darcy, 2011; Gray & Stites, 2013; den Hond et al., 2015). Governments including military, collaborate when they lack the capability to deliver aid individually (Collier, 2007:2010; Mitchell et al., 2015; Sheu & Pan, 2015).

To promote effective partnerships among NGOs, a combination of technical mechanisms (ICT, DSS, capability-building Initiatives, incentive mechanisms, inter-organisational governance), and relational mechanisms (trust, commitment, relation-specific investment; flexibility, transparency, equity, respect) has been highlighted. The first three technical mechanisms were used to draw the proposed model due to the critical role they play in improving and supporting the NGOs supply chain collaboration. The researcher also chose trust, commitment, and relation-specific investments as primary relational mechanisms since the other mechanisms (flexibility, transparency, equality, respect) can be obtained because of dealing with a reliable and committed partner.

The 3st Chapter

METHOD

3   Method

In this chapter, the researcher presents a detailed description of the research method. First, the research philosophy and methodology have been reviewed to allow the reader to understand the reasons that lie behind the methodological choices that have been made and their effect on the research. Second, the research design followed by the research sample, data collection, and data analysis are presented to illustrate how the research was conducted and how the findings were organised and used in answering the research questions. Third, the research method evaluation has been reviewed alongside the research ethics since reliability, validity, and contributors' rights need to be guaranteed and safeguarded. Fourth, the chapter summary is presented.

3.1   Research philosophy

The research philosophy is composed of the epistemological and ontological assumptions that should be determined before starting a research due to their direct impact on the research questions' design and research implementation (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

3.1.1   Epistemological perspective

3.1.1.1   Background

The philosophy of epistemology is defined as *"the nature of human knowledge and understanding that can possibly be acquired through different types of inquiry and alternative methods of investigations"* (Hirschheim et al.1995, p.20). In other words, it is the philosophy that focuses on what human beings receive as a valid knowledge (Bryman & Bell, 2015), by asking *"how we come to know what we know?"* (Grix, 2002, p.177). The epistemological philosophy is divided into two approaches: positivism and interpretivism. Positivists assume that researchers can study the social world using the same methods of the natural science (Neuman, 2002). They are also governed by laws of cause and effect as well as assuming that measurable observations are the only valid source of knowledge

(Neuman, 2002; Henning et al., 2004; Collis & Lincoln & Guba, 2011; Hussey, 2013). Unlike positivists, who allow theories to lead the research, interpretivists aim to clarify the reasons that lie behind a specific social behaviour and assess or refine theories (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Table 3-1 represents a comparison between positivist and interpretivist approaches.

Table 3-1: Epistemology: A comparison between Positivism and Interpretivism (Bryman & Bell, 2015)

	Positivism	**Interpretivism**
Basis	Natural Science	Human Interactions
Approach to social science	Explanations and generalisation of human behaviour	Causal explanation and interpretive understanding of human behaviour
Subject matter	Nature	Social reality
The subject actions	Inanimate and unmotivated	Meaningful and engaged
Data collection	Observation, codification and measurement	Comprehend the perspective of the human subjects
Research and Theory	Mostly deductive	Strong inductive leaning

3.1.1.2   The selected epistemological approach

In this research, an interpretivist approach is selected due to the need to study the influence of human interactions and beliefs on success or failure of partnerships. The researcher believes that conducting semi-structured, face to face interviews with international and local respondents is necessary to set the strategies that allow effective relationships. Furthermore, the nature of the research process, that aims to develop a conceptual model through posing a set of research questions, has made interpretivist philosophy the most appropriate approach.

3.1.2   Ontological perspective

3.1.2.1   Background

The philosophy of ontology is concerned with *"articulating the nature and structure of the world"* (Wand & Weber, 1993, p. 220). In other words, it is about what we may know (Grix, 2002). The ontological approach is divided into objectivism and constructionism. Objectivists consider the world as a tangible and predictable entity that is driven by inherited regulations, procedures, and shared beliefs of individuals who have to internalise commonplace social norms (Grix, 2002; Bryman & Bell, 2015). The constructionist approach, on the other hand, is concerned about individuals' behaviours that construct the social world (Neuman, 2002; Mutch, 2005). The followers of this approach strongly believe in the individuals' role in fashioning the organisation's culture by following general guidelines rather than constant plans (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Table 3-2 represents a comparison between objectivism and constructionism.

Table 3-2: Ontology: A comparison between Objectivism and Constructionism (Bryman & Bell, 2015)

	Objectivism	Constructionism
Nature of an organisation	Tangible object, external to employees	Social construct, that arises from the interaction of individuals
Organisational drivers	Set rules, procedures, mission statements, Processes and structure	Evolving negotiated order, rules and procedures act as principles leading to a community practices
Organisational culture	Shared beliefs and values of employees who have internalize commonplace social norms	Emergent reality that is constantly being constructed and reconstructed though the interactions of the employees

3.1.2.2   The selected ontological approach

In this research, the constructionist approach is selected due to its characteristics that allow viewing the dynamic side of the organisations. Essentially, this approach considers organisations as social constructs, with cultures which are changeable because of the different interactions, shared meanings, and consciousness of their staff (Mutch, 2005). From this point, it can be observed that following a general and flexible guideline rather than a stable set of rules could help to re-design the whole relationship in a way which suits both international and local partners.

3.2   Research methodology

Qualitative and quantitative methodologies are commonly used to guide academic researchers while conducting research (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

3.2.1   Qualitative research methodology

In qualitative research, scholars attempt to explore, discover, and understand the world from the contributors' perspective (Merriam, 1998). Therefore, the data is collected in words and images in an endeavour to add meaning and create common themes to explain the context (Bryman A., 2012). Qualitative research is inductive, constructionist, and interpretivist, which means there is no grounded theory to be tested, while the respondents' knowledge, behaviours, and interactions are the main source of data (Guba & Lincoln, 1985; Merriam, 1988; Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Bryman & Bell, 2015; Bryman A., 2012; Maxwell, 2012). Regardless of the flexibility that qualitative methodology offers since it is not limited by measurable observations, a set of weaknesses has been identified (Bryman & Bell, 2015). First, it is difficult to generalise results (Farzanfar, 2005). This is because results are limited by the research's environment and participants. Second, objectivity is unassured since the researcher's influence can be clearly seen in the explanation of findings (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Third, reliability is the researchers' main concern since it is

difficult to be certain if the collected data is credible or not (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). According to Antwi and Hamza (2015), several qualitative methods can be used such as case studies, focus group discussion, narrative research, or interviews.

3.2.2   Quantitative research methodology

In quantitative research, scholars rely on statistical and numerical data in explaining the hypothesis (Neuman, 2002; Dematteo et al., 2005; Sarantakos, 2012). In fact, they believe that 'why' questions, that most hypotheses are built on, can be only supported or excluded by the repetition of observations and the use of statistical analysis (Bryman, 1984; Lincoln & Guba, 2005). Quantitative research is deductive, objectivist, and positivist, which means that both theory and natural science guide the research (Bryman, 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2015). A set of strengths and weaknesses is associated with this methodology. On the one hand, the selected theories alongside the research outcomes are a reliable source of data to be used in other contexts. On the other hand, the researchers who defend this methodology are limited by the measurable data without considering the participants' influence on the social world (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Several quantitative methods can be used in collecting data, such as psychological tests, questionnaires, and experiments (Lincoln & Guba, 2011; Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Table 3-3 represents a comparison between qualitative and quantitative research methodologies.

Table 3-3: A comparison between quantitative and qualitative research methods (Bryman & Bell, 2011)

	Quantitative	**Qualitative**
Theory and research	Deductive (testing out theory)	Inductive (generating new theory).
Epistemology	Positivism (natural science)	Interpretivism (social science).
Ontology	Objectivism (tangible and measurable)	Constructionism (social interactions).
Approach	Test hypothesis	Discover meaning.
Concepts	Distinct variables	Themes.
Measurements	Standardised, predetermined, data requirements	Flexible, ad hoc data requirements dependent on setting.
Data	Precise and quantitative	Observations, words and images.
Procedures	Standards and replicable	Tailored.
Analysis	Statistical analysis, tables and charts to test hypothesis	Construction of a generalisable and coherent picture through rich descriptions.

3.2.3 The selected research methodology

A qualitative approach is selected for three reasons. First, exploring and understanding partnerships requires a study of the partners' social settings alongside the internal structure, culture, and policies of each organisation. Commonly, studying the social setting is better achieved through words and images instead of numbers. Second, paying attention to the participants' perspectives and their influence on the social world allows research to be associated with everyday life (Neuman, 2002; Bryman, 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2015). Third, there is no grounded theory to be tested. In fact, a theory will be developed as an outcome of the research (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Thus, the flexibility in

conducting the research by following an unstructured process will empower the researcher to understand the big picture. This is compatible with the research's objective of providing INGOs and CBOs with a comprehensive guideline to support their endeavours to create effective partnerships or improve existing ones.

3.3 Research design

The research design is defined as *"the plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research questions"* (Saunders et al., 2009, p.600). It comprises the study purpose, structure, timeframe, environment, data collection, participants' perceptions, variable control, and scope (Cooper & Schnidler, 2008a).

First, the purpose of this research is descriptive to express the reality as it is by asking the questions of who, what, where, when, and how much (Cooper & Scindler, 2008a). Particularly, it is selected to explore how to build effective partnerships between INGOs and CBOs' by exploring the elements that facilitate, motivate, promote, and constrain these partnerships. Second, the research structure is exploratory because there is insufficient context related to the chosen topic (Yin, 2009). Therefore, open-ended interview questions were designed for the goal of exploring the unknown (Saunder et al, 2009). Third, the research time-frame is cross-sectional since a specific event in a specific time is covered. In this research, the partnerships between INGOs and CBOs, created in response to the Syrian refugee crisis, were explored over a six-week period between October 2016 and November 2016. Fourth, the research was conducted on the field through face-to-face interviews to monitor the elements in their actual environment with minimal chance for manipulation or repetition. Fifth, actual routine and ex-post facto were followed. This is because participants are the main source of data and any attempts to modify their behaviours or report fabricated observations will lead to invalid results. Sixth, the research scope is a single case, since case studies allow reviewing specific events and interpreting in-depth

analysis for a narrower group of actions and behaviours (Cooper & Scindler, 2008a). Specifically, the approach adopted in this study allows the different stakeholders involved in humanitarian supply chain to provide detailed insights on the complex inter-relationships and investigate collaboration in real-world setting during a humanitarian response. Table 3-4 represents the research design outlines.

Table 3-4: The research design outline (modified from Cooper & Scindler, 2008a)

Category	Qualitative	Why to select this approach?
Purpose	Descriptive	*"To gain an accurate profile of events, persons, situations"* (Saunder et al, 2012, p.171)
Structure	Exploratory	*"A valuable means to ask open ended questions to discover what is happening and gain insight about a topic of interest"* (Saunder et al, 2012, p.171)
Time Frame	Cross sectional	Covering specific phenomena in a specific time
Environment	Field	Reflecting the reality without manipulating the variables
Data collection	Communication	Face-to-face conversations with respondents to collect their perspectives
Participants perceptions	Actual Routine	Asking questions that could affect or change the respondents' perspectives of their own and others behaviours
Variable control	Ex-post facto	Report what is observed, with no control over the variables
Scope	Case	*"explores a research topic or phenomenon within its context or within number of real-life contexts"* (Saunders et al, 2012, p. 179)

3.4 The research sample

The empirical context of the research is CBOs and INGOs that are involved in dyadic partnerships to serve vulnerable people in Jordan. Two clusters of respondents were interviewed. First, project managers, logistics managers, and country directors of INGOs. Second, managers of CBOs and caseworkers. Few respondents were selected based on direct organisational relationships. Respondents were recognised through the United

Nations High Commissioner for Refugees' (UNHCR) website which offers access to the contact details of active INGOs and CBOs in Jordan. The sample was also recognised through the NGOs' list provided by the Jordanian Ministry of Social Development, and through referrals from the respondents. This sample offers varied aid (e.g. camp management, food security, child protection, shelter, nutrition and so forth), thus any potential impacts from concentrating on a specific type of aid were reduced (Palmatier et al., 2007).

3.4.1 Characteristics of the international respondents

The participants were anticipated to have adequate knowledge about horizontal partnerships and challenges facing the NGOs in the development countries. All the international respondents had at least six years of experience in the humanitarian field. Ten out of the nineteen respondents had been employed by at least four non-governmental organisations from the beginning of their career life. Fifteen out of the nineteen respondents were accountable for setting up and supervising joint projects with CBOs. Only three respondents were expatriates.

3.4.2 Characteristics of the local respondents

All the local respondents had a minimum of three years of experience in social development, and three years of experience in collaborating with INGOs. Twelve out of sixteen respondents were employed for at least one another CBO before, while seven out of sixteen respondents were responsible for setting up joint projects with INGOs.

3.5 Data collection

In this research, the data is collected over two stages: secondary and primary. First, a set of academic literature about horizontal partnerships was discussed. In particular, Lambert and Knemeyer's (2004) relationship model was adopted and later tailored to suit the research scope. The literature offered a comprehensive view of the elements that are

essential in initiating effective horizontal-dyadic partnerships. These elements, namely challenges, facilitators, key drivers, and mechanisms, were integrated into the interview questions. Second, the primary data was collected through semi-structured, face-to-face interviews. These interviews increased the awareness of new areas that are important to the research but have never been considered during designing the interview questions (Saunders et al., 2012).

Collection of the primary data began by sending invitation letters to forty-four potential participants through email, followed by two email reminders. The invitation letters stated the goal of the research. It also emphasised the confidentiality and participants' anonymity. Participants were selected through a combined purposeful sampling procedure that comprised snowballing and criterion sampling as well as key informant's method and referrals based. The combined sampling method is appropriate in the context of this study because participants were selected based on their relevance to the research objectives, knowledge and experience in the horizontal partnerships and challenges facing the NGOs in developing countries. For instance, the researcher evaluated the participants' qualifications using Campell's (1955) criteria: first, by asking them to describe the role that they play in their organisations. Second, by exploring to what extent they are knowledgeable about these partnerships (Campbell, 1955; Schreiner et al., 2009). Forty out of forty-four managers agreed to participate, while only thirty-five managers were selected upon their qualifications. Thus, thirty-five, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews including international and local participants alongside a UNHCR representative were conducted between October 2016 and November 2016. The interviews were conducted in the capital city Amman, and in some cases, they were conducted in other Jordanian provinces. The participants showed flexibility regarding the interview locations as more than half of the interviews were conducted after official work hours. The rest of

the participants asked to arrange interviews early at their offices to guarantee availability. All interviews took from 45 to 70 minutes, and approval to record the interviews digitally was requested. The interviews were also translated and transcribed by the researcher. In all interviews, participants were requested to answer four open-ended questions. At the beginning, the participants seemed cautious about openly discussing the challenges facing their partnerships, but in time, they appeared more comfortable. Four top level themes were covered: challenges, facilitators, key drivers, and mechanisms, followed by sub-questions (see Appendix A). The top-level questions are:

Q1: What are the challenges that constrain an effective partnership between an INGO and a CBO, during disaster relief operations?

This question aims to investigate the challenges that constrain the establishment of an effective partnership or the enhancement of an existing one. First, the participants were asked to discuss the existing challenges. Second, challenges from the literature review were presented during the interviews to confirm if they should be considered or excluded. The participants were then asked to clarify how these challenges affect the partnerships.

Q2: What are the facilitators of an effective partnership between an INGO and a CBO, during disaster relief operations?

The purpose of this question is to explore if the expected facilitators are essential for initiating or enhancing a partnership. The participants were also asked to explain the impact of these facilitators and to mention other facilitators if they existed.

Q3: What are the key drivers of an effective partnership between an INGO and a CBO, during disaster relief operations?

This question aims to determine the key motivations that encourage an INGO and a CBO to collaborate.

Q4: What are the mechanisms to promote an effective partnership between an INGO and a CBO, during disaster relief operations?

The goal of this question is to explore the mechanisms that should exist to support effective and sustainable partnerships. First, a list of technical and relational mechanisms was presented, and participants were asked to select the mechanisms that have been used by their organisations. The participants were also asked to explain how these mechanisms are implemented and what their impacts are on the partnerships. Second, the participants were asked to discuss other mechanisms if they existed. By acting this way, the participants helped in prioritising the mechanisms based on their importance.

3.6   Data analysis

In this research, five stages of data analysis were followed. As a first step, the data collected from interviews was recorded and transcribed into a textual format. Then, the transcripts were open-coded to identify codable moments (Baldwin, 2008), including keywords, terminologies, and new thoughts expressed by the participants. The outcome of this stage was one hundred ninety pages of transcripts and seven hundred codable moments. The codable moments were then refined and labelled (categorised) to be used later in answering the research questions (Rossman & Rallis, 2011). These labels are challenges, facilitators, key drivers, technical mechanisms, and relational mechanisms. Then, several themes and sub-themes were developed (Emerson et al., 1995), such as external challenges, outsourcing, and relation-specific investment. A pattern matching analysis technique was utilised to make a comparison between the collected and predicted data (Padgett, 2016). Thus, if one or more of the predicted data did not reflect reality, it was excluded and new data was replaced. Most of the expected data matched the collected ones but some were revealed to be new. Lastly, the data was synthesised and a theoretical scheme, describing how INGOs and CBOs can collaborate effectively, was developed (Stake, 1995).

3.7 Evaluation

Evaluating the research methodology in terms of reliability and validity is the key feature of research quality (Saunders et al., 2012). Saunders et al. (2012, p.619) define evaluation as "*the process of judging materials or methods in terms of their accuracy and internal consistency or by comparing them against external criteria*".

3.7.1 Reliability

Reliability is frequently interchangeable with the words of credibility, predictability, and consistency (Guba & Lincoln, 1958; Bryman, 2012). It is commonly measured by looking at internal and/or external reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Internal reliability refers to the stability of research outputs and it is tested by employing multiple measures for the same activity (Neuman, 2006). The outcomes are then pooled to form an overall score (Phelan & Wren, 2006). External reliability, on the other hand, is tested by repetition. This means that if the same processes were repeated under the same conditions and led to similar outcomes, then reliability is achieved (Guba & Lincoln, 1958).

In this research, respondents were asked the same questions and under similar conditions (face-to-face interviews). Hence, the empirical data collected throughout all the face-to-face interviews produced a similar context that was analysed in the discussion chapter of this research. Participants' responses were also replicated to some extent. More procedures were followed to avoid bias and improve reliability. First, the researcher refrained from imposing her viewpoints through designing four open-ended questions, which allowed the respondents to express their perspectives openly. Second, the research findings were recorded and transcribed to eliminate data manipulation. Third, the use of a coding scheme ensured consistent coding. Fourth, independent checking of the coding scheme and interview coding were conducted to ensure data reliability.

3.7.2 Validity

Validity comprises both internal and external aspects (Guba & Lincoln, 1958). Internal validity is more about translating the collected data in a way that accurately describe the participants' perspectives (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Therefore, the participants of the research were asked to confirm the main findings to ensure that they precisely reflect their perceptions. According to Balland & Sobhi (2013), internal validity can also be improved by credibility. In this research, credibility was enhanced: first, through receiving different perceptions about the same event from multiple participants within the same organisation. Second, by selecting trustworthy participants who occupy positions relevant to the research topic. External validity, on the other hand, is about being able to generalise the findings to other settings (Sackett & Larson, 1990). To enhance the external validity, the researcher tried to develop a theory (conceptual model) that is strongly associated with an existing theory to be utilised in similar situations.

3.8   Ethical considerations

The ethical implications of the research were identified to show respect to the contributors. This is because research should not create physical, emotional, or safety harm to the contributors (Cooper & Schindler, 2008a). Therefore, participants were asked to contribute through a formal email that explains the goal of the research. A confidentiality agreement was also attached to increase trust between the researcher and potential participants. According to this agreement, the researcher promised to keep participants' identities anonymous and to use the collected data only to fulfil the research's goal. The researcher and participants approved the agreement to mitigate the embarrassment, loss of credibility or loss of funds that could occur if the research results were inconsistent with the partnerships promoted achievements. To evade deception, the role of each participant was clarified at the beginning of the interview. The participants were also able to withdraw from

the contribution at any time and to reject answering questions that would make them uncomfortable (Cooper & Schindler, 2008b). To avoid stress, each participant was informed that the interview would be recorded, transcribed, and that a copy of the transcript would be sent to him/her for final approval. Finally, the reputation of the participants was maintained by hiding characteristics that could identify their organisations, whereas the reputation of Massey University was maintained by strictly following the ethics of the institution. Also, the objectivity and integrity of this research were maintained through avoiding writing false data or neglecting parts of the data analysis (University of Pittsburg, 2011; Simundic, 2013).

3.9   Method summary

This research aims to explore the elements that allow the formation of development of effective horizontal-dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs during disaster relief operations. Based on the epistemological (interpretivist) and ontological (constructionist) orientations that the researcher holds, a qualitative research methodology was undertaken. Document analysis and semi-structured face-to-face interviews was chosen as the data collection technique. The evaluation of existing documents highlights some of the constraints faced by INGOs and CBOs during disaster relief operations. Semi-structured face-to-face interviews allowed the different stakeholders to describe their experiences and practices when collaborating with other agencies during disaster relief operations. Jordan was selected as the case country in this research because of the high influx of war refugees and displaced persons from Syria. Reliability and validity were the researcher's main concern. Therefore, the data was collected by interviewing reliable individuals, who were asked open-ended questions, while the answers were recorded to eliminate data manipulation. Lastly, the research ethics were considered to reduce the risk of harm to contributors, researcher, and Massey Universi

The 4st Chapter

FINDINGS & ANALYSIS

4   Findings and Analysis

The data was collected from a primary (interviews) and secondary (frame of reference) sources. This chapter starts by presenting the case background and humanitarian work in Jordan to provide the reader with an overview of the current situation in the country regarding the refugees' issue and humanitarian activators. Then, a description of the research sample is introduced to demonstrate the reasons that lie behind selecting their organisations to support the research. The sample description also aims to enhance the reliability of the research. Next, the participants' perceptions regarding the challenges, facilitators, key drivers, and mechanisms that all together promote effective partnerships between NGOs are presented. Finally, an exemplary Jordanian case followed by a synthesis of the findings are introduced as a preface to the discussion chapter.

4.1   Case background

With a population of 6.5 million people (IOCC, 2016), Jordan is a Middle-Eastern country that borders Syria, Iraq, the West Bank, and Saudi Arabia. Since 1948, over 2 million Palestinian refugees have fled to Jordan, followed by more refugees from both Iraq and Syria (UNRWA, 2016). Currently, the Syrian crisis is considered the worst man-made disaster so far (ACF, 2016). In the last five years, more than 100,000 Syrians have died, about six million have been forced to move internally, and approximately three million have been displaced out of Syria (ACF, 2016). In Jordan, the situation is extremely complicated. Jordan hosts more than 1.4 million Syrians refugees, while only 660,000 are registered (Francis, 2015). Nearly, 21% of refugees live in *Za'atari* (the second largest refugees' camp in the world, with a population of 100,000), *Marjeeb al-Fahood, Cyber City* or the *Azraq* camps, while the rest of the refugees have settled in host communities (DRC, 2016; Tobin & Campbell, 2016, UNHCR, 2017).

The massive influx of refugees has led to a ten percent increase in population growth, which has brought more challenges for Jordan alongside the existing ones (Francis, 2015; IOCC, 2016). For example, refugees put great stress on water resources, while the demand for petrol increased by around nine percent (Harper, 2008). Furthermore, around 59% of refugees have specific needs which require extra aid such as disability or legal protection, thirty five percent of refugees still have to receive compulsory education, while ~48% of refugees compete for jobs (UNHCR, 2017). According to Francis (2015, p.8), *"The Government is stretched beyond its capacity to deliver essential services like healthcare, education, and waste management in the municipalities most affected by the Syrian refugee crisis"*. Accordingly, NGOs became mainly responsible for improving the local capabilities. In Jordan, around 4,869 local and international NGOs are working to provide Syrians and Jordanians with basic aid and long-term development programmes (Jarrah, 2009; Alghad press, 2016). However, many aid projects were prevented because of the country's restricted regulations (Sukkar, 2015). Also, unregistered refugees have received limited assistance from the INGOs due to the limited access to their conservative communities (Libal & Harding, 2011). In response, several INGOs have initiated collaborative partnerships with CBOs for the goal of increasing their activities and programmes within Jordan (Libal & Harding, 2011). Currently, a wide range of projects related to health, education, violence, early childhood care and so forth are supported by local and international partners such as Jordanian River Foundation and United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF). Figure 4.1 shows statistics concerning the registered Syrian refugees in Jordan published by the UNHCR-Jordan.
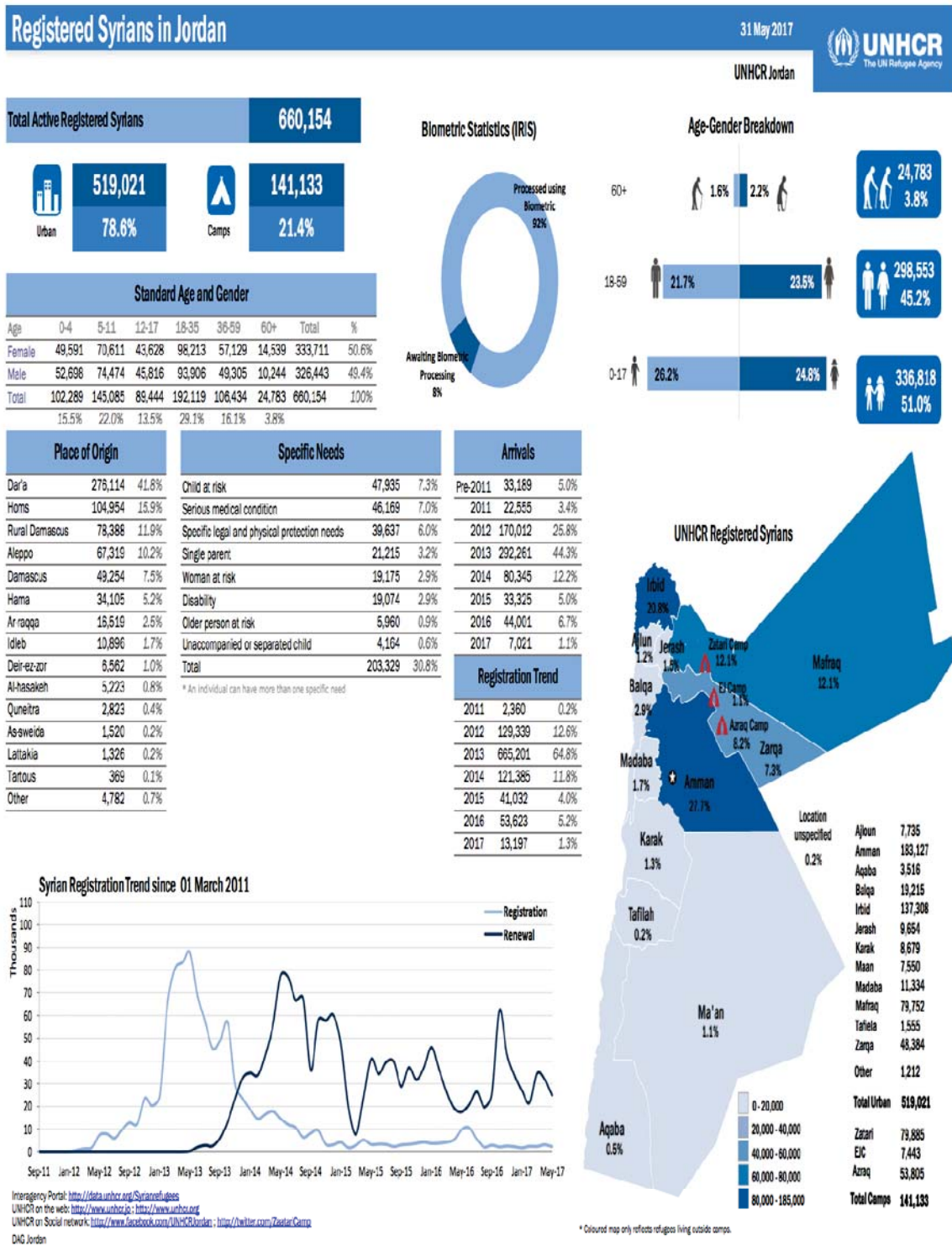
Figure 4.1: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees report on registered Syrian refugees in May 31, 2017 (UNHCR, 2017)

4.2   The humanitarian work in Jordan

From the beginning of the Syrian crisis, the Jordanian Government identified its role in (a) organising camp access, (b) rules deploying, as well as (c) monitoring the NGOs' work through the Jordanian Ministry of Social Development (Tobin & Campbell, 2016). Therefore, the Jordanian military forces were deployed on the shared borders with Syria to organise the refugees' access to Jordan (Figure 4.2). Whilst both the UNHCR and the Jordanian Hashemite Charity Organisation (JHCO) were authorised to build camps, registration of refugees, and provision of necessities (McGrath, 2014). However, this was inadequate. Consequently, the international community was asked to intervene. A great number of INGOs offered aid to Jordan, but aid was distributed randomly, where some refugees could receive donations multi-times per day from different sources. This stimulated the UNHCR to eliminate the duplication in work by organising sector meetings. This also led the Jordanian Government to obligate the INGOs to allocate 30% or 50% of their budget to serve the local beneficiaries, depending on the type of aid (Röth et al., 2017).

In Jordan, the INGOs' services are varied, working in health, education, protection, cash assistance, water, food, and shelter. To deliver aid, they use commercial Third Party providers (3PLs), or through their local partners. Figure 4.2 illustrates the routine that is followed by the host governments and NGOs when a crisis strikes.
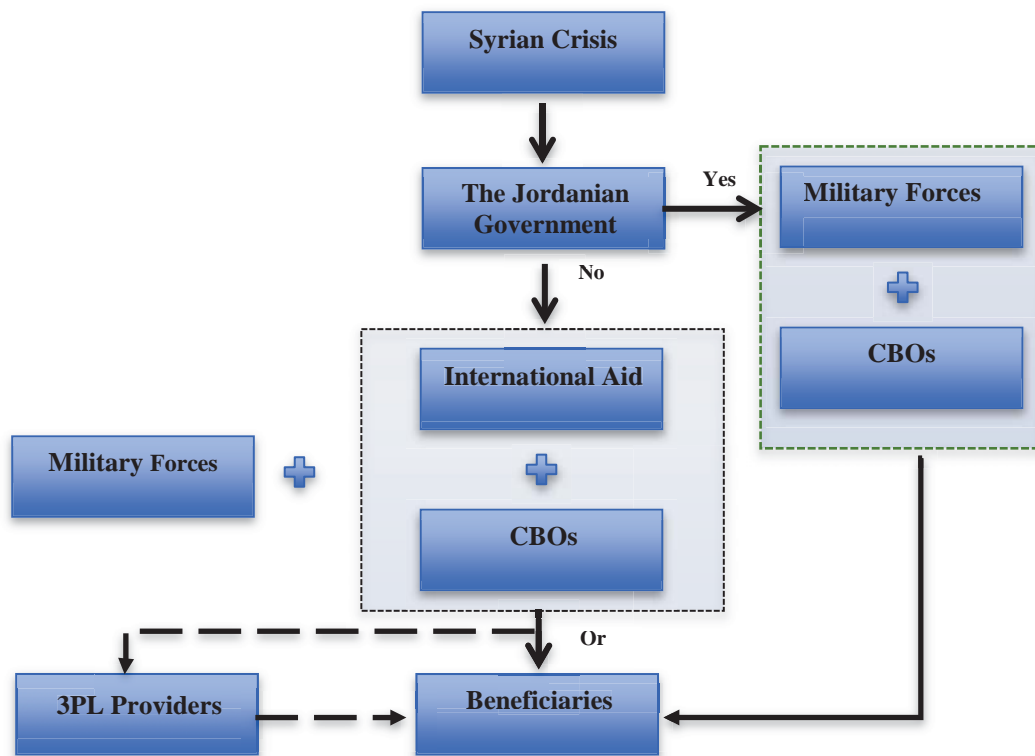
Figure 4.2: The process of delivering humanitarian aid in Jordan: The multi-humanitarian actors and procedures

According to Figure 4.2, when a crisis occurs, the main question is to what extent could the host government handle the situation by itself. If the answer is 'yes' they could face the crisis alone, then the ideal situation is to deploy the local-trained resources along with the military ones to serve the beneficiaries. If no, then aid should be delivered through INGOs and CBOs. In both cases, the role of the military is essential to maintain the country's security against terrorism. In Jordan, the military forces are also responsible for escorting the refugees, who need urgent help, from the crossing points to the NGOs' help centres. Table 4-1 summarises the humanitarian players' role in Jordan.

Table 4-1: The humanitarian actors' roles regarding the Syrian crisis in Jordan

The humanitarian actor	Role	Examples
The Jordanian Government	-Rules deploying -Coordinating & Monitoring	-Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (MOPIC), Ministry of Social Development, JHCO, Health Ministry, Education Ministry
Donors	-Funds (cash or in-kind donations)	-United States Agency for International Development (USAID), European Commission, Swiss Agy for Development & CO
INGOs	-Planning projects -Direct implementation -Capacity building	-Save the Children, Mercy Corps -International Rescue Committee, Doctors without Borders -Norwegian Refugee Council, Questscope, World Vision
CBOs	-Direct implementation -Planning projects*	-Jordan River Foundation, Jordan Paramedic Society (JPS), *Tkiyet Um Ali* -*INJAZ* Jordan
Private sector/ 3PL providers	-Donations -Offering supportive operations	-Zain Group, Arab Bank, Samsung Electronics Levant -*WATAD*, Aramex

* By Royal and large CBOs only.

4.3   Sample description

Over a six-week period in October and November 2016, the researcher interviewed thirty-five participants from fourteen leading INGOs together with eleven Jordanian CBOs, and one representative from the UNHCR. The researcher aimed to interview the INGOs that collaborate with CBOs and vice versa. The sample comprises of country directors of INGOs and CBOs, logistics managers, operations officers, projects managers, and caseworkers. The researcher prepared a semi-structured design of four primary questions to be used during interviews. Each question was followed by a list of secondary questions to gain a deeper insight into the current situation. Follow-up questions were sent by emails, answered

through phone calls, and 15 minutes' face-to-face interviews. Generally, interviews lasted

45-70 minutes and 90 percent of them were recorded, whereas the rest were written as notes.

This sample is representative, where all the selected INGOs are classified as leading

organisations with experiences of three to 70 years in serving vulnerable people. Four out

of 15 INGOs began working in Jordan in response to the Syrian refugees' flow in 2011,

while the rest of INGOs have been in Jordan since the Palestinian and Iraqi displacements.

Furthermore, each INGO delivers several types of aid. Table 4-2 introduces the provided

humanitarian aid and the INGOs that are specialised in delivering each type.

Table 4-2: The types of aid provided by the INGOs in Jordan in response to the Syrian crisis

INGO ID	Types of aid					
	Food security	Water & Sanitation	Camp Management	Cash Assistance	Health	Child protection
INGO1	X	X		X	X	
INGO2		X		X		X
INGO3						
INGO4	X	X	X			
INGO5	X	X			X	
INGO6					X	
INGO7		X			X	X
INGO8	X				X	
INGO9	X			X	X	X
INGO10	X	X	X	X	X	X
INGO11					X	
INGO12				X	X	X
INGO13					X	X
INGO14	X	X			X	

To be Continued on the next page.

INGO ID	Types of aid						
	Nutrition	Education	Shelter	Protection	Gender based violence	Core relief items	Registration & coordination
INGO1			X	X		X	
INGO2		X	X	X		X	
INGO3		X					
INGO4		X	X	X		X	
INGO5		X		X		X	
INGO6							
INGO7		X		X	X	X	
INGO8			X			X	
INGO9		X					
INGO10	X	X	X		X	X	X
INGO11							
INGO12				X	X		
INGO13	X			X	X		
INGO14	X						

In this sample, most of the selected INGOs are recognised for their strong logistics capacities; since delivering aid successfully requires an effective supply chain network. This has been explored through Internet, portfolios, and by conducting conversations with some of the experienced logisticians in Jordan. For instance, *INGO11* has its supply centres, with a storage capacity up to 12,800 m^2 in each branch. It also has a key distribution network that enables them to distribute aid rapidly to their centres in more than 70 countries. Moreover, 14 out of 15 INGOs have been working in more than 20 countries with long experiences in building capacities of CBOs in Africa, Latin America, Middle East, Asia, and Eastern Europe. For instance, *INGO15* worked in partnerships with CBOs in 25 out of 45 countries of intervention, whereas *INGO2* worked with CBOs in over 110 countries. In Jordan, *INGO9* has 21 local partners. While, *INGO1* started to work with 14 CBOs around the country. Tables 4-3 and 4-4 are a description of the international sample that has been chosen to support the research.

Table 4-3: A description of the INGOs selected for the research (Part 1)

Respondent IDs	Length of existence in Jordan			Number of Jordanian cities & countries served				
	Less than 5 years	5-15 years	More than 15 years	1-4 cities	More than 4 cities	Less than 20 countries	20-50 countries	More than 50 countries
INGO1			X	X				X
INGO2		X		X			X	
INGO3	X				X	X		
INGO4	X				X		X	
INGO5		X		X				X
INGO6	X						X	
INGO7		X			X		X	
INGO8			X	X			X	
INGO9			X		X			X
INGO10			X					X
INGO11		X		X				X
INGO12		X		X				X
INGO13			X		X			X
INGO14	X			X			X	

Table 4-4: A description of the INGOs selected for the research (Part 2)

Respondent IDs	Local CBO partner		Target beneficiaries	
	Yes	No	Inside camps	Outside camps
INGO1	X		X	
INGO2	X		X	
INGO3	X		X	
INGO4	X		X	
INGO5	X		X	
INGO6		X		X
INGO7		X		X
INGO8		X		X
INGO9	X		X	
INGO10	X		X	
INGO11		X		X
INGO12	X		X	
INGO13				
INGO14	X		X	

Regarding the local sample, CBOs concentrate mainly on programmes of child protection, education, health, and core relief items. Tables 4-5 and 4-6 introduce the provided humanitarian aid and the CBOs that are specialised in delivering each type. The Jordanian CBOs' types of work in response to the Syrian crisis.

Table 4-5: The types of aid provided by the CBOs in Jordan in response to the Syrian crisis (Part 1)

Respondent IDs	Types of aid					
	Food security	Water & Sanitation	Camp Management	Cash Assistance	Health	Child protection
CBO1					X	
CBO2			X	X		X
CBO3						X
CBO4					X	
CBO5					X	
CBO6						
CBO7						
CBO8	X			X		
CBO9						
CBO10						X
CBO11					X	

Table 4-6: The types of aid provided by the CBOs in Jordan in response to the Syrian crisis (Part 2)

Respondent IDs	Types of aid						
	Nutrition	Education	Shelter	Protection	Gender based violence	Core relief items	Registration, community service, coordination
CBO1							
CBO2			X			X	X
CBO3							
CBO4							
CBO5							
CBO6							X
CBO7		X					
CBO8							
CBO9		X					
CBO10							
CBO11	X		X	X		X	

All the selected CBOs are operating outside camps, except *CBO2* which was working as the coordinating partner at the beginning of the Syrian crisis. CBOs are ranging from small organisations to large foundations. In this sample, four out of 11 CBOs are owned and operated by the Royal Family. For instance, *CBO3* is chaired by her Majesty *Queen Rania Al Abdalla* and registered internationally in the United State of America. *CBO8* is chaired by Princess *Haya*, whereas *CBO2* is chaired by Prince *Al Hasan* and reaches more than 36 countries. In addition, CBOs such as *CBO7,* was capable of separating and becoming an independent Jordanian NGO with a Board of Trustees comprising 55 leading private companies. Table 4-7 describes the local sample that has been selected to support the research.

Table 4-7: A description of the CBOs selected for the research

Respondent IDs	Length of existence in Jordan			Number of Jordanian cities & countries served			
	Less than 5 years	5-15 years	More than 15 years	1-4 cities	More than 4 cities	Inside Jordan	Outside Jordan
CBO1	X				X	X	X
CBO2			X		X	X	X
CBO3			X		X	X	
CBO4	X			X		X	
CBO5	X				X	X	
CBO6	X			X			X
CBO7		X			X	X	X
CBO8		X			X	X	
CBO9	X			X			X
CBO10			X	X		X	
CBO11		X			X	X	X

To be continued on the next page.

Respondent IDs	INGO partner		Target beneficiaries	
	Yes	No	Inside camps	Outside camps
CBO1	X			X
CBO2	X		X	X
CBO3	X			X
CBO4	X			X
CBO5	X			X
CBO6	X			X
CBO7	X			X
CBO8	X			X
CBO9	X			X
CBO10	X			X
CBO11	X		X	X

4.4 Challenges

In this section, the researcher presents the problems facing NGOs in Jordan. The respondents have been asked to describe the inter-organisational, organisational, external, and donor related challenges that might affect their running projects. This section took between ten and fifteen minutes for each respondent.

4.4.1 The inter-organisational challenges

4.4.1.1 Poor communication

The greatest concern for most of the participation involved the conflicts in objectives, priorities, and terms that often result from weak communication between their organisations. In many cases, partners had not agreed upon the outcomes to be gained from the cooperation, the tasks to implement together, and the ones to achieve independently. When one of the INGOs tried to build the capacity of a CBO, both the INGO and the CBO involved in a capacity-building exercise were surprised to discover their dissimilar viewpoints on how capacity would be built. The CBO defined capacity building as its

capability to deliver people's needs, whereas the INGO defined the CBO capacity based on its capability to align itself with the donors' conditions. Table 4-8 explains how INGOs and CBOs understand the core concepts and humanitarian terminology.

Table 4-8: Terminology misunderstanding between INGOs and CBOs (Washington, 2011)

Development/humanitarian terminology	Local understanding
Community Based Organisation	Charitable / Rehabilitation / Improvement societies
Non-Governmental Organisation	Service oriented organisations that provide services where government services are lacking / replacing government
Empowerment	Improvement in economic situation / train women to take over men's role
Partnership	Service implementer / funding recipient
Monitoring and evaluation	Top-down analysis of welfare needs of a population
Capacity building	Attend training workshops / INGO staff seconded to CBO

The barriers of culture and language were also recognised by participants as major reasons for miscommunication between partners. Many of the international participants mentioned cultural clashes between the international and local staff. They also cited the stress that is caused because of the dissimilar tribal backgrounds of local staff in rural areas. One manager in an INGO stated:

> *"Although ninety-eight percent of our staff are Jordanians, they sometimes belong to different tribal backgrounds. Tribal animosities may lead to personal animosities that affect the harmony between members of an organisation, or between partners".*

Regarding the differences in languages, some INGOs stated:

> *"Most of CBOs are located in remote areas where the majority of their staff lack English language proficiency. Although they sometimes pretend to understand the topics discussed in the joint meetings, the fact that they get the implementation wrong indicates their lack of understanding".*

 Overcoming this issue was cited as a big challenge by the INGOs. Therefore, the majority agreed on the importance of listening as a key factor for a successful relationship. In an exemplary statement, a project manager in an INGO proved the importance of listening to the local expertise.

> *"In the Azraq reserve, one of the INGOs, which is interested in wildlife conservation, requested help from its local partner, an organisation with extensive experience in this field, in order to draw up a plan to convince donors to support their joint project. The CBO was effective in its role , and knew how to attract animals by putting food in the right places at the right time during the donors' visit. The subsequent funding of the project was the successful outcome of effective communication between partners."*

4.4.1.2 Power imbalance

The asymmetry of power between CBOs and INGOs remains unsolved in Jordan, with INGOs holding a controlling role, that is shown in the way that goals and schedules are shaped unilaterally, and outcomes that are important to local partners are ignored. Many CBOs stated that INGOs discuss the issues of local community and refugees away from beneficiaries. CBOs expressed the asymmetry of power this way:

> *"INGOs are the main source of funding. Thus, they often do what they want regardless of what we want, and this is our main challenge".*

> *"Even when focus groups are employed by donors to evaluate local community needs, results will be manipulated until they become compatible with INGOs' and donors' agendas".*

> *"We are reflecting the reality since INGOs come with a set of unrealistic expectations about what is happening in our country… Sometimes INGOs want to fund anything even if it is not suitable for our needs".*

> *"We refuse to fully document the security challenges that we face during implementation, because we believe that funding might stop. For this reason, we sometimes employ our personal connections to accomplish tasks".*

In 2010, a project was established in *Wadi Rum* (south of Jordan) to teach the local community how to use technology. Centres were established, fully equipped and funded by the INGO operating in the area. The surprise was that 80% of the locals were illiterate. A

CBO manager explained "*This is a result of the inaccurate proposals that are prepared by foreign managers, who consider themselves superior and know what is best for all*". Therefore, several cases of physical abuse were recorded against the international workers as a sign that the local community rejected the "*white man mentality*". Managing this asymmetry was stated as a challenge by many CBOs.

4.4.1.3 Strategic incompatibility: distrust, lack of commitment, and disrespect

Both local and International participants showed strongly held opinions regarding tension between partners in terms of trust, commitment and respect. For CBOs, underestimating their capabilities is what generates distrust. A CBO manager stated:

> "*They make us feel that we lack the skills that are needed to accomplish tasks. For example, they do not allow us to participate in monitoring and evaluating joint projects, although we have better evaluation systems and a better understanding of the local community's needs*".

> "*Out of the blue, our international partners send inspectors, without informing us beforehand, which shows that they do not trust our capabilities and way of implementation*".

For INGOs, the uncertainty about CBOs' resources have promoted a lack of commitment and disrespect. The majority reported their inability to determine the genuine CBOs that are dedicated to spending funds in a proper way. Other INGOs pointed out that many CBOs might falsify their work and pretend that they have the same agendas of INGOs to keep receiving donations. In an exemplary statement, a project manager in an INGO mentioned that:

> "*In one case, we signed contracts with CBOs based on their resources and their awareness of the international standards. However, we have been deceived as we discovered that they were operating from their houses, with very limited resources*".

Other INGOs stated:

> "*It is hard to know if this is an authentic CBO or not*".

"Many of CBOs shut down after receiving the first payment. They are not real organisations".

"Commonly, 10% of funds reach beneficiaries…whereas, 90% of funds are divided between the persons in charge".

4.4.2   The organisational challenges

4.4.2.1   Capabilities

The majority of international participants criticised the existence of inexperienced local managers who treat their organisations as private companies; aiming to achieve personal benefits without having a clear mission, vision, or resources. They also criticised the racist attitudes that local managers have towards refugees. Other respondents complained about the local managers' tribal connections, in line with which many of them impose conditions such as securing jobs for their relatives in exchange for getting work done. The root cause of this problem stems from the Jordanian Government's granting power to tribal authorities, in addition to the over-simplified requirements for establishing a CBO. They only require a group of seven people to be registered, stating no restriction regarding their expertise, as stated by many participants.

4.4.2.2   Turnovers

Some local and international respondents highlighted the instability of team leaders as an obstacle that affected the speed of the joint operations, since new employees need time to understand work procedures, and build robust relationships. A project manager in an INGO stated:

"I started working as a project manager in this INGO two weeks ago. All the projects were postponed, since the previous manager was the main person responsible for distributing tasks and communicating with donors. Thus, I am trying my best to rearrange the priorities to avoid delays".

Another international manager complained about the overspending that occurred because of the increase in numbers of capacity building initiatives. He clarified:

"We organise new training workshops every time our local partners change their staff, to improve their abilities and knowledge. This often requires allocating more funds".

4.4.3 The external challenges

4.4.3.1 Restrictive regulations and policies

The majority of international participants reported that the Jordanian Government forces them to submit guidelines and periodic evaluation reports regarding project implementation. Their projects must also entail working jointly with CBOs. According to INGOs, getting approval for these projects determines their eligibility to work in Jordan. The difficulty of getting approval has been cited by many INGOs. One of them stated, for example:

"Before starting implementation, we should get approval from the Ministry of Social Development, the Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (MOPIC), as well as from the Ministries of Health, Education, and so forth, depending on the project type. In specific cases, further investigations are implemented by the Jordanian Intelligence for security reasons. The Government needs to know, for example, how much we spend on administrative activities. These requirements delay our work, and put us under pressure".

These restrictions are necessary to maintain the safety of the country, but not all of them are in favour of the aid work. A CBO manager explained that huge opportunities for building CBOs' capacities, promoting the economy, and reducing unemployment were lost due to these excessive safety practices. Owing to these challenges, along with the difficulties of finding qualified CBOs, some INGOs began collaborating with government associations (e.g. Ministry of Health) instead of CBOs, to avoid slow implementations, undesirable outcomes, and reputational risks.

4.4.3.2 Logistics

Many INGOs stated that there are no tax or customs duty exemptions on imports, which means lengthy and complex paperwork. A logistics manager in an INGO pointed out:

> *"Last year, a shipment was held for four months in the port because of the high customs duty on medicines…at the end, the products expired"*.

To accelerate the work, INGOs deal with CBOs which act as government delegates. Those CBOs are more dominant and powerful than other local partners, but with fewer logistical capabilities than INGOs. In addition, other respondents reported that INGOs do not share 3PLs. In fact, everyone aims to get the job done individually, which led the majority to highlight inefficiency and ineffectiveness as a major challenge facing INGOs in Jordan.

4.4.4 The donor-related challenges

4.4.4.1 Funds and pre-packaged programmes

The majority believed that donors play NGOs against each other and force them to compete for funds. A manager in an INGO referred to "*limited and inflexible international funds",* while a CBO manager discussed "*the difficult economic situation of Jordan that limits the Government ability to support local NGOs"*. Many CBOs also stated that cash donations are usually misspent by their international partners, with more than seventy percent of funds being spent on administration, while the vulnerable people do not receive more than six percent of the funds. The majority of local participants also mentioned that due to restricted access to funding, and the need to maintain their presence as aid providers, they sometimes align themselves with the INGOs conditions. Therefore, they are now accepting pre-designed projects. A programme coordinator in a CBO stated:

> *"Many CBOs shut down because of their inability to comply with the INGOs' funding conditions"*.

For instance, a donation was made available to provide Syrians with educational courses, where part of the funding was allocated to support homosexuals. Although this conflicts with cultural norms, a CBO was under pressure to accept it. Table 4-9 highlights a collection of salient quotes regarding the challenges expressed by both INGOs and CBOs.

Table 4-9: Key challenges quotations

Key challenges	INGOs' quotations	CBOs' quotations
Commitment	*"We follow the processes that are written in proposals, so why to bother ourselves attending our local partners' activities, it is often not written there"*	*"The inadequate periodic assessments led some local NGOs to deviate from the humanitarian goals to achieve personal interests"*
Power	*"We are strong enough to force the CBOs to put our logos on parcels, regardless of the risk that they might face from beneficiaries who refuse Western help"*	*"INGOs most of the time treat us as outsiders"*
Capabilities	*"Our staff has been hired based on their experiences and skills only"*	*"Many local managers establish CBOs to take revenge for their expulsion from a previous job"*
Government	*"Funds usually go back to the international donors and governments in an indirect way, sometimes through putting in a condition of purchasing items that are produced in these countries"*	*"Our Government imposes high taxes and customs on the in-kind donations to increase their national income"*

Finding 1: the collected data reflects the complexity of the current situation and the importance of identifying the challenges that prevent or constrain the creation or adjustment of a relationship between an INGO and a CBO. The existing partnerships are restricted by inter-organisational, organisational, external, and donor-related challenges. Most of the inter-organisational and organisational challenges are mutually caused by INGOs and CBOs. The external challenges are predominantly caused by CBOs, whereas the donor-related challenges are predominantly caused by INGOs (Table 4-10). The X symbol indicates the partner from whom the challenge emanates.

Table 4-10: The challenges affecting partnerships between INGOs and CBOs in Jordan

Challenges	List of challenges	INGOs	CBOs
Inter-organisational challenges	Poor communication (e.g. lack of well-designed agreements)	X	X
	Power imbalance	X	
	Strategic Incompatibility: low levels of trust, respect, and commitment	X	X
Organisational challenges	Lack of capabilities and hidden agendas	X	X
	Turnovers	X	X
External challenges	Restrictive governmental authority and logistical complications		X
	The bad attributes of the humanitarian sector: Chaotic and competitive	X	X
	Inadequate number of qualified NGOs		X
Donor-related challenges	Restricted funds, pre-packaged projects, and supply oriented instead of demand oriented	X	

4.5   Facilitators

In this section, the researcher presents the supportive factors that are essential in initiating a partnership between an INGO and a CBO. The respondents were asked to share their points of view regarding the importance of compatibility in organisational culture, management philosophy, and complementarity of capabilities when starting a new partnership, or enhancing an existing one. First, the respondents were asked to describe the extent to which their objectives, missions, values, and priorities are similar to their partners. Then, they were asked to describe their organisational culture. Particularly, they were requested to identify their speed in responding to urgent events, whether they can accept new ideas, and whether they are free to express their feelings. Second, the participants were

asked about the role their organisations play in the decision-making process, and what factors affect their decisions regarding each joint project. Third, the researcher asked the respondents to explain how they complement their partners. This section took between 15 and 17 minutes for each respondent

4.5.1 The compatibility in organisational culture

The majority of INGOs have stressed the risk of making predictions, particularly around the mutual understanding of objectives and priorities, when selecting a partner. The reason is that INGOs believe that the humanitarian sector is riddled with concepts that can be misunderstood, even among the CBOs that operate within the same culture. They also agree that a mismatch in partners' characteristics can lead to frustration. Therefore, they ask: To what extent is the organisational culture of the potential partners similar? From their perspective, successful collaborations are an outcome of adequate overlap between NGOs in terms of missions, objectives, priorities, and values. One INGO explained:

"If dissimilarity is found, there will be greater concentration on enhancing the relationship, than on improving the project. This is not desirable as we want to improve both projects and partnerships".

Away from the theoretical perspective that was mentioned by respondents, more than half of the NGOs complained about the weak *"degree of fit"* between partners. CBOs thought that INGOs act according to conventional culture. INGOs, on the other hand, view CBOs as task culture organisations. Some CBOs demonstrated:

"Local staff treat each other as a single family that trusts and understands each other's way of thinking, what is acceptable, and what is not. Local staff are also multitasked, as everyone does a little bit of everything. Thus, they can tolerate fast decisions when an unexpected event occurs. The opposite situation can be found in INGOs because of the guidelines and formalities that restrict interaction between their staff".

Many CBOs also reported that incompatibility in organisational culture has a greater impact on their organisations than on the INGOs. As explained by the statements below, CBOs'

main concern is that the incompatibility will put their staff under stress and result in an

undesirable workload.

> *"You know those INGOs, they want their work to be accomplished in time, without considering the delay that occurs because of their long complex procedures".*
>
> *"Did you know that some of our staff stay working until late, they also have other life responsibilities to take care of".*
>
> *"Turnovers are very high; this is because the workload is not compatible with the wages. Consequently, a couple of my friends suffer from depression".*

Table 4-11 compares the perspectives of local and international partners regarding the

cultural elements that should be considered when starting a partnership.

Table 4-11: The perspectives of CBOs and INGOs regarding the compatibility in organisational culture

Match or conflict?	CBOs' perspectives	INGOs' perspectives
Match	There should be an adequate overlap in partners' goals, priorities, and values	Similar perspective
Match	The managerial staff mentality is an essential element in determining the success or failure of a partnership	Similar perspective
Conflict	We are less formal, open, innovative, and faster in making decisions. We focus on plans, whereas INGOs focus on procedures	We focus on plans and procedures. Our local partners are less flexible and they have more bureaucratic systems. This restricts our work

4.5.2 The compatibility in management philosophy

Many international respondents reported that they give attention to management

compatibility while choosing their local partners. They also stated that they give preference

to CBOs which have an active board of trustees who meet frequently and work based on a

structured decision-making system. They expressed that collaborating with such CBOs led

them to gradually follow project models in which local partners are the main leader and

INGOs are the sponsor. Three INGOs described these CBOs this way:

"They can plan their modules freely before asking for support. They can also make fast decisions without needing formal approval from us. This is because they work based on procedures that conform to international standards, where no programmes are approved before they are revised by their Board of Trustees, the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) department, project managers, and legal advisors. Thus, we trust them".

Away from the Royal and large CBOs, many local respondents mentioned that INGOs are dominant and control most of the partnerships. They also stated that, even when CBOs collaborate with flexible international partners, the decisions of CBOs' managers are often neglected, unless these decisions comply with the requirements of the INGOs in terms of policies, budget, and reputation. The inequality in decision making was expressed this way:

"In 98% of partnerships, INGOs are responsible for writing proposals and receiving funds. This made them believe that they have the power to impose their decisions".
"Let us be realistic, CBOs' managers cannot force INGOs to accept their ideas because it is not an equal power relationships. In fact, it is a 70%-30% relationship".

Other CBOs criticised the "*zero effort"* spent on integrating the management systems of partners. They also reported that factors that influence the decision-making process are prioritised, based on the INGOs and donors' vision. INGOs stated five main factors which are, time, cost, capacities, coordination, and quality. CBOs, on the other hand, focused on quality, followed by time and cost. Some respondents demonstrated the reason for the inconsistency in factors this way:

"CBOs believe that time and cost affect quality. INGOs, on the other hand, know that time means extra cost, and cost means unsatisfied donors which is undesirable".

Surprisingly, the majority mentioned that an incompatibility in management philosophy has only a slight influence on relationships, because CBOs mostly play the role of implementers. One local participant explained:

"I think before asking if the management philosophy is compatible or not, it is better to ask about the partnership type. If it is a donor-receipt relationship, then ignore this element, but if it is a relationship that aims to build capacities, then yes, compatibility in management philosophies and practices is very important".

Figure 4.3 illustrates the role of donors, INGOs, Royal and small CBOs regarding decision making in partnerships.
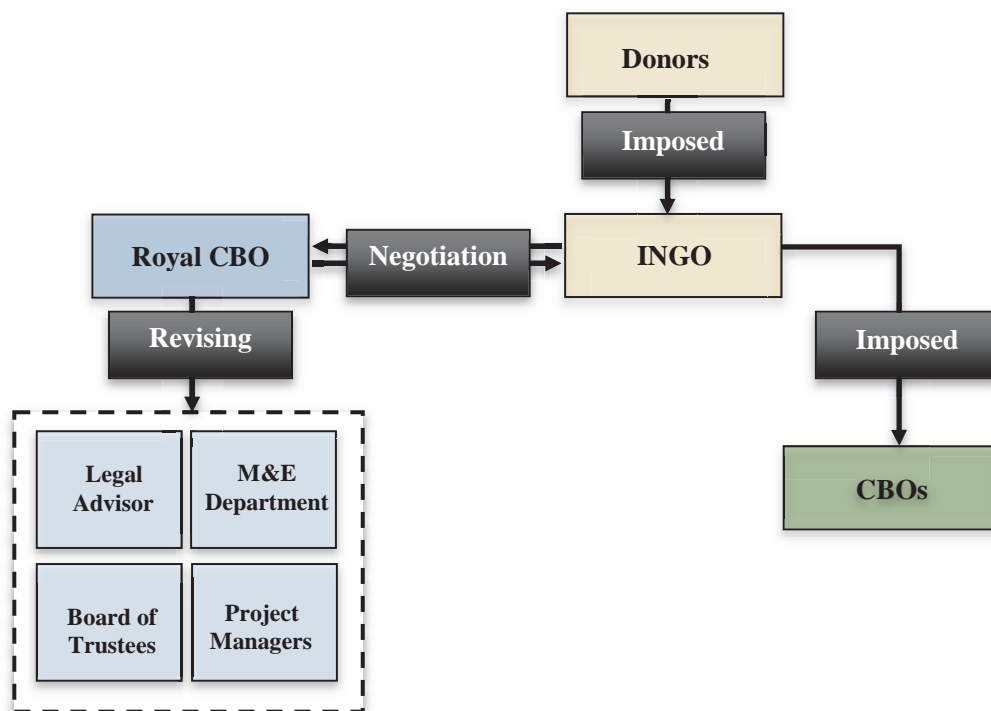
Figure 4.3*: The differences in decision-making authority between donors, INGOs, Royal CBOs, and small CBOs*

Based on Figure 4.3, decisions are imposed on small CBOs by donors and INGOs. In contrast, decisions are negotiated in the case of Royal or large CBOs.

4.5.3   The complementarity of capabilities

Most CBOs and INGOs agreed that they rely on each other's resources, including knowledge, skills, funds, or external relationships to achieve better results. For instance, all the international respondents stated that CBOs can better identify and address the needs of affected people. CBOs, on the other hand, appraised the INGOs' ability to access global

resources, and employ their connections in representing locals' issues in front of the international community.

One INGO summarised:

> *"We cannot succeed alone. In Jordan, there are a lot of conservative communities, and places that we are not able to access without the help of our local partners. In return, we support the CBOs financially".*

Different local respondents expressed that supporting their organisations financially is not enough, in situations where exchanging technical skills is more beneficial. A CBO manager said: *"We are more productive when we share technical expertise".* For instance, one CBO, that was working on developing a PayPal account to facilitate fundraising, faced some difficulties in initiating and promoting the account because of a lack of technical expertise. Therefore, their international partner offered to organise a brainstorming meeting. The respondent admitted that "*both the international expertise and the local knowledge of the CBO were necessary to make the account applicable*". Table 4-12 illustrates how INGOs and CBOs complement each other in Jordan.

Table 4-12: The perspectives of INGOs and CBOs regarding the complementarity of capabilities

What can INGOs provide?	What can CBOs provide?
▪ *Funding* ▪ *Expertise* to build capacities ▪ *International knowledge*	▪ *Local knowledge* ▪ *Skilled People* who can deal with vulnerable recipients ▪ Governmental facilitations- *external relationships*

Finding 2: Compatibility in organisational culture and management philosophy alongside the complementarity of capabilities enable effective partnerships between INGOs and CBOs at the dyadic level.

4.6   Key drivers

In this section, the researcher presents the key motivations or drivers that encourage both INGOs and CBOs to collaborate. The key drivers are categorised into mutual, CBOs, and INGOs drivers (Figure 4.4). This section took between three and five minutes for each respondent.
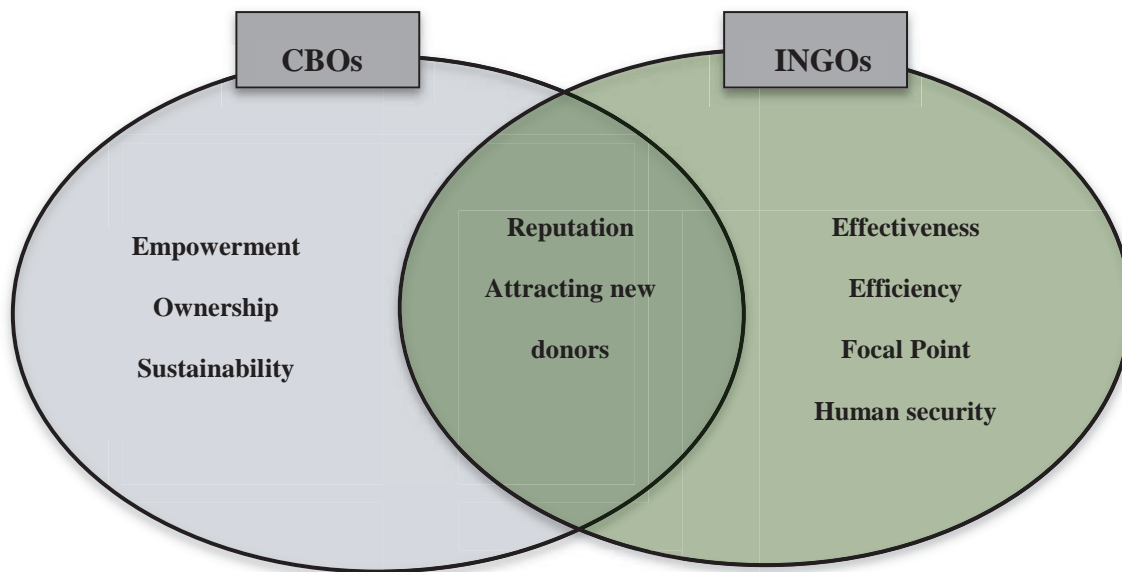
Figure 4.4: The drivers of collaboration between INGOs and CBOs in Jordan

The majority of INGOs mentioned that CBOs enter such type of partnerships to empower their organisations and maintain their sustainability. CBOs, on the other hand, stated that INGOs aim to guarantee continuity of aid even after they hand over responsibility to local partners, as well as guaranteeing a more secure, effective, and efficient working environment. One CBO explained:

"We turned out to manage the daily field operations on behalf of INGOs, which allowed them to decrease their mission staff and the high overheads associated with them".

> *"The international staff is not required anymore to drive to remote areas. Hence, extra expenses of vehicle maintenance and petrol were reduced tremendously".*

Similarly, many INGOs expressed their satisfaction with the fast approvals that were granted when dealing with local managers who have tribal authority and good connections with ministries, or who can offer tax and custom exemptions on the received donations.

Further motivations were identified during interviews. For instance, the majority stated that collaborative efforts between INGOs and CBOs led to a greater accessibility to refugees' hidden communities. They explained that refugees, who live in conservative remote areas, refuse intervention by the international community, while they feel safe in dealing with locals due to the cultural convergence. The following statement expresses the perspective of CBOs.

> *"We have the local knowledge to facilitate communication with the vulnerable population, to identify problems, and to accelerate implementations".*

Attracting new donors has also been stressed by some INGOs and CBOs as a key motivation. INGOs cited that, in most cases, CBOs bring an element of ownership that is preferred by funders. One INGO demonstrated:

> *"Nowadays, donors are giving more attention to the relief development projects that are managed by locals. We realised how important it is to align ourselves to donors' agendas. Thus, we started partnerships with local NGOs to gain advocacy".*

CBOs, on the other hand, stated that collaborating with recognised INGOs could enhance their reputation and opportunities for more grants.

Finding 3: INGOs and CBOs collaborate for different reasons. CBOs are searching for sustainability, empowerment, and ownership, whereas INGOs mainly aim to satisfy donors and achieve agility.

4.7 Relational mechanisms

In this section, the researcher presents the social principles that should exist to reach a successful partnership between an INGO and a CBO. The respondents have been asked to describe how the partnership should be managed and what relational elements it is important to develop. This section took between three and five minutes for each respondent.

4.7.1 Transparency, trust, and respect

More than half of the international and local respondents reported that transparency is important to eliminate corruption. Therefore, they publish details of their financial data and legal position on a regular basis. A country director in an INGO added:

> *"The Jordanian Government also asks the NGOs to publish information about their main partners, board of trustees, and contact details for security reasons".*

Despite the Jordanian Government stipulations regarding transparency, the majority of participants criticised the lack of visibility between the INGOs in Jordan. Ninety percent of respondents referred to confidentiality requirements that prevent them from sharing critical information with their partners. As one INGO summarised:

> *"Our partners do not have the authority to access our database because it is a competitive environment and competitors should not reveal your plans".*

INGOs, as it was mentioned, still organise their logistical activities separately. For instance, some INGOs explained facing situations where feedback about one supplier was *"hard to get"* because of the confidentiality issue, while others cited their unawareness of their international colleagues' inventories. Some CBOs highlighted the role of transparency in enhancing the partnerships' performance, as well as strengthening trust and respect between partners. For instance, one CBO reported that:

> *"We appreciate the INGOs that share information reliably about their organisations, missions, and visions… it increases the feeling of respect and the authentic intention to work in parallel, instead of attempting to impose pre-packaged projects".*

One CBO also reported that trust and control should be managed carefully when both local and international NGOs are trying to establish or sustain an effective collaboration. CBOs viewed the sudden inspections by INGOs of their work as controlling, thus making them feel unreliable. The following quote demonstrates the CBOs' perspective.

> *"It is the INGOs right to evaluate our work...but there should be prior arrangements...they do not have the right to visit us suddenly...this behaviour creates a lack of confidence and doubts about the relationship itself".*

4.7.2 Commitment and relation-specific investment

All respondents believed that respect and trust cannot be achieved without a mutual commitment and understanding of the challenges that could face partners, especially in emergency cases, when neither side has adequate time to strengthen their relationship. One international participant stated that working with committed partners has allowed many NGOs to successfully concentrate on achieving their core objectives, without being disturbed by the funders' conditions. Thus, they are now investing in their volunteers and staff, as they are the best persons to initiate relationships with beneficiaries and deliver suitable aid. Investments, as they suggested, can take several forms such as time, energy, trainings, and workshops.

4.7.3 Sympathy and accountability

The majority reported that relationships cannot be built unless both partners are dedicated to serve humanity. A project manager in an INGO said:

> *"We are sympathetic. We understand what people are going through... we do not need partners who only think about themselves or focus on one approach such as religion".*

> *"It is a waste of time to collaborate with a partner who is racist, or thinking about its personal interests. This partner will definitely lead us into an abyss".*

All the INGOs in this research, also stressed the complexity of the Jordanian and Syrian communities and indicated the need for expertise in dealing with them. They also stated that the local community can define the future of partnerships; wether the INGO and CBO are

permitted to continue working together or should terminate the relationship. For instance, one international respondent said:

> *"Jordan is a religious country and that affects the type of projects implemented. For example, a donor asked to include a self-help group in one of the projects. The local community refuses this idea because it is considered as a strange culture that is totally different from the Jordanian one. Also, they refuse to mix both genders in one session. The project, and the partnerships that we planned to initiate, were doomed to fail. Thus, we did not take a step forward".*

Therefore, most of the respondents stated that partners should be accountable for the decisions they mutually make, while sharing responsibility on how resources should be allocated.

4.7.4 Flexibility and equity

Both local and international participants reported the need for flexibility to meet the partnerships' goals. Completing the mission, they suggested, is more important than how it was achieved. For instance, the influx of the Syrian refugees to the Northern provinces of Jordan forced an INGO and a CBO to switch their operations from planning health training for locals, to organising mobile clinics to serve refugees. New types of workshops and training were organised for both local and international staff, and in five days, both partners tackled the new mission. The local partner commented:

> *"We still have the same objective of serving vulnerable individuals, but with a small modification on the type of beneficiary. We analysed the new situation, and changed the way of implementation. We believe that a degree of adaptation is necessary to reach success".*

The majority of participants also believed that a flexible working environment is associated with mentality of management staff. They stated that open-minded managers will always encourage their partners to participate in joint discussions, and support their organisational sustainability. In an exemplary statement, one international respondent said:

"I have worked for two INGOs. Each one of them had its own cultural and management style, according to which one of them is recognised for its staff flexibility, whereas the other one gives more attention to policies. Local partners were affected differently. For instance, when a CBO submits invoices: the first INGO pays its bills immediately, whereas the second INGO might delay payments for six months. Thus, the local partner of the second INGO was always suffering from a deficit in budget".

Furthermore, many CBOs complained that INGOs sometimes restrict their freedom to make decisions. They also expressed that their decisions are acceptable as long as they do not conflict with international standards. As they summarised:

"There is no equity … we want to think and grow together… but this is still not allowed all the time".

The rigid budget and processes of INGOs have been referred by some local respondents as the reason that decrease INGOs' reliability as effective partners.

Finding 4: Effective partnerships between INGOs and CBOs at the dyadic level are fuelled by transparency, trust, respect, commitment, and relation-specific investment. They are also affected by sympathy and accountability toward beneficiaries alongside flexibility and equity.

4.8   Technical mechanisms

In this section, the researcher presents the technical principles that should be implemented at the beginning, during, and at the end of partnerships. Respondents have been asked to describe how they select their partners, and what tools they often use to sustain and strengthen relationships. They were also asked to give their opinion regarding which principles should be available in the future. This section took between ten and fifteen minutes for each respondent.

4.8.1   Partner selection

Many INGOs reported that the Jordanian Ministry of Social Development is the only authority that has an accurate list of active CBOs in the country. While other INGOs stated that they prefer mapping the available CBOs using their staff for more precise selection, as the ministry list of CBOs is not quality assured. In both cases, meetings are essential to examine the CBOs' eligibility as partners. Some INGOs explained how they examine the CBOs' appropriateness, by stating:

> *"We always start negotiations with the potential partners to clarify each other's mind-set and to explore how similarities and differences could be recruited in a complementary way".*

> *"We ask them about their past missions, internal systems, and main donors. We also visit their premises to make sure of their compatibility with international standards".*

> *"We review their websites and conduct conversations with other NGOs that had joint projects with them, as we prefer to choose a CBO that does not require a huge effort to build its capacity".*

According to many INGOs, involving external mentors and liaison officers in these meetings led to a better selection of partners. INGOs also stated that employing mentors has increased their knowledge about the methodologies that should be followed to build sustainable relationships. A project coordinator in an INGO stated:

> *"We consult external mentors due to their long experiences in the humanitarian field. They share their stories, modify our monitoring systems, and sometimes we let them enhance the CBOs' skills in writing proposals or human resources".*

Other managers demonstrated the external mentors' role this way:

> *"They are part of the local community; they know which CBO is genuine and which one is fake. They can also determine which one fits with our management philosophy".*

The majority also highlighted the time and effort that were saved because of establishing liaison offices in remote areas. Both international and local participants described those local officers, who might share the same tribal background of the served beneficiaries, as

mediators between partners. INGOs expressed the benefits of employing liaison officers this way:

"We see through their eyes; they help us to gain the advocacy of the local community".

A CBO manager referred to this advocacy in this way:

"Establishing a liaison office in a specific area could enhance the regional economy as more jobs could be available for locals".

At the sector level, clusters or sector meetings are organised by the UNHCR to coordinate relief work, eliminate duplications, and exchange information, as has been stated by the research respondents. The majority of INGOs stated that attending sector meetings has also increased their knowledge regarding which CBOs to select, and which type of services to deliver. A project coordinator in an INGO explained:

"Back in the day, we saw CBOs and INGOs delivering similar services in the same area. Because of the duplication of work, huge losses were recorded. For instance, in one case, beneficiaries were able to receive the same type of medicine four or five times per visit from different sources. When donors discovered this issue, they stopped the donations, and partnerships were terminated. Therefore, we appreciate these meetings as we are now able to recognise the NGOs that provide the same services and to select the CBOs that complement our work".

CBOs also stated that attending sector meetings has increased their knowledge about collaboration with INGOs. They explained:

"Many of these INGOs were involved in partnerships with CBOs in Africa, Asia, Latin America, and so forth. Therefore, these leading organisations sometimes advise us about new techniques that should be followed to enhance communication with our partners. It is awesome".

4.8.2   The partnership agreement

The majority of INGOs and CBOs consider the partnership agreement a necessity to avoid misunderstanding during implementation, and to clarify when a partnership could be terminated. One INGO stated that joint programmes are sometimes executed in phases, allowing an INGO to end the agreement if implementation is not considered satisfactory.

However, a lack in well-structured agreements was criticised by many local participants, as they stated:

> *"There is a clear difference between the type of agreements that Royal CBOs and small CBOs sign. As a small CBO, we do not sign real agreements. In fact, our agreements are just a piece of paper that informs us of the conditions that we should comply with... I think it is written to threaten us".*

> *"Even large CBOs sign short to medium-term agreements that extend up to three years, instead of long-term ones. It is a frustrating situation".*

Therefore, long-term agreements were claimed by many CBOs as crucial for avoiding the stress and delay they face during the search for new partners, or when renewing existing contracts.

4.8.3   Monitoring and evaluation

More than half of the INGOs stated that they assess the CBOs' work in order to avoid poor performance. They identified the Participatory Rapid Appraisal (PRA) tool to be used when searching for potential partners. A project coordinator in an INGO demonstrated that the PRA divides the assessment criteria into two parts, essential and recommended criteria. Overall, a period of twelve days is required to explore the potential partners' organisational identities, management systems, and capacities through field visits, surveys, and screening forms. Reports are also required at all stages, as stated by different NGOs. Reports differ based on the INGO's requirements and the partnership scale. A logistics manager in an INGO stated:

> *"We ask for weekly, monthly, mid-year, quarterly, and end -of -year reports based on the partnership scale; low, medium, or high. At the beginning of the partnership, we consider the CBO as a high-risk partner. Thus, we ask for weekly reports. In contrast, medium to low risk partners submit reports every three months".*

> *"We also ask for field visit, project completion, and project summary reports".*

Many CBOs, on the other hand, complained that the majority of their international partners do not allow them to contribute to the monitoring and evaluation process. Some CBOs also

pointed to their strong monitoring systems, as many of them own monitoring and evaluation (M&E) departments to develop and manage the required Key Performance Indicators (KPIs). Three local managers highlighted:

> "We believe that we have the best tools, at least, our tools do what they were created for…not like the international ones, which are sometimes not applicable in the context".

> "We organise focus groups to collect feedback, reflect the project requirements, and develop the right KPIs".

Many CBOs also reported the risk that the INGOs create by neglecting their role in monitoring partnerships, by stating that:

> "INGOs sometimes monitor the wrong aspects. So, when the outcomes are not as they were anticipated, they start blaming us, and as expected, they delete us from their potential partners' list in the end".

Other participants praised the CBOs that monitor their international partners indirectly, as they said:

> "Some CBOs ask questions in an indirect way, such as if they are overspending, underspending, and so forth. Thus, they make sure that their partners are satisfied, and the partnerships are ongoing".

In addition, some INGOs cited that feedbacks and complaint tools, such as the balance scorecard and report cards, are important to gauge the partnerships' strength. According to INGOs, the balance scorecard is developed to gather information on issues such as commitment toward end goals, satisfaction, trust, listening, quality of services, decision making, and flexibility of partners. The statement below demonstrates the mechanism of action of balance scorecards.

> "Information is collected by interviewing beneficiaries, as well as some of the local and international staff. The outcomes are then identified and diagnosed, and solutions are recommended".

The majority of CBOs criticised the fact that such checks are only applied when INGOs feel that they are necessary.

4.8.4 Information technology and decision-support systems

Many INGOs mentioned that UNHCR-Jordan had launched an online tool called *Activity Info* to assist their partners in gathering, managing, analysing, and planning data, instead of depending on the traditional means of swapping files online that sometimes shows a high possibility of mistakes and delays (Inter-Sector Working Group, 2016). Other INGOs regarded the *Activity Info* as a decision-making tool, stating:

> *"Activity Info helps us in setting the yearly budget, deciding when to pre-position inventories, and where to build capacities, in what amounts and sections".*

Two CBOs also stated that they are now using a decision-making system that allows them to submit proposals from the first try. A programme coordinator explained:

> *"If the data entry is wrong, we receive a notification regarding the required modifications. For instance, if we apply for a project with a budget of 100,000 US dollars including five vehicles, the system might refuse our primary request, and suggest that three vehicles are more suitable for the 100,000 US dollar budget".*

Despite the existence of such sophisticated systems, the majority cited that they still submit proposals via fax and e-mails. According to local participants, advanced systems are only allocated for Royal CBOs and INGOs, whereas small CBOs are neglected. INGOs expressed the reason for the ongoing use of traditional communication technologies:

> *"We are not planning to stay here for ever, so what is the point of purchasing such expensive systems".*
> *"The small geographic size of Jordan plays an essential role in ignoring such a system. For instance, exchanging hard documents with our local partners who are located in remote areas takes no more than two to three hours by car. We think it is cheaper to use the traditional means, especially given that we do not exchange documents on a daily basis".*
> *"We can manage the partnerships without having complicated sharing systems. This is because we implement 90% of projects solely., while only ten percent are implemented jointly with CBOs".*

The majority of INGOs and CBOs also reported the Registration and Assistance Information System (RAIS*)* (UNHCR innovation, n.d), as the main source of humanitarian

data in Jordan, relied on by all governmental and non-governmental websites as a reference. Table 4-13 represents some of the information technologies that are used by the INGOs and CBOs in Jordan.

Table 4-13: The communication means used by INGOs and CBOs in Jordan

Communication means	Description	INGO	CBO
Action Aid International	Open information website	X	X*
OXFAM	Open information website	X	X*
RAIS	Open information website that is used to coordinate the humanitarian work as well as for reporting	X	X
Activity Info	A decision-making system	X	X
Net-Suit, Trello	An online account to upload reports and exchange Information about the existing NGOs	X	
Emails, fax, phone-calls, meetings, reports	Traditional means of information exchange	X	X
UNHCR-website	An online source that includes updated reports, statistics, and news about the situation in Jordan regarding the Syrian crisis	X	X
Reliefweb.org	An online source that includes updated reports, statistics, and news about the humanitarian work around the world	X	X*
Online-proposal-submission**	An online decision making system for submitting proposal	X	X**

* Used by large CBOs (e.g. Royal CBOs) only
** The programme's name was not stated by the respondents

4.8.5 Clusters

Some of the international participants discussed the importance of starting formal collaborations with the private sector. Many of them agreed that long-term contracts with suppliers who have the capability to provide better prices and high quality items with a shorter lead-time, should be the next step. They also stated that it is better to select those

suppliers based on their compatibility with UN policy to reduce corruption. A logistics manager in an INGO demonstrated:

> "Sometimes, we waste time searching for reliable suppliers. We have also faced experiences when we were under pressure to purchase low-quality, expensive items to accomplish projects on the agreed dates".

> "However, failure to meet the project requirements will lead to unsatisfied donors, unsustainable donations, and non-renewable partnership agreements".

Different international respondents, on the other hand, believe that purchasing items through tenders has allowed them to serve more beneficiaries with the same budget. Therefore, they dissuade their organisations from developing long-term agreements. Three INGOs expressed:

> "Since prices are not constant…we prefer to publish tenders to get the best prices and qualities".

> "Donor satisfaction is our main goal. So, being able to design more projects with fewer resources will strengthen our position as a superior organisation".

> "Clusters are more beneficial in Syria, especially the logistics ones, because of the political and economic disturbances that put NGOs under pressure to buy anything from anyone at any price".

One INGO stated that the possibility of establishing clusters in Jordan depends on the type of services provided by the international and local partners. The international manager explained:

> "Establishing clusters is a good idea, but it depends on the NGOs' type of work. For instance, if they specialise in constructions, then this idea will work, in situations where the required items can be purchased in bulks and stored, even when prices change, no losses will affect suppliers nor NGOs. However, in case of commodities, I think it is impossible to initiate clusters, in situations where it is too risky to purchase the commodities in bulk and fix their prices, since they cannot be stored for a long time due to their short shelf life".

All the local participants agreed that initiating logistics clusters is not necessary, since the political situation of the country is stable. A logistics manager in a Royal CBO explained:

> "At the beginning of the crisis, we all took reckless purchasing decisions. However, the demand is more predictable now, so we have plenty of time to discuss prices and publish tenders".

The local participants, especially the small CBOs, also believe that establishing clusters is not beneficial for their organisations, because of their limited contribution to the purchasing process. Even when they participate, they still follow the INGOs' procurement procedures. Table 4-14 sets out the conflicts in opinion between the UNHCR, INGOs, and CBOs regarding the importance of initiating clusters in Jordan.

Table 4-14: The conflict in opinions regarding the feasibility of creating clusters in Jordan

UNHCR's opinion	INGOs' opinion	CBOs' opinion
They encourage the idea of initiating long-term partnerships with suppliers in each sector. They already applied this idea in other countries around the world. Those suppliers are ready to respond to emergencies	There is a disparity in perspectives, where some INGOs encourage the idea of clusters because of the effectiveness and efficiency that will result. On the other hand, some respondents stated that it is a competitive environment, where efficiency will only be achieved by allowing the suppliers to compete each other	Most of the CBOs are implementers for pre-designed projects. Therefore, none of them will benefit financially from the clusters idea

4.8.6 Outsourcing

4.8.6.1 INGOs' and CBOs' perceptions of the outsourcing of warehousing

During the interviews, no shared warehouses were mentioned. In fact, the majority of INGOs outsource their operations or utilise their local partners' warehouses, if they exist. Some INGOs expressed:

> *"We might allocate part of the fund to improve our local partners' warehouses as part of the capacity-building process, but we prefer to outsource, especially when extra capacities are required".*

> *"The CBOs' inability to comply fully with the international standards has made outsourcing a better choice".*

One international interviewee, on the other hand, believed in the importance of establishing a central warehouse, to be shared by all CBOs and INGOs, since it will help in reducing the

administrative costs (e.g. annual leasing cost) that are paid separately by organisations. The logistics manager demonstrated:

> *"For sure the cost of building such a huge warehouse will be high, but this cost will be paid once and divided between organisations ... This warehouse will be insured and managed by a higher authority...then, we will not need regular inventory checking, since it will be the duty of the higher authority "*.

The majority of CBOs agreed on the idea of establishing a shared central warehouse, as they feel that sharing a warehouse will enhance visibility between NGOs, and empower them all to share resources, thus serving more people and improving reputations, as well as increasing funding. Some CBOs also stated:

> *"Sharing a central warehouse will allow us to increase our knowledge regarding warehousing, international standards, techniques, and policies"*.

4.8.6.2 INGOs' and CBOs' perceptions of the outsourcing of transportation

During the interviews, no shared transportation was identified. In fact, INGOs deliver aid individually through 3PL providers or their local partners. Some international respondents stressed the importance of dealing with a shared 3PL provider that consolidates orders from all CBOs and INGOs to minimise losses, increase efficiency, and deliver on time. A logistics manager in an INGO explained:

> *"Since each truck we send to camps needs a security permit, we can save time and cost by consolidating orders"*.

While interviewing participants from the health sector, many of them stated that they are dealing with such a 3PL provider. A project coordinator in an INGO said:

> *"This 3PL is originally a CBO that consolidates, stores, and delivers items across borders on behalf of the INGOs that are located in Jordan, and deliver aid to Syria"*.

Therefore, this 3PL was unknown by other respondents who only serve beneficiaries in Jordan. The majority of CBOs, on the other hand, believed that sharing transportation will

have no impact on their organisations. While one local manager countered this perspective as he stated:

> *"Sharing transportation will allow the local and international partners to utilise the extra money that remained from consolidating orders to implement more projects, or even to enhance their relationships".*

Finding 5: INGOs and CBOs need to organise and attend meetings in order to develop effective partnerships. They also need to agree on the partnership's objectives and understand their roles. To ensure that the agreed objectives have been achieved, INGOs monitor and revise the CBOs' work at all stages. To facilitate the interaction between their staff, INGOs and CBOs rely on information technology while specialised systems are sometimes employed to speed up the decision-making process, clusters are beneficial for the local and international partners who are operating during the response phase of a disaster. INGOs often outsource their logistics activities because CBOs lack the adequate capacities.

4.9   An exemplar case

The following example represents a partnership between an INGO that specialises in distributing relief core items, and a Royal CBO that works in food distribution. This example gives a comprehensive image of how collaboration is typically started and managed in such cases. Interviews took between 40 and 60 minutes for each respondent.

In 2011, the INGO announced its willingness to collaborate with a CBO because of the donor's requirement to deliver aid through a local partner. The potential CBOs were determined through the Ministry of Social Development. Meetings were then arranged to evaluate the CBOs' assets, internal policies, logistical capacities, and previous projects. After selecting the proper CBO and before signing the agreement, a series of meetings were organised to negotiate the responsibilities of each partner and to identify the capacities to

be improved. They also discussed their organisational goals and values to examine their compatibility. The CBO manager pointed out:

> *"We asked the International NGO about its objectives to identify any similarities, we were 80% identical and that was enough for both of us".*

Later, a one-year agreement was signed. The INGO stated that this agreement is renewable whenever they can obtain new funds. A project manager in the INGO explained:

> *"We are long-term partners because both of us proved credibility and commitment to work, but we sign new contracts every year because funds are limited and unpredictable".*

In such collaborations, the role of each partner varies depending on the donation type. The CBO reported that they are responsible for identifying beneficiaries, and managing the logistical activities such as packaging, transportation and distribution, in case of in-kind donations. Alongside the previously mentioned logistical activities, procurement and production are needed in case of cash assistance. The INGO, on the other hand, determined its responsibilities in providing cash or in-kind donations, as well as conducting periodic inspections of assets, processes and 3PLs along with their local partner. Regarding the monitoring process, both INGO and CBO mentioned:

> *"We conduct two phases of inspections; the first phase is managed by the CBO's quality assurance department, whereas the second phase is implemented through a mediator on behalf of the INGO".*
>
> *"Furthermore, a set of KPIs are used by the INGO to measure the partnership performance, such as communication efficiency, under- spending, over-spending, target achievement, and meeting productivity".*

For better monitoring, the CBO stated that they are also obligated to send frequent reports to the INGO through emails, phone calls, and fax.

When funding is received, both partners meet to agree on a spending plan. Drafts are then checked by the CBO's procurement department, followed by the finance and auditing departments. The CBO reported that the quantities of required items are calculated using

the Geographic Information System (GIS) that offers the option of filtration for more than 200 variables. For instance, the CBO chairman stated:

> *"When the international partner asks us to serve the families that comprise five members and have at least one member suffering from drug addiction, cases are classified in less than five minutes because of the advanced technology systems that we use".*

The categories of beneficiaries and budget are reported again to the INGO for a final approval. In the second phase, tenders are published by the CBO, and vendors are asked to provide technical and financial offers along with samples to examine eligibility. In case of conflicts in requirements between the CBO and INGO, more negotiations take place. The CBO manager explained:

> *"Our partner is looking for speed, but we focus on quality... However, this clash in priorities does not restrict the partnership. In fact, we are flexible and listen to our partner's suggestions. Thus, we are now dealing with better vendors who are supplying high-quality goods in a shorter lead-time".*

The supply chain manager of the CBO added:

> *"Sometimes, the INGO has specific requirements that should be followed; even if these requirements are old and do not fit our system, we modify the system and integrate their requirements".*

When the implementation phase starts, the CBO uses a 3PL to manage all the logistical activities starting from production until the delivery state. The supply chain manager of the CBO explained:

> *"We are aware of the break-even point and we know when the loss or gain starts...we did not reach the gain level yet. When our work is ten times greater, then it is a good idea to build a shared warehouse".*

The CBO also stated that all the outsourced warehouses are linked directly to the procurement department through an Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) software for more visibility.

The partnership between the Royal CBO and INGO is a bi-directional relationship, where the INGO relies on its local partner to implement more activities with fewer resources and shorter lead time. In contrast, the Royal CBO depends on its international partner to attract funders, as well as to guarantee sustainability and a good reputation. Capacity-building was also mentioned as a mutual motivation for collaboration, with both partners emphasising the importance of exchanging experiences in order to grow. In this partnership, the INGO reported that capacity-building is represented in the form of joint trainings, mentoring, workshops, seminars, and scholarships.

4.10 Synthesis of the findings

In Jordan, *"civil society has played a small role in social development, due in part to a history of state control of this sector"* (Libal & Harding, 2011, p.167). Given the refugee crisis in Jordan, the international community started to support CBOs to assist vulnerable people. Several challenges have appeared and affected humanitarian work in Jordan, such as inadequate capacities of CBOs, limited funding, power asymmetry, hidden agendas, and governmental restrictions. Therefore, INGOs started to shift funds into the large CBOs that demonstrated their eligibility as trustworthy and committed partners (e.g. Royal CBOs), for more effective and efficient partnerships. Those CBOs are distinguished by their experienced leadership and skilled negotiators who knew how to overcome the rigidity in relationships, while others are recognised for their strong private funding systems, robust relationships with the Jordanian ministries, and tribal connections. These combined factors allow the building of stable and independent institutions that have the power to participate in the decision-making process.

During interviews, working in harmony has been reported as the major reason for outstanding partnerships between large/Royal CBOs and INGOs. These CBO are aware of international standards, policies, and code of ethics. They also respect their international

partners' missions, without neglecting the need for modifications when they are required. INGOs are flexible and ready to adapt to the new requirements. They are also aware of the need to follow an organisational culture that offers a comfortable working environment for their staff and partners to enhance loyalty and decrease turnovers. Figure 4.5 represents the partnership mechanism between Royal or large CBO and INGO.
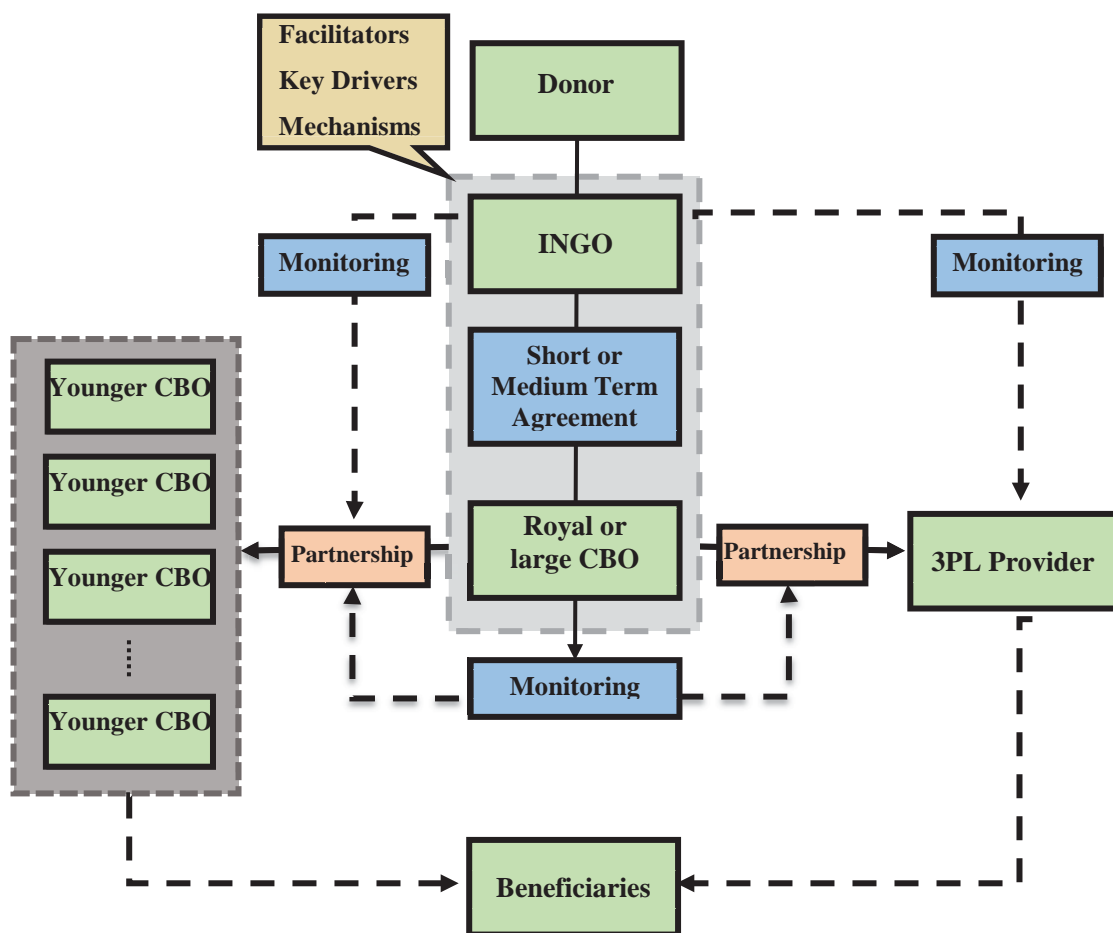
Figure 4.5: The partnership mechanism of Royal or large CBO and INGO in Jordan

In this research, INGOs recognised the essential role of the younger CBOs, volunteers, and 3PL providers in enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of their operations, thus enabling the delivery of high-quality services to their beneficiaries. Therefore, collaborating with large CBOs (e.g. short- or medium- term partnerships) became the target since most of them are embedded in complex networks of younger CBOs and volunteers that act as service providers. In fact, they are win-win partnerships. On the one hand, the large CBOs and INGOs can steer their resources toward designing more projects instead of developing and monitoring new partnerships. On the other hand, younger CBOs have the opportunity to become eligible institutions in the eyes of INGOs and Ministry of Social Development. A combination of facilitators, key drivers, and mechanisms should exist to allow effective partnerships between INGOs and Large CBOs (Figure 4.5). A detailed description of the facilitators, key drivers, and mechanisms from the INGOs' and CBOs' perspectives is presented in Figure 4.6. It is important to mention that both Figures 4.5 and 4.6 represent the ideal situation, which is normally followed by large CBOs and their partners.
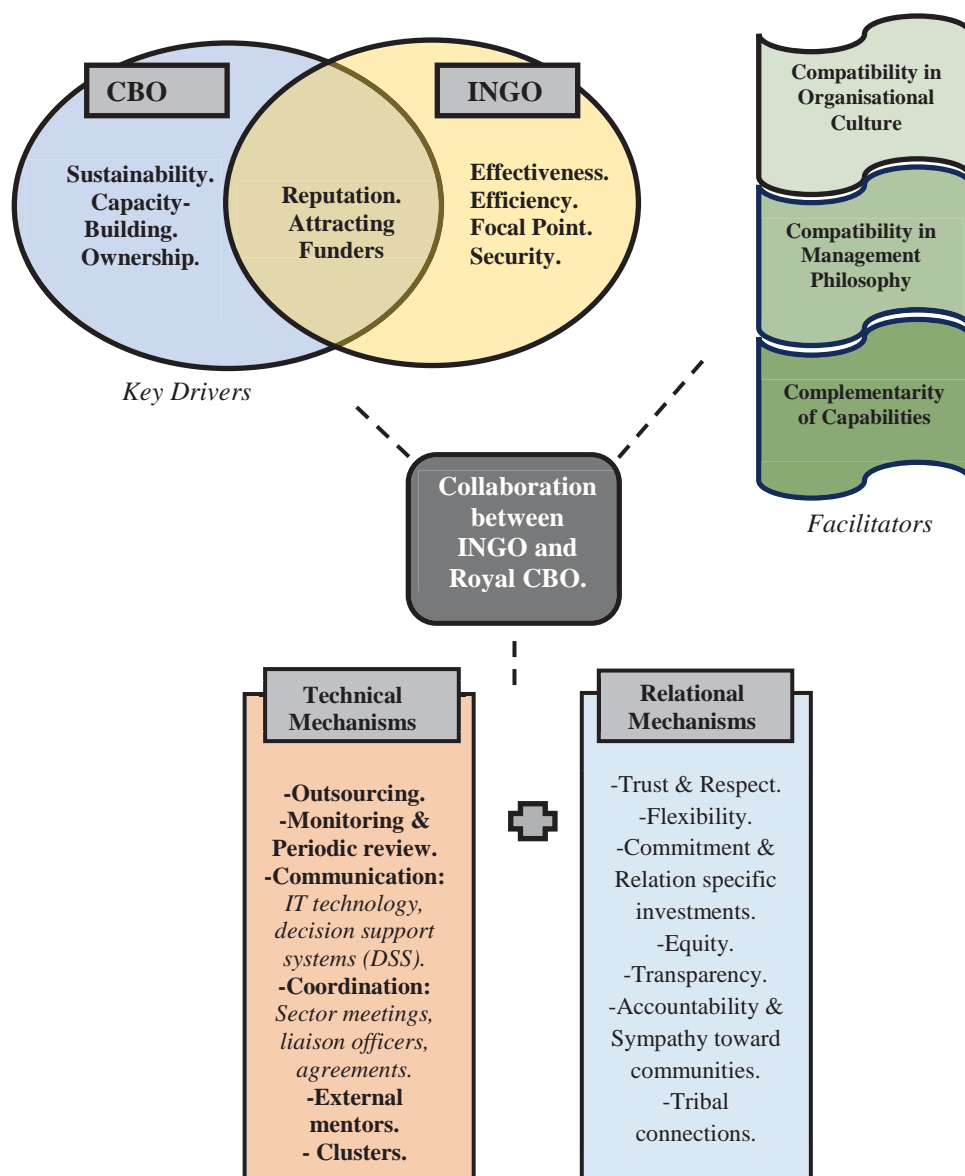
Figure 4.6: The key elements of effective collaboration between Royal or large CBO and INGO in Jordan

Each mechanism is considered a tool that contributes to achieving one or more of the partners' key motivations. In terms of technical mechanisms, the findings show that effectiveness and efficiency, for example, can be achieved through clusters, information technologies (IT), and outsourcing. Partners can also benefit from the monitoring process, the competencies of external mentors, and meetings to learn what works, which could lead to genuine capacity-building, organisational sustainability, and ownership. Furthermore, reporting a good performance will enhance the organisation's reputation and attract more

funders. The findings also show that, regardless of the role that outsourcing and IT play in maintaining the safety of humanitarian operations and host countries respectively, the security driver was rarely expressed as a key motivation. Table 4-15 shows the correlation between technical mechanisms and key drivers. Tables 4-16 and 4-17 illustrate these correlations.

Table 4-15: The correlations between technical mechanisms and key drivers of INGO-CBO partnership

Key drivers	Technical mechanisms							
	Clusters	Liaison officers	IT & DSS	Agreements	Meetings	Outsourcing	External mentors	Monitoring & evaluation
Effectiveness	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Efficiency	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Sustainability		X			X	X	X	X
Ownership				X				
Reputation					X			X
Attracting donors					X			X
Capacity building					X	X	X	X
Security		X	X			X		

Table 4-16: A description of the correlations between technical mechanisms and key drivers of INGO-CBO partnership (Part 1)

Technical mechanisms	Key drivers			
	Attracting donors	**Reputation**	**Security**	**Ownership**
Liaison officers	-	-	They help the INGOs in getting the support of the local community for their causes, which means fewer strikes and safer operations	-
IT and decision making systems	-	-	Exchanging reliable information about the NGOs' work, goals, legal positions and so forth, will help the government to maintain the country's security	-
Agreements	-	-	-	Partners can agree upon handover of the ownership to the local partners. They also can agree upon the methodologies and processes that should be followed to achieve that
Meetings	In sector meetings, partners can boast of their achievements to attract donors	In sector meetings, identifying outstanding partners in terms of performance will enhance their reputation	-	-
Outsourcing	-	-	Using 3PLs will guarantee more secure operations, since these providers are more knowledgeable on how to eliminate losses and avoid risks	-
Monitoring and evaluation system	Measuring partnerships and reporting a good performance will allow more funding	Assessing the reputational risk is necessary at all stages of the partnership, since all partners have concerns whether their reputation will be damaged because of the collaboration or not	-	-

Table 4-17: A description of the correlations between the technical mechanisms and key drivers of INGO-CBO partnership (Part 2)

Technical mechanisms	Key drivers			
	Effectiveness	**Efficiency**	**Capacity Building**	**Sustainability**
Clusters	The standby capacities will allow partners to respond rabidly to sudden events	The shared agreements will allow partners to get competitive, lower prices because of the possibility of purchasing in bulk, or based on fixed prices	-	-
Liaison officers	Their local knowledge facilitates communication with vulnerable people, which leads to an acceleration in implementation	The few expenses of the liaison officers in comparison to expenses of the international staff results in more efficient operations	-	Their local knowledge also helps the INGOs to determine which projects are accepted by the local community, which means sustainable operations
IT & decision making systems	Sharing information will speed up the partners' response and make it more suitable to the current situation	It will help in eliminating losses and inefficient use of resources that result from making wrong decisions	-	-
Agreements	Identifying the roles and responsibilities of each organisation will reduce conflicts in perspectives and misunderstanding between partners	Spending plans could be agreed on advance, which allow partners to avoid over-spending	-	-
Meetings	In meetings, partners exercise brainstorming to suggest joint solutions to complex issues. They can also work together on planning joint strategies or any factors that could impact on the effectiveness of the collaboration. In sector meetings, INGOs and CBOs can exchange feedback about suppliers instead of spending time searching for a reliable one.	Financial challenges can be addressed during meetings, and solutions can be suggested.	The joint learning that partners exercise in meetings will enable them to build their capacities.	Staff and information exchange to acquire new techniques, expertise, and so forth play an important role in strengthening partners' capabilities, which normally leads to sustainability.

To be continued on the next page.

Technical mechanisms	Key drivers			
	Effectiveness	**Efficiency**	**Capacity Building**	**Sustainability**
Outsourcing	Outsourcing maximises effectiveness. For instance, when borders are closed, some 3PLs have the authority to reach crossing points and deliver aid to beneficiaries	Outsourcing is sometimes cheaper since orders can be consolidated	It enhances the partners' capabilities. For instance, training could be provided by a third party for upskilling	This key driver is associated with empowerment. When capabilities and capacities of partners improve, the opportunity to maintain their sustainability will increase
External Mentors	-	-	They teach both local and international partners methodologies that improve their partnerships. In other words, they build capacities and exchange knowledge	This key driver is also linked to empowerment. When the capabilities of partners are enhanced, the opportunity to maintain their sustainability will increase
Monitoring and Evaluation system	-	-	Understanding the effect of collaboration is an important part of project and partnership development, since both partners can learn from the obstacles and successes they have faced	This key driver is also linked to empowerment. Learning from the challenges will lead to sustainable partnerships and sustainable organisations

Similarly, the relational mechanisms were introduced to help partners to achieve their key motivation (Figure 4.8) alongside limiting existing challenges. The respect mechanism, for instance, plays a major role in creating a comfortable working environment in which partners treat each other equally. Commitment and relation-specific investment, on the other hand, are necessary to overcome the limited funding issue, where partners can benefit from skilled volunteers in accomplishing the critical and costly tasks, thus allowing sustainable aid operations. The findings also show that the issues of hidden agendas and poor

implementation, can be reduced by mechanisms of transparency and mutual accountability toward the humanitarian case. This is because the clarity of the strategic and operational plans of partners usually leads to a wise and equal distribution of resources and responsibilities. Besides that, flexibility was introduced to address the rigid restrictions of donors, host governments, and NGO managers. Table 4-18 shows the correlation between relational mechanisms and key drivers. Table 4-19 highlights the major outcomes that are expected to be achieved as a result of adopting the previously mentioned relational mechanisms.

Table 4-18: The correlations between the relational mechanisms and key drivers of INGO-CBO partnership

Relational mechanisms								
Key drivers	Transparency	Trust & respect	Commitment	Relation specific investment	Flexibility	Equity	Sympathy & Neutral	Accountability
Effectiveness	X	X	X	X	X			X
Efficiency	X		X	X	X			X
Sustainability	X	X	X	X	X		X	
Ownership		X				X		X
Reputation	X	X	X		X		X	X
Attracting donors	X	X	X		X		X	X
Capacity building			X	X	X	X		X
Security	X	X						X

Table 4-19: The Jordanian CBOs and INGOs' point of views regarding expected outcomes from implementing the relational mechanisms in partnerships

CBOs' perspectives	Relational mechanisms	INGOs' perspectives
"Comfortable environment to cooperate and guarantee that decisions are compatible with the community's needs" *"Transparency sometimes lead to security risks so mutual decisions must be made about what type of data to announce"* *"Transparency means no confidentiality, where CBOs can contact their international partners easily and guarantee they respond to all criticisms and listen to feedbacks"*	**Transparency**	*"Transparency will enhance our maturity and understanding of relationships with CBOs"*
"Trust leads to a renewal of the partnership agreement" *"We define respect as the INGOs ability to support us without deforming our legitimate work"* *"Respect means that INGOs treat us in an equal way"* *"Taking the cultural differences into account during designing development practices is a form of respect"*	**Trust, Respect, and Commitment**	*"Trust and commitment lead to deeper engagement between partners"* *"Cohesive commitment means that once decisions are made, local partners and our staff should accept these decisions and follow them"*
"The ideal result of investments (e.g. new skills) is building both partners' capacities to develop future programmes and enhance the sustainability of CBOs and INGOs beyond the partnership"	**Relation specific investments**	Similar perspectives as CBOs

To be continued on the next page.

CBOs' perspectives	Relational mechanisms	INGOs' perspectives
Similar perspectives as INGOs	**Equity**	*"Ownership is the result of equity. Allowing CBOs to participate in decision-making will enhance their capabilities in negotiations and increase their knowledge about international policies, techniques, and standards. At the end, they will be able to depend on themselves"*
Similar perspectives as INGOs	**Sympathy and Neutrality**	*"Serving more people is the outcome of being impartial to race, religion, or gender"*
"As long as we share a collective accountability, then we are able to ensure the credibility of the humanitarian sector"	**Accountability**	*"Accountability is a synonym of responsibility. Accountability obligates us to spend funds and distribute the available resources wisely"*
"Efficiency is the outcome of flexibility. Being supported by a flexible partner will allow us to skip the long routine practices and receive our financial rights"	**Flexibility**	*"Effectiveness is the common outcome of flexibility. Concentrating on the objectives rather than methods will accelerate aid delivery"*

The 5ˢᵗ Chapter

DISCUSSION

5   Discussion

5.1   The challenges that impact the dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs in Jordan

The challenges from the findings differ slightly from the literature review. The main difference is presented in the external challenges that describe the access to reliable and sufficient data about the disaster as rare (Day et al., 2009; Schulz & Blecken, 2010). Many respondents stated that they did not face complexities regarding data availability or accuracy during the response or recovery phases, since United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)-Jordan alongside the Jordanian Government are responsible for regulating the access of refugees across borders, as well as updating and sharing the related data among the humanitarian stakeholders. Additionally, the lengthy presence of the UNHCR in the region over seventy years, as they had served the Palestinian refugees followed by the Iraqis and Syrian refugees, allowed better estimates of beneficiaries' needs.

The restrictive political environment of the host countries and its negative impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of the humanitarian work, on the other hand, was criticised by both the research respondents and the study by Sommers and Watson Jr. (2000). At the beginning of the Syrian crisis, the Jordanian Government authorised the INGOs to perform in Jordan with few restrictions on their work. Unfortunately, many INGOs spent funds on administration and designing projects that did not suit the context. Thus, the Government imposed restrictions such as frequent evaluation reports and customs on donations to monitor the INGOs' work as well as to support the country's unstable economy. Furthermore, many of the international respondents complained about the number and experiences of the CBOs involved, as highlighted previously by Van Wassenhove (2006). In Jordan, around five CBOs are classified as qualified NGOs. These CBOs were established by the Royal Family, which allowed them to emerge as reliable organisations

that have the power to contribute in the decision-making process, while the remaining CBOs are considered tools to facilitate the INGOs' work. Thus, few authentic capability-building initiatives were observed in Jordan.

The organisational challenges which emerged in the empirical findings were linked to the managerial capabilities and bureaucratic behaviour of NGOs, as well as to staff turnovers. Both INGOs and McEntire's (2002) study showed that a lack of management capacity is the main reason behind instability in partnerships. In Jordan, many local managers lack experiences regarding building robust relations with donors or writing proposals. The root cause of this problem stems from the simplified requirements for establishing a CBO, where no restrictions regarding experiences in the humanitarian field are required, as stated by the majority of respondents. Many CBOs, on the other hand, demonstrated that the bureaucratic behaviour of partners that could result in work delay is what led to instable partnerships as confirmed by Akhtar et al. (2012). Although the bureaucracy issue was widely expressed by CBOs, some INGOs stated that they have also been affected by the inflexibility of their local partners' systems that endangers the sustainability of partnerships (Campbell & Hartnett, 2005). For instance, one international project manager stated: *"some local partners have a very restrictive working environment as they are tied by the hierarchy. So, when something does not go well, we cannot skip the front-line staff and just contact the upper-management"*. The issue of personnel turnovers was also represented as a challenge by the research participants and the study by Rawal et al. (2005). Many participants clarified that their missions are managed by guidelines that new staff find easy to follow, but that they are facing a problem related to the long-time needed to prioritise the pending work and re-strengthen the relationships between the new staff and stakeholders.

The challenges related to donors have appeared strongly in the collected data. The majority of participants complained about the limited funding that generates competitions over the insufficient resources. This concern is also noted in the literature (Taylor et al., 2012). The NGOs' attempts to secure donations have been described by Moshtari (2013) as the main reason behind the alteration from establishing authentic partnerships into working hard to survive. Most of the participants also criticised the pre-designed projects that are imposed by donors, and that prevent their organisations from creating effective partnerships (Steets et al., 2010). The Jordanian Government, for instance, has refused different programmes such as the one that supports homosexual refugees, since these programmes contradict the traditions and religious beliefs of the Jordanian community. Even when the pre-designed programmes match the beneficiaries' needs and traditions, they are mostly short-term projects, up to one year, which put the NGOs under pressure to search for new donors continuously.

Finally, the findings stressed the negative impact that incompatibility or dissimilarity in operations, strategies, power, and process can have on partnership's performance, as, was previously pointed out in Zoraster's (2006) study. The majority of INGOs cited the absence of mutuality in terms of operations led to strategic complications such as low trust and commitment. Moreover, many CBOs stated that the absence of mutuality in terms of power led to an unclear definition of responsibilities, miscommunication, and processes failure. These recognitions have been confirmed by several scholars who emphasised the necessity of defining the inter-organisational challenges for more effective relationships (Van Wassenhove, 2006; Thévenaz and Resodihardjo, 2010; Tchouakeu et al., 2011; Dolinskaya et al., 2011; Akhtar et al., 2012).

Figure 5.1 represents a summary of the challenges that were noted within the findings in regards to the categories of challenges which were identified in the literature review.
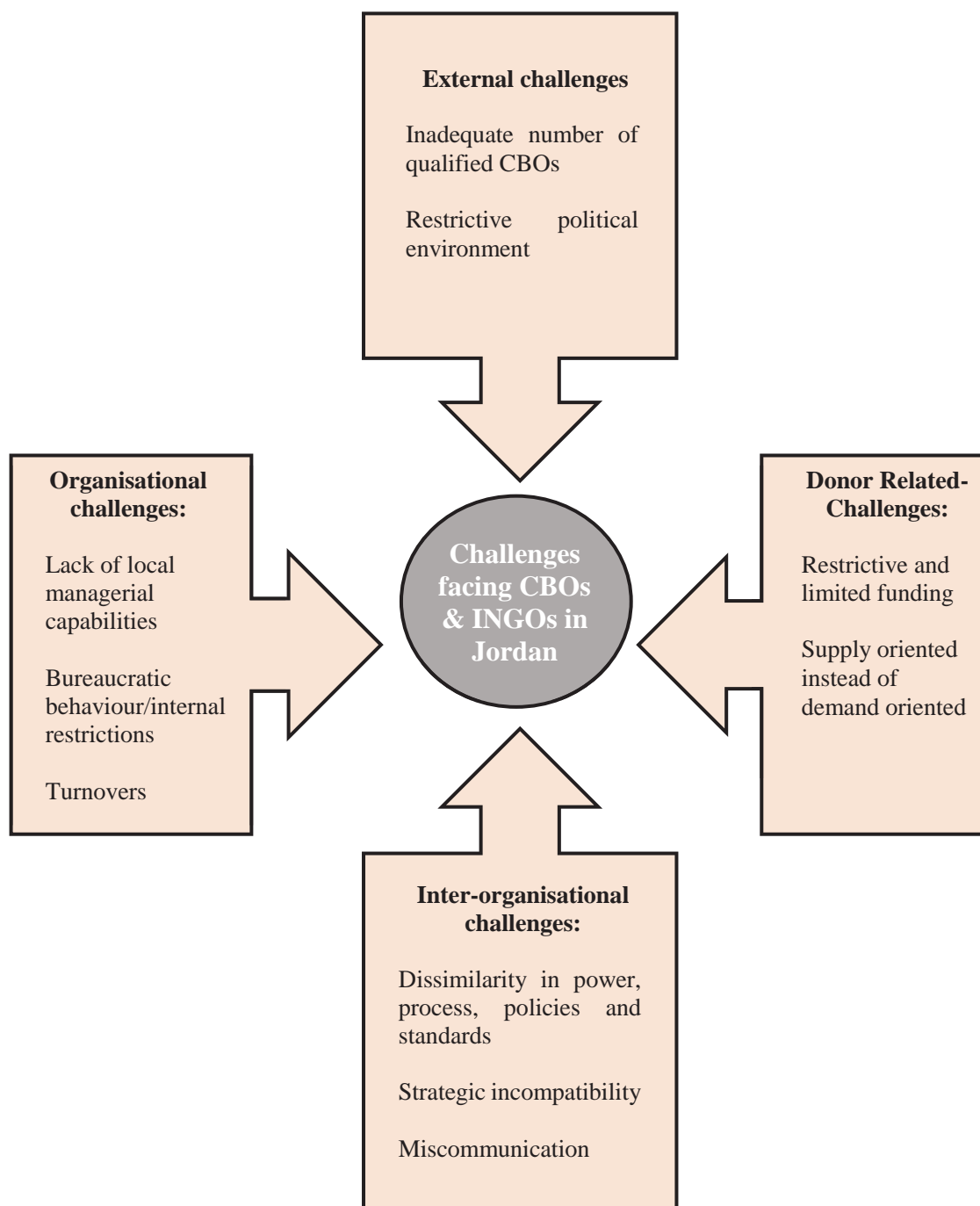
Figure 5.1: The key challenges affecting the partnerships between INGOs and CBOs in Jordan

5.2   The revised NGO partnership model

The conceptual model of this research is built on the relationship model of Lambert and Knemeyer (2004) which investigates the elements that lead to an effective partnership between two organisations. This model is a combination of four distinct elements: facilitators, key drivers, components, and outcomes. Both key drivers and facilitators enable the decision to establish or modify a partnership. Key drivers indicate the motivations that encourage two organisations to start a partnership. Facilitators point out the supportive factors that improve relationship growth. Components refer to the practices that promote a sustainable partnership. Finally, outcomes are the partnership results (Balland & Sobhi, 2013). In this research, the component element was divided into technical and relational mechanisms.

The empirical findings reflected a complex working environment. The original conceptual model has, therefore, been modified as illustrated in Figure 5.2. The researcher had concentrated at the beginning on what were assumed to be the six primary mechanisms (Information and communication technology (ICT), decision support systems (DSS), capability-building initiatives, trust, commitment, and relation-specific investment) to promote effective partnerships between INGOs and CBOs. The findings made it clear that the earlier mechanisms: (a) inter-organisational governance / collaborative network of profit and non-profit organisations as well as (b) personnel connections were underrated. The findings pointed to the necessity of designing a shared platform that merges the valuable resources of the different humanitarian actors to reduce uncertainty of demand, thus allowing cost-efficient and service-effective operations. This confirms that innovative supply chain solutions can be delivered through integrating technology providers, resources, 3PL providers, and consulting companies (Coyle et al., 2003; Love, 2004; Frost & Sullivan, 2005). These strategic alliances that leverage the competencies, tactics, and

global reach to attain better services and cost reductions have been referred to as 4PL providers (Love, 2004; Frost & Sullivan, 2005). The advantages of working within a cluster or inter-organisational network were observed first in the commercial sector, over both open and closed markets (Thorelli, 1986; Powell, 1990). For instance, it is well known that the successful economies of Japan, Italy, and East Asia have been driven by the networks of small-company contractors (Mathews, 1994). These inter-organisational networks exceed the common sub-contracting pyramids such as 3PL providers into the practice of product improvement (Kenney & Florida, 1994). Similarly, many NGOs have been pioneers in using inter-companies' networks to enhance the performance of the humanitarian sector over the past twenty years (Kamensky, 2014). Air Link platform is one of the collaborative network that matches NGOs with its needs of air transport (Dolinskaya et al., 2011). Other respondents suggested that the collaborative network should be monitored by a form of governance for better outcomes. Three different types of governance have been mentioned by Kamensky (2014), which are: shared governance in which all members participate in managing the network; a lead organisation where leadership is taken by a one key member; and a network administration organisation where a new entity is established to monitor and manage the collaborative network. Many of the research respondents cited the need to implement a shared governance where all NGOs' partners contribute to the management, but they confess that the Jordanian Government will not give permission to initiate collaborative networks unless a government delegate such as a CBO takes the leadership. This reflects one of the differences between Western and Eastern cultures. While many Western countries call for open markets (Culberston, 1986), economic actors in Jordan are controlled by a set of regulations which guarantees government control over private and humanitarian sectors, thus preventing organisational corruption, as demonstrated by some of the research respondents. In addition, one of the

respondents suggested the need to invest in shared entities such as central warehouse or courier that is jointly owned by INGOs, as, was previously stated by Kogut (1988) study of Joint-Venture (JV).

The researcher was also astonished by the extent to which INGOs and CBOs rely on workarounds to accomplish their goals. Workarounds are defined as methods used provisionally for accomplishing a task when the planned methods are not achieving the expected outcomes (Koopman & Hoffman, 2003), and it is disused when the issue is resolved (Baldwin, 2008). Some INGOs, for instance, stated the necessity of working with knowledgeable locals who have tribal connections that allow solving complicated tasks. Many CBOs, on the other hand, cited that they use workarounds when the INGOs' requirements mismatch the community's needs or government policies. Workaround techniques in combination with communities of practice that offer a *"useful perspective on knowing and learning"* (Wenger, 2011, p.1) were a valuable addition. Communities of practice are *"groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly"* (Wenger, 2011, p.1). Many of the research respondents, for example, recognised that charity work requires a focus on learning systems to achieve the most significant benefits from the funded programmes. Thus, they seek peer-to-peer connections as well as learning opportunities as it was previously demonstrated by Wenger (2011, p.5).

Key Drivers

CBOs

INGOs

Capacity-building

Reputation
Attracting funders
Effectiveness
Focal Point

Efficiency
Human security

Facilitators

✓ **Compatibility in Organisational Culture**
✓ **Compatibility in Management Philosophy**
✓ **Complementary of Capabilities**

Create or adjust partnership between an INGO and a CBO

Technical Mechanisms

✓ **Coordination:**
Agreements, liaison officers, cluster approach or sector meetings

✓ **Coopetition:**
Collaborative NW of younger CBOs preforming as 3PLs providers

✓ **Outsourcing.**
3PL Providers, training providers, external mentors, 4PL Providers

✓ **Monitoring & Periodic review:**
KPIs, reporting, meetings, field visits, feedback and complaint tools

✓ **Communication:**
IT technology, skilled negotiators, DSS

Relational Mechanisms

✓ **Strategic-relational mechanisms:**
Trust, Commitment, Respect

✓ **Managerial-relational mechanisms:**
Flexibility, Equity

✓ **Transparency**

✓ **Relation-Specific Investments**

✓ **Mutual Accountability and Sympathy toward Communities**
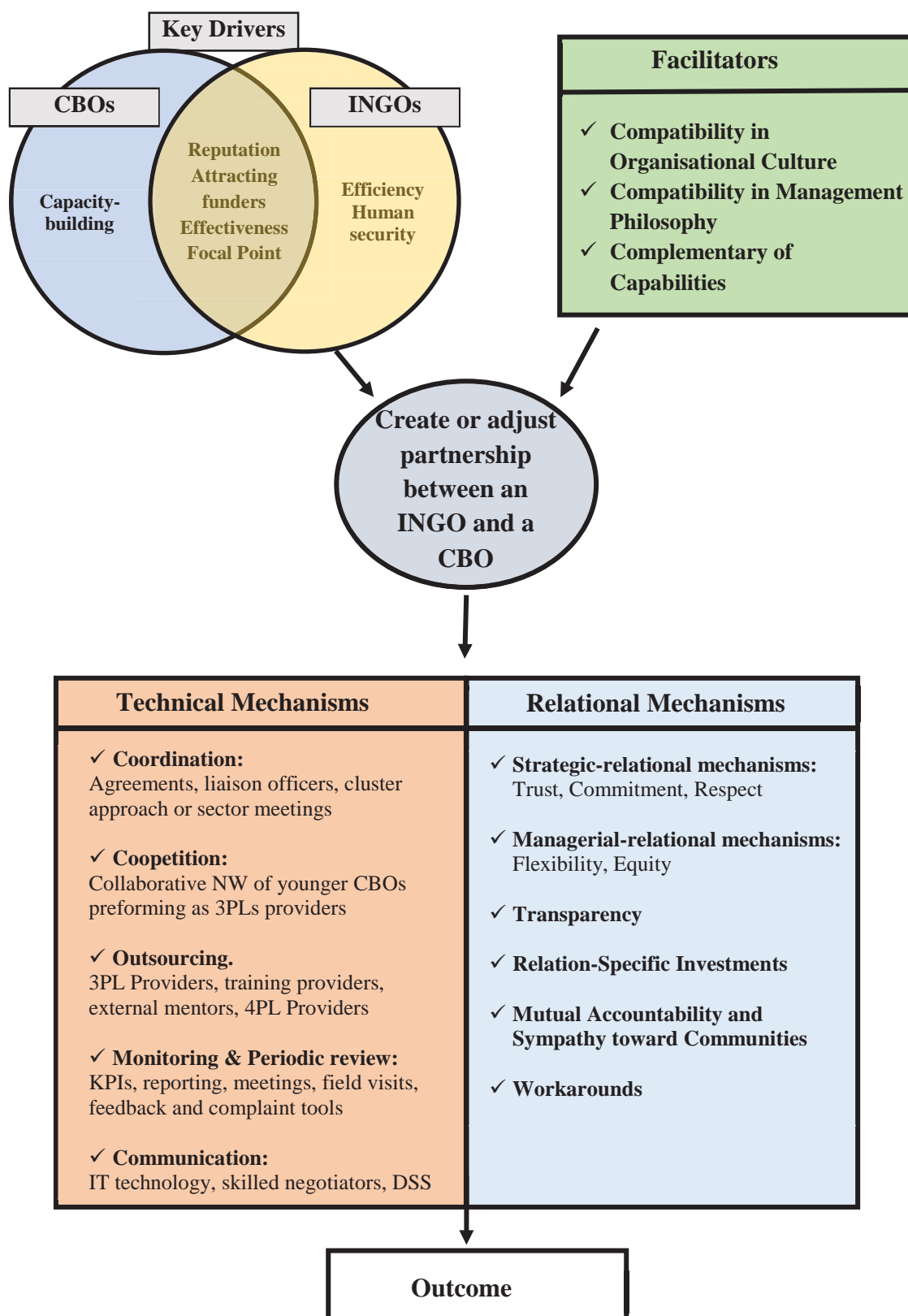
✓ **Workarounds**

Outcome

Figure 5.2: A conceptual model for effective partnerships between CBOs and INGOs in Jordan

The research findings match the literature review that discussed the critical role that trust, commitment, and relation-specific investments play in improving partnerships' overall performance. Employing committed, reliable, skilled personnel (e.g. volunteers) who are driven by accountability toward vulnerable people and community allowed some NGOs, for instance, to liberate themselves from the restrictions imposed by donors on funding (Murad & Black, 2013). In addition, the researcher recognised multiple relational mechanisms, all of which moderate the effects of the previously discussed challenges. Respect, for example, allows the creation of a positive environment where partners listen to each other's needs (Dahlke, 2012). In other words, respect allows authentic empowerment efforts (Jett, 2013) that bring about more qualified NGOs. Furthermore, effective partnerships can be developed when partners show authentic intervention and sympathy toward beneficiaries irrespective of race, gender, or religious beliefs, which in turn results in better advocacy since communities are the main stakeholders (Goleman, 1995; Watkins,1995; Stromquist, 2002; Allen et al., 2011).

The distinction of technical mechanisms is threefold. First, it has been realised that to improve managerial capabilities of both INGOs and CBOs, the capability-building initiatives such as a coopetition initiative should be present. This is because coopetition allows partners to share experiences and best practices, and to create a joint cultural relationship. Coopetition also reduces the opportunistic behaviour of partners, since it helps in overcoming problems related to effectiveness and efficiency that arise from limited or double funding. By acting this way, trust is also expected to increase among funders and NGOs, while personnel turnovers will probably reduce (Moshtari, 2013). During interviews, some respondents stated that *"employing a group of younger CBOs that cooperate together to support the partnerships of INGOs and Royal CBOs, has changed the younger CBOs' mindset from competing on attracting funders to compete over*

enhancing their ability to deliver effective and efficient relief services". In this context, effectiveness refers to the ability to reach more beneficiaries in a short period, and efficiency refers to services provided by the younger CBOs such as free warehousing or free aid distribution, which allows the INGOs and Royal CBOs to use the remaining funding for planning more relief projects. This confirms that competing to improve the organisations' abilities instead of competing on funding, is the best way to deliver better services (Nalebuff & Brandenburger, 1996; Fujimoto, 2001). Second, liaison officers were a new addition to the conceptual model. The researcher was surprised by the extent to which both local and international partners rely on liaison officers to facilitate and coordinate their daily tasks. Liaison officers are locals who have strong personal connections (e.g. tribalism, kinship) with other CBOs' managers, community, or government. Employing liaison officers is similar to employing workarounds techniques, but liaison officers are permanent officials. The benefit of employing liaison officers has been described by some participants as *"helping partners to develop new tactics that suit the local context"*. Third, some participants suggested employing external mentors to help the organisations in identifying compatible partners or teaching partners the different partnership techniques that suit the context. Despite the important role that the external mentors play in prompting effective partnership, they were rarely invited to INGO-CBO meetings. One CBO manager explained: *"We do not have the adequate time to identify those external mentors, so I believe that the Jordanian Government should nominate some reliable mentors, and then we can choose between them"*.

The research findings match the literature review regarding the critical role that ICT and DSS play in supporting productive communication among humanitarian actors, enhancing the speed of collaborative response, and providing reliable data about disasters (Moshtari, 2013). Many of the respondents confirmed that better decisions could be made

by using DSS as stated by Gonçalves (2011). The main difference is how DSS is defined. The research participants viewed DSS as *"a programme that facilitates proposals submission or a platform that assists the subscribed NGOs in gathering, managing, and planning data, instead of depending on the traditional means of swapping files online, that sometimes shows a high possibility of mistakes and delays"*. The literature review, though, showed that DSS extends beyond platforms as it also includes conflict analysis, scenario planning, and management science methods such as simulation modelling (Campbell & Hartnett, 2005; Altay & Green III, 2006; Franco, 2006). These methods were described by some participants as sophisticated and have never been used before in Jordan.

In the revised model, key drivers are categorised into shared, INGO, and CBO drivers. These were slightly different from other studies reported elsewhere. The key difference is represented in the focal point and human security drivers that were stated by Richards and Heard (2005) as well as Dütting and Sogge (2010) as the most common motivations for collaboration. Many participants cited that the focal point motivation is only important for the projects that require direct approval from the Jordanian Ministries, or for the CBOs that attempt to work abroad. Therefore, the researcher recommends connecting this motivation with the NGOs' type of work. Human security was rarely mentioned by the respondents. This is because the security issues in Jordan are under the supervision of the military forces. Another difference is that coordinating work appeared as a key motivation (Richards & Heard, 2005), but was not stated by the respondents. In fact, this driver was reported as the UNHCR-Jordan main mission. Capacity-building and its positive impact on local sustainability and ownership was the strongest empirical driver. The researcher identified attracting more donors and improving reputation as mutual key drivers. The effectiveness was retained as a shared key driver. Efficiency was relocated as a key driver for INGOs. This was explained by many of the international participants, for example, *"CBOs bring*

the innovation element. They produce more projects with less resources". Finally, facilitators act as a dominant driver of effective partnerships during initial stages, but also affect partnerships throughout their lifetime. This element remains the same as will be explored in the following section.

5.3   Conceptual results

5.3.1   The effect of facilitators on the dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs

The empirical data clearly demonstrated the role of compatibility in organisational culture, compatibility in management philosophy, and complementarity of capabilities in determining the future of partnerships between INGOs and CBOs. The findings are symmetric with the literature review, which discussed the need for compatibility and complementarity between organisations to create an effective partnership or enhance an existing one. In this research, the CBOs and INGOs stated that they need to collaborate to achieve better outcomes. The Jordanian CBOs are not well prepared to access global resources and handle emergencies alone. Thus, they rely on the INGOs' expertise to communicate with donors and build their organisational capacities. CBOs, On the other hand, are more capable of identifying the needs of vulnerable people. Often, participating in a supplementary relationship where partners can learn from each other's past experiences allows the creation of value, an increase in efficiency, and a reduction of risks (Dahan et al., 2010), thus maintaining competitive advantages (Zack, 1999; Balland & Sobhi, 2013). Most of the research participants stated that the competitive advantage is their ability to deliver better aid.

The data collected from many interviewees verified that better outcomes can be achieved when the organisational cultures and management philosophies/practices of partners are compatible. This confirms that whenever similarities in goals and organisational cultures increase, actors will feel more comfortable toward their partners,

which enhances the opportunity of successful collaborations (Deshpande et al., 1989). Many respondents also recognised, as Park and Ungson (1997) have observed as common, that the greater the differences in cultures, the greater the conflicts in expectations and activities, and the greater the resources that should be utilised to evolve the relationship. It does not mean that goals and cultures must be identical, but they should not conflict (Lambert, 2008). Similarly, an incompatibility in management philosophy, that emerged in the empirical findings as associated with the influence of each partner on the decision-making process, led to donor-receipt relationships. The younger CBOs in this research stated that they have limited authority over projects and cash donations. The majority of INGOs stated that the inadequate capacities of these CBOs, and their inconsistency with international standards are the main drivers for retaining the leadership position. CBOs contradicted this by stating that *"we have a highly-educated staff who is aware of the international standards, but we lack the financial resources that prevent any organisation from expanding its capacities and improving its capabilities"*. In this research, the INGOs' behaviour confirms the opinion of Dahl (1957) who believes that organisations can affect others' behaviours and impose their desires when they possess resources.

The imbalance in power was not the situation in all cases, as a few CBOs have been superior and maintained their position as equal partners. These CBOs realised, as Jaeger and Kanungo (1990), Baldwin (2008) have commonly observed, that the direct implementation of Western management practices in developing countries, without considering their applicability with local practices, led to a clash and poor value. They also agreed that INGOs should translate their management philosophies, and compare it to their local partners' philosophies when working in a new culture, as demonstrated by Karsten & Illa (2001). Since imposing INGOs to reshape their management philosophies and practices is a difficult mission to achieve, some CBOs are now following a flexible managerial

mentality to overcome the incompatibility. This is because *"a responsive and flexible development practice can only be achieved by the organisation that has responsive and flexible practitioners"* who can read their partners' practices and enable responsive interferences (Kaplan, 1999, p.14).

5.3.2   The effect of key drivers on the dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs

In this research, the capacity-building driver emerged in the empirical data as linked to sharing resources between partners. Commonly, powerful institutions that take part in enhancing social capital will be established only when they get the opportunity to access their partners' resources, for example, skills, funds, and knowledge (ACF, 2008; Allen et al., 2011). Similarly, sustainability and ownership could be enhanced because of interacting with others (INTRAC, 2001). This was confirmed by many local respondents, for instance, *"exchanging expertise in an authentic way allowed few CBOs to separate from their international partners and become independent entities, as well as expand their work and sustain"*. Therefore, the researcher chose to consider capacity-building as a key motivation that leads to sustainability and local ownership. However, most of the local participants pointed out a lack in capacity-building initiatives. According to CBOs, some initiatives are a façade to impress donors. Many participants also reported that even when INGOs try to empower CBOs, their attempts are confined to training or workshops. To allow effective partnerships, building capacities should go beyond workshops and seminars, to strengthen technical, operational, and organisational dimensions. This includes, for example, human resources management, financial resources management, information systems, strategic leadership, public relations (ACF, 2008; Allen et al., 2011).

Regardless of the disappointments that INGOs and CBOs have experienced regarding the quality of partnerships that they are involved in, they still collaborate because

of the need to improve or maintain their reputation, thus attracting more donors. This finding was supported by Gray and Stites (2013) who stated that, like the private sector, NGOs enter partnerships to strengthen their image, boost their scope of impact, and reach a broader support. In this research, collaborating with CBOs has increased the INGOs' opportunity to access private funding provided specifically to back up social development projects implemented by CBOs. In other words, the presence of local partners determines the INGOs' eligibility to compete for such funds (ACF, 2008). Similarly, CBOs rely on INGOs to apply for private funding since many CBOs still lack the ability to write proposals. INGOs and CBOs also collaborate to achieve cost-efficiency. Although the efficiency was seldom expressly mentioned by INGOs, many CBOs stated that it was distinctly felt. The majority of local participants cited that replacing the international mission staff with local ones, who require smaller expenses, is a reason for such partnerships (ACF, 2008). They also agreed that the free-spaces of local partners minimise the international partners' need for outsourcing (IIP DIGITAL, 2012). This is particularly true when warehousing is a secondary requirement for INGOs. These recognitions confirm the UK Charities Commission's (2009) and Scobie's et al. (2013) statement, that a range of benefits represented in lower overheads and better capacities can be obtained when collaborating with other NGOs.

Finally, service-effectiveness has been indicated as a common key motivation that enables the partnership between two organisations (Bajpai et al., 2011). In this context, the majority of local and international respondents defined effectiveness as their ability to deliver better services for more beneficiaries in a shorter lead-time. The INGOs admitted that the contribution of local knowledge in addressing complex social issues such as hidden refugees' communities has enhanced the visibility and service quality as previously clarified (Hardy et al., 2003; Incentivising Collaboration Workshop, 2012). Furthermore, CBOs

clarified the role that international funding plays in accelerating the relief operations since their missions might postpone if no financial resources are available.

5.3.3 The effect of the relational mechanisms on the partnerships between INGOs and CBOs

The social mechanisms (trust, respect, transparency or visibility, equity, commitment, flexibility, empathy, mutual accountability) alongside the workarounds techniques including personal connections such as tribalism or kindship that can exist between the staff of an NGO or members of a community were all suggested by the empirical findings and literature (Campbell, 1988; Postma, 1994; Watkins, 1995; Lister, 2000; Lewis, 2002; ACF, 2008; Allen et al., 2011) as key characteristics of successful partnerships.

In this research, the ability to create genuine partnerships is distorted by lack of trust and respect as stated by most of the research participants and confirmed by Horton et al. (2010). The majority of participants also stated that trust is difficult to achieve, especially at the beginning of the relationship, since it needs to be fostered over time as previously demonstrated by Horton et al. (2010). Trust is linked to communication, so, partners should communicate openly (Tamm & Luyet, 2005) and exchange accurate information (Long & Wood, 1995) to enhance their position as reliable partners. This is because interacting openly helps to avoid conflicts in objectives (Kale, Singh, & Perlmutter, 2000), thus minimising overspending (Smith et al., 1995) and increasing flexibility (Li et al., 2010), as well as improving performance (Saxton, 1997). Practically, the lack of transparency/ visibility between the INGOs and Jordanian CBOs has weakened trust and led to ineffective and costly humanitarian operations. A CBO manager, for instance, clarified that "*the lack of transparency led to duplication in work, random distribution of aid, particularly, at the beginning of the crisis as some refugees were able to receive the same medicines several*

times and sell it at the black market for cheap. It was a big loss because INGOs paid high customs for these medicines to be allowed to enter Jordan". This confirms that poor communication leads to a range of problems related to speed, cost, and quality (Thévenaz & Resodihardjo, 2010; Chang et al., 2011).

Other participants attributed the failure of building effective partnerships to the inequality in power between the local and international partners. If trust is the adhesive of relationships, the imbalance in power can sometimes be the corrosive element shattering the relationships apart (Horton et al., 2010). In this research, the majority of INGOs refused to act as equal in power partners, while they insisted on treating CBOs as tools, since INGOs are the partners who have authority over the financial resources. The INGOs' remarks contradict the equity principle that was published by the Global Humanitarian Platform in 2007 to improve the performance of international-local partnerships. Their remarks also contradict the notion that NGOs act better when there is an equitable distribution of work (USAID, 1997; Allen et al., 2011). Therefore, an equal commitment is recommended to preserve a valuable and coherent relationship (Moorman et al., 1992), where partners can increase their returns effectively (Mavondo & Rodrigo, 2001). Commitment can be represented as time, skills and processes, as well as facilities (Grover & Malhotra, 2003; Moshtari, 2013). Some respondents also declared that training and funding are other forms of commitment.

Regardless of the importance of each one of the previous mentioned characteristics in supporting the effectiveness of partnerships and mitigating the negative impact of bureaucratic behaviour of NGOs or host governments, they still need to be driven by flexibility (Mattessich et al., 2001). This returns to the diversity in partners' objectives and priorities as well as the continual need to match the evolving demand of partners, which cannot be achieved without open-minded individuals who have the maturity to get rid of

their egoism and understand others' necessities, instead of focusing on long and complicated procedures, which in turn increases the responsiveness and efficiency of their relief operations (Zaman & Mavondo, 2002; Tamm & Luyet, 2005; Clark, 2008; Jaques, 2010). Moreover, partners should have a mutual understanding of responsibilities to minimise the competition over resources as stated by the many of the research respondents and claimed by Postma (1994) and Platform (2007).

5.3.4 The effect of technical mechanisms on the partnerships between INGOs and CBOs

The research findings suggest that most of the technical mechanisms fall into five categories: coordination, monitoring, communication, coopetition, and outsourcing (identified in section 5.2). In regards to coordination, NGOs should synchronise their activities, thus allowing a cohesive and effective response (James, 2008; Gilmann, 2010), as confirmed by many of the research participants. Alongside the liaison officers who are employed "*to form a working relationship between two organisations to their mutual benefit*" (Oxford Dictionaries, n.d, p.1) (identified in section 5.2), another coordination mechanism is the system of sector meetings or cluster approach that was introduced by the United Nation (UN) in the humanitarian reform of 2005. The cluster approach is defined as "*groups of humanitarian organisations (UN and non-UN) working in the main sectors of humanitarian action, which is created when clear humanitarian needs exist within a sector, and when national authorities need coordination support*" (United Nation Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, n.d, p.1). The empirical data reflects the advantages of sector meetings represented in filling gaps and fewer duplications in services.

In terms of monitoring, different international participants stressed the need to measure the partnerships' performance. This is because measuring the performance allows NGOs to identify the success or failure causes and draw contingency plans (Allen et al.,

2011). Furthermore, reporting a good performance means a better reputation and more donations to support their continuous relief initiatives. Commonly, monitoring systems are used to evaluate capacity building and relationships through reporting and measurement indicators (ACF, 2008; Allen et al., 2011). The majority of respondents also confirmed that meetings and field visits are part of the monitoring mechanism where feedback can be collected.

Many of the respondents also agreed on the role that ICT and DSS plays in facilitating communication between partners (identified in section 5.2). Interestingly, the UNHCR-Jordan website has been described by many respondents as the main source of information regarding the Syrian crisis (e.g. active NGOs, refugees' statistics, host country regulations). This contradicts the common assumption that websites such as http://www.reliefweb.org/ and http://www.irinnew.org/ are the most reliable references when a disaster strikes (Moshtari, 2013). The majority of participants explained that the lengthy presence of the UNHCR in Jordan has resulted in a better understanding of the political and social situation, leading to better data collection.

Finally, the limited capacity of CBOs, particularly the younger ones, led the INGOs to outsource parts of their activities. This is because responsiveness can be better achieved when strategic partnerships with companies offering standby capacity in different areas are created (UNHCR, 2013). Some respondents also pointed out the benefits, for example, better forecasting and cost-efficient operations, that the NGOs can make from combining the valuable resources of these companies (identified in section 5.2).

5.4 Implications

The empirical data reflects high levels of distrust, ineffectiveness, and inefficiency apparently stemming from a lack of transparency or visibility between active humanitarian organisations. Therefore, the establishment of a shared platform is suggested: this would

comprise a collaborative network of NGOs, commercial companies, alongside 3PL providers, managed by an inter-organisational governance that works as a government delegate. This platform would allow the subscribed organisations to be aware of existing supplies and capacities along the chain, which in turn reduces the issues associated with logistics coordination and costs (Moshtari, 2013). The research findings also show the existence of inauthentic capacity-building initiatives, resulting from treating CBOs as tools or service providers. Hence, INGOs should consider CBOs as long-term investments requiring genuine capacity-building initiatives. These initiatives would exceed the tangible resources into developing the financial and humanitarian resources management, strategic management, information systems, and external relationships (Allen et al., 2011). INGOs should also allow CBOs to participate in evaluating shared projects. This is because of the gap which exists between the KPIs developed by the INGOs and the aspects of the projects that should be measured. Furthermore, it is recommended that INGOs give more attention to field visits since this will improve levels of trust, commitment, and respect among partners. It will also decrease feelings of superiority over CBOs. Complaint tools should, therefore, be used frequently to check the relationships' status.

Community Based Organisations, on the other hand, can start writing down their workarounds tactics to formalise methods that can be reused in other situations (Baldwin, 2008). They can also initiate more robust clusters (one or more groups of small CBOs that share resources and operate as service providers) to enhance their position as credible entities in the eyes of INGOs and government. These clusters could benefit from external mentors' experiences. For instance, the external mentors can teach the clusters' members tactics to enhance the internal systems (e.g. writing proposals, negotiations, brainstorming, exploiting the scarce resources effectively, recruiting volunteers). By acting this way, communication with donors and international partners will become easier. The research

also suggests that donors and host governments play a critical role in supporting the effectiveness of partnerships. Thus, donors should review and modify their restrictive policies to allow partners to invest in enhancing their relationships and capacities. This can be achieved through offering funds over a longer period, and by stopping the imposition of pre-designed guidelines that sometimes threaten the NGOs' goals and values (Moshtari, 2013). The host government, on the other hand, should employ a committee of advisors who can build robust relations with donors to ensure demand-oriented funding.

In conclusion, selecting partners based on their capabilities (e.g. relational connections), as well as considering the technical and relational mechanisms during projects implementation will allow developing effective relationships between INGOs and CBOs.

The 6st Chapter

THESIS CONCLUSION

6 Research conclusion

6.1 Conclusion

The study provides an in-depth exploration of the humanitarian context in regard to supply chain collaboration. It aims to fill the gap in knowledge about horizontal-dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs. In particular, it seeks to identify the challenges and elements that impact these partnerships. The study findings investigate four categories of challenges (inter-organisational, organisational, external, and donor-related) facing the NGOs' partners while operating in Jordan. It also suggests and examines a conceptual model of the elements affecting the effectiveness of partnerships based on evidence from consultants' reports, academic research, and empirical perceptions. Four elements (facilitators, key drivers, relational and technical mechanisms) were identified. This was achieved throughout a Jordanian cross-sectional study of the NGO partnerships that were developed in response to the Syrian crisis that began in 2011.

In terms of facilitators, an adequate overlap in objectives and organisational cultures is recommended to avoid miscommunication and process failure. The research also proposes the need to translate and compare the partners' management philosophies and practices to examine their compatibility, since incompatible partners can make inappropriate decisions, based on a supply-oriented instead of a demand-oriented approach. The research also shows that to reduce risk and create value, partnerships between INGOs and CBOs are better as complementary relationships. Thus, the key drivers of one partner should be compatible with what other partners can provide. Identifying the shared and diverse motivations of the different NGOs will enable greater transparency for the formation of collaborative partnerships. In particular, the study identifies the specific drivers for CBOs so international agencies can evaluate how they can jointly achieve their shared goals of serving beneficiaries. The outcomes of the research suggest that partners

collaborate to strengthen their reputation, reach a broader support network, and build capacity, as well as increase the effectiveness and efficiency of their operations. In addition, the research refers to the local knowledge and tribal connections that are recruited by CBOs to enhance their responsiveness. It also refers to the INGOs' expertise and external relationships that facilitate access to global resources.

In terms of mechanisms, the number of relational mechanisms went from three to eleven after the interviews were conducted. The researcher suggests that mechanisms of trust and respect should be improved to allow cost-efficient and flexible relationships. The research also refers to transparency as a social mean that plays a critical role in enhancing trust between partners, while it classifies commitment and relation-specific investment as correlating mechanisms that are necessary to preserve a valuable relationship, where partners can enhance their returns significantly. Interestingly, flexibility in management was added owing to its practical role in integrating relational mechanisms (accountability and sympathy toward communities, equity, transparency). The workarounds principle is a distinct and novel approach for addressing complexities when they occur.

With regard to technical mechanisms, the researcher highlights five categories: coordination, co-opetition, outsourcing, monitoring, and communication. Under these categories, different mechanisms were introduced. For instance, establishing a collaborative network or strategic alliance of profit and non-profit organisations was recommended for cost-reduction and service-improvement. One example is the 'younger CBOs clusters' that are often organised and monitored by Royal CBOs and INGOs. The research shows that outsourcing becomes a supportive mechanism when these clusters exist. In other words, outsourcing offers a standby capacity in specific areas when the required resources exceed the clusters' capacity. Furthermore, liaison officers who are employed to facilitate communication between partners and community, were a new

addition. Common mechanisms were also included, such as measurement indicators, ICT, and DSS.

6.2 Contributions

Up to this point, a significant number of challenges, facilitators, drivers, and mechanisms that influence the creation or adjustment of horizontal partnerships at the dyadic or network levels, have been cited by different researchers in both humanitarian and commercial sectors. However, the majority of these papers are based on data gathered through a limited number of humanitarian organisations, and have been published mainly to deliver a generic list of elements which impact partnerships (Moshtari, 2013). The theoretical contribution of the research is twofold: first, this study extends supply chain collaboration research from the commercial field to humanitarian arena, and explores horizontal partnerships between international and local NGOs through large-scale, semi-structured interviews. . Second, the research findings provide recommendations to assist scholars, strategic and operations managers in their endeavours to identify major elements, or challenges to the humanitarian NGO supply chain collaboration. The study also provides support in finding solutions and evolving innovative strategies to build effective partnerships, for example, the value of local knowledge of CBOs that can enhance the responsiveness. Conversely, INGOs' expertise and external relationships can facilitate access to global resources.

Characteristically, the researcher now recommends workarounds as a relational mechanism. Few studies have mentioned workarounds in the context of humanitarian organisations in developing countries (Baldwin, 2008). Thus, highlighting this mechanism might allow scholars to understand the importance of informal social connections in developing effective collaborative efforts. Furthermore, liaison officers, external mentors, and clusters or collaborative networks that build on the co-opetition principle (e.g. younger

CBOs' clusters), have demonstrated their feasibility in this study. Regardless of the popularity of these mechanisms in the commercial sector, the researcher is not aware of previous humanitarian studies that covered these mechanisms.

Methodologically, the employment of empirical methods has been stressed by Fisher (2007), Craighead and Meredith (2008), and Moshtari (2013) for increasing the credibility and validity of the research outcomes. Consequently, there is a need for more academic research in the humanitarian sector using empirical methods to investigate NGO supply chain collaboration. In this research, the validity and reliability of the conceptual model were examined using a cross-sectional study.

6.3   Limitations and potential area for future research

This research concentrated only on horizontal-dyadic partnerships between INGOs and CBOs in one country in the Middle East. Future research could be supported by multiple case studies in multiple countries, since repetition of the research including INGOs and CBOs working in different countries may result in different outcomes. There is also a chance to explore collaborative efforts between other humanitarian actors, such as INGOs and government or INGOs and the private sector. Furthermore, scholars may explore the partnerships at network level. Particularly, humanitarian organisations would benefit from research that discusses the applicability of a collaborative network of different organisations and cooperatively managed by multiple NGOs. In this line, inter-organisational relationships can be analysed using social network analysis (Moshtari, 2013). This method will explore the reasons that lie behind the disintegration or success of the humanitarian organisations' network (Borgatti & Li, 2009). Future research can also investigate the value of including more perceptions or constructs to the suggested partnership model, as well as test the recommended constructs. Several practices from the

commercial sector, such as effective incentive mechanisms, can be adopted, developed, and tested in the humanitarian sector (Moshtari, 2013).

There are other limitations too: first, the small sample size comprises fifteen INGOs, eleven CBOs and one representative from the UNHCR. Interviewing more non-governmental organisations may have impacted the empirical data. In addition, the respondents were not selected according to direct organisational relationships, because of confidentiality requirements preventing them from pinpointing their partners. Matching partners directly may have increased the opportunity to obtain more information from participants reflecting the perspectives of either side. Second, the researcher was under pressure to conduct interviews over a six-week period. The busy work environment of INGOs and CBOs limited the researcher's and respondents' abilities to conduct long discussions. Since employing empirical methods is necessary to support the practical base of operations management (Fisher, 2007), similar humanitarian research could be supported by other empirical methods such as longitudinal studies, field study, focus group discussions, or lab experiments (Moshtari, 2013). Third, most of the CBOs were located in remote areas and the effect of distance and cultural dissimilarities limited the researcher's ability to present the perspectives of local respondents adequately. Future research can investigate the effect of different cultures on horizontal partnerships between INGOs and CBOs. This is because few studies have explored the influence of culture on supply chain collaboration (Cannon et al., 2010). Other future research specific to Jordan have emerged. These are:

(a) The characteristics of the dyadic partnerships between the government delegate CBOs and INGOs: challenges and benefits.

(b) What workarounds tactics should be utilised officially: types and effects?

(c) The differences of power among NGOs. More investigations are required since less powerful NGOs are less motivated to collaborate in the humanitarian sector (Campbell & Hartnett, 2005).

(d) Leagile humanitarian NGO supply chain collaboration.

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8   Appendix A-Interview questions

- For the purpose of this research, what is your name, position and responsibilities in relation to the current situation in Jordan?

- How many key partners your organisations have? Are they local or international partners? Do you think it is better to deal with local or international NGOs? Why?

- What are the challenges that your organisation has faced during operating in Jordan? Any challenges caused by your local / international partners?

- What is the type of projects your organisation involved in? What are the joint activities under each type?

- How you describe your organisational culture? Do you think your organisational culture affects the relationship you have with your partner? How? Any examples?

- How you describe your management philosophy? Do you think your management philosophy affects the relationship you have with your partner? How? Any examples?

- How you complement each other?

- What motivated your organisation to start a partnership with local or international NGO? What lessoned have you learned?

- What are the techniques, processes, or tools that your organisation used to solve problems / complications?

- What are the relational elements you think that influence the partnership performance?

- Do you prefer to collaborate with other partners? Why?

- In your view, has the level of collaboration improved in the past 2-5 years? How it is improved? What factors have been important in bringing about this improvement?

- Finally, how your organisation measures the partnership success or failure?