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**The role of global logistics companies
in disaster relief efforts:
An investigation into benefits,
challenges and critical success factors
of cross-sector collaborations**

**A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Logistics and Supply Chain
Management**

**at Massey University, Albany,
New Zealand.**

Jan Maether

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to explore the benefits and opportunities, as well as the challenges and risks cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid and disaster relief generate. The study also points out the major critical success factors that commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations require in order to build efficient partnerships. Additionally, guiding recommendations that support the development of successful collaborative efforts are presented.

The study is based on an extensive literature review discussing the complexities of humanitarian aid logistics and reveals the differences between commercial and disaster relief supply chains. Different types of corporate-humanitarian collaborations and cross-learning potential are highlighted. The literature review also deals with the possibility of establishing partnerships within the framework of corporate social responsibility (CSR). A questionnaire investigates the respondents' point of view about the strengths, opportunities, and risks of cross-sector collaborations as well as requirements for successful partnerships. Case studies are also included in this thesis in order to discuss strengths and weaknesses and to pinpoint lessons learned from model partnerships.

Research finds that corporate-humanitarian collaborations, when successfully established, provide their partners with mutual benefits such as knowledge transfer, sharing of resources and best practices. Also, the improvement of a company's public image and awareness can be achieved. Humanitarian aid organisations profit from the building of capacity in between disasters, including staff training and the provision of readily accessible resources from the partnering company. The findings also demonstrate that such collaborations are expected to show a moderate development in the future but need to be built on clear partnership agreements determining the scope of involvement as well as each partner's goals and objectives.

Research is solely based on collaborations between commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies focusing on relief operations after sudden-onset natural disasters (e.g. earthquakes). Further research is needed especially in the field of risk assessment and risk management of collaborations, the influence of such partnerships on employees' overall performance, as well as the development of specific key performance indicators (KPIs).

This thesis provides logistics companies and humanitarian relief professionals as well as researchers and readers interested in this particular topic, an overview of the current state of development of cross-sector collaborations. Furthermore, the main critical success factors the logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector believe are necessary to establish successful partnerships are highlighted.

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List of Abbreviations

%	percent
&	and
€	Euro (Currency)
AET	Airport Emergency Team
BCG	Boston Consulting Group
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CEP	Courier Express and Parcel Services
COMPAS	Commodity Movement Processing and Analysis System
CRM	Cause Related Marketing
CSF	Critical Success Factor
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DHL	Dalsey Hillblom Lynn
DO	Development Operation
DPWN	Deutsche Post World Net
DRN	Disaster Response Network
DRT	Disaster Response Team
e.g.	exempli gratia
ECOSOC	Economic and Social Council
EMOP	Emergency Operation
etc.	et cetera
EUR	Euro (Currency)
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GARD	Get Airports Ready for Disasters
HIV	Human immune-deficiency virus
HRN	Humanitarian Response Network
HtK	Help the Kids
i.e.	id est
ICJ	International Court of Justice
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IDP	Internally displaced persons
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFBS	International Federation of Blue Shield
IFRC	International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies

km	Kilometre
km/h	Kilometres per hour
kton	Kiloton
LET	Logistics Emergency Team
MA	Medical Aid
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MSF	Médecins Sans Frontières
n.d.	not dated
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
p.	page
p.a.	per annum
PASW	Predictive Analysis SoftWare
PRISM	Public Relations in the Service of Mankind
PRRO	Protracted Relief and Recovery Operation
SCM	Supply Chain Management
SO	Special Operation
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SQL	Structured Query Language
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats
TEU	Twenty-Foot Equivalent Unit
TNT	Thomas Nationwide Transport
TPG	Texas Pacific Group
UCF	United for the Children's Future
UCL	University College London
UN	United Nations
UN OCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UPS	United Parcel Service
US	United States
US\$	United States Dollar (Currency)
WEF	World Economic Forum
WFP	World Food Programme

1. CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION – BACKGROUND, AIMS, AND OBJECTIVES

When, in October 1998, Hurricane Mitch (a category 5 storm with winds of 290km/h to 320km/h) hit the Gulf of Mexico wide regions of Honduras, Nicaragua, and Guatemala were desolated (Abbott, 2008). Heavy rains (up to six feet of rainfall) resulted in washed out roads, destroyed bridges and buildings, diverted riverbeds, and flooded airfields (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). “During a 15-day rampage, Mitch killed over 11,000 people, making it the second deadliest hurricane in the Americas behind only the Great Hurricane of October 1780” (Abbott, 2008, p. 361). According to the president of Honduras, Carlos Flores Facusse, about 50 years of development was wiped out in this disaster.

In terms of the management of relief operations by the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC), assistance to victims of the disaster was provided at a considerable delay. “It took weeks to mobilize and distribute basic supplies such as food, water, and shelter to the population” (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 42). The team of the IFRC was not adequately prepared for such a catastrophe: “not enough technical expertise was available for deployment, and relief supplies were slow in coming” (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 42).

1.1 Introduction

This chapter sets the stage for the thesis by reviewing first of all the role of logistics in business and the development of the concept of business logistics and supply chain management. Second, the importance of supply chain management in the area of humanitarian aid is highlighted and a brief overview of cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid and disaster relief logistics is provided. Finally, the background problem is pointed out, with justification for the chosen topic, followed by an explanation of the limitations of the study and its

research objectives. Additionally, an overview of the project structure is presented at the end of this chapter. The referencing style used in this study is the 6th edition of APA (American Psychological Association).

1.2 Logistics, supply chain management, and cross-sector collaborations

This paragraph provides an outline of the concept of logistics in business, presents the development of supply chain management over time and finally points out the role of logistics in humanitarian aid operations.

1.2.1 Role of logistics in business

The basic idea of logistics is not an invention of modern times. From time immemorial, complex logistics activities were already performed: for example, during the building of the first pyramids in Egypt, or for achieving regional dominance in the former Roman Empire. Logistics can be considered one of the most multilayered business operations due to the fact that it is conducted “all around the globe, 24 hours of every day, 7 days a week, during 52 weeks a year” (Bowersox, Closs & Cooper, 2007, p. 21). The main task of logistics is often described as providing the service of transporting raw materials or finished products to a predetermined place where they are needed.

Logistics can therefore be defined as “the process of strategically managing the procurement, movement and storage of materials, parts and finished inventory (and the related information flows) through the organization and its marketing channels in such a way that current and future profitability are maximized through cost-effective fulfilment of orders” (Christopher, 2005, p. 4). The reverse flow, i.e. products that are being returned from customers or suppliers to their point of production, is also included. Thus, logistics can be regarded as the connection between the market and the supply network.

This concept creates crucial interfaces (e.g. between distribution of products, their marketing, and their manufacture) since the logistical process intersects all functional departments within a business and “subordinates broader company goals to the goals of the individual function” (Dornier, Ernst, Fender & Kouvelis, 1998, p. 2). In addition, logistics enables the actual implementation and execution of company strategies through coordinating and rationalising the

use of the required resources and involved parties (Dornier, Ernst, Fender & Kouvelis, 1998).

Logistics also plays an important role for businesses by way of providing a planning framework for coordinating the flow of goods and information throughout the firm. Christopher (2005) notes that “business organizations have come to recognize the vital impact that logistics management can have in the achievement of competitive advantage” (p. 3): in other words, organisations employing effective logistics management enjoy a superior market reputation among their customers compared to their competitors. Furthermore, logistics often represents a major factor of the organisation’s total costs, so that it is possible to reduce expenses not only through economies of scale but also through the re-construction of logistics activities. Thus, businesses might be able to move from a commodity market to a cost leadership through the efficient application of logistics management.

With increasing frequency, customers are demanding just-in-time delivery of their products, smaller lead-times, and in addition to value-added services at the minimum possible cost. Organisations might develop sophisticated logistics networks that help them achieve a service-leader status and a cost advantage among their competitors. This enables them to establish high customer satisfaction and an increased responsiveness and adaptability to changes in the market environment. Therefore, logistics can be viewed as the concept of enabling services that contribute to the overall success of organisations.

To conclude, the performance of a business is often largely influenced by its ability to effectively develop and manage logistical processes across the organisation and successfully coordinate the flow of physical goods and information throughout the supply chain.

1.2.2 Development of supply chain management (SCM)

The modern market environment is characterised by highly globalised and competitive companies, rapid changes in technology, and more complex customer demands. In the last two decades, organisations, therefore, have had to enhance their business processes quickly in order to remain competitive.

In the 1960s and 1970s, a number of companies focused on creating customer loyalty through the implementation of specific market strategies and the improvement of their engineering, design, and production processes (Handfield &

Nichols, 1999). In the 1980s, customer demand for new products increased significantly and this forced manufacturing companies to adapt their products to new customer needs or to develop new goods for the purpose of satisfying increased customer demand.

In the early 1990s, however, many of these same organisations focused on the improvement of their supplier base as they had become aware of the fact that “materials and service inputs from suppliers had a major impact on their organization’s ability to meet customer demand” (Handfield & Nichols, 1999, p. 1). Achieving cost-efficient international distribution of goods to exactly the time, place, and quantity of customer demand constituted an additional challenge to modern companies.

Consequently, the predominant logistics activity, namely the transportation of products from point A to point B, has changed over time towards more complex processes in order to benefit from inter- and intra- organisational resources and efficient global distribution networks. These circumstances occasioned the emergence of modern supply chain management (SCM), which can be defined as “the task of integrating organizational units along a supply chain and coordinating material, information and financial flows in order to fulfil (ultimate) customer demands with the aim of improving the competitiveness of a supply chain as a whole” (Stadtler & Kilger, 2005, p. 11).

A supply chain is defined as a “network of connected and interdependent organisations mutually and co-operatively working together to control, manage and improve the flow of materials and information from suppliers to end users” (Christopher, 2005, p. 6).

Accordingly, a supply chain is composed of a focal firm, for example an end-product manufacturer or logistics service provider, and their first-tier and second-tier (or further removed) suppliers and customers. These organisations are linked through their financial, informational, and material flows. Reverse logistics processes are likewise part of the supply chain since intermediate and end-consumers might return or recycle products (Wisner, Tan & Leong, 2008).

Nowadays, organisations are involved in the coordination of networks of companies that each provide either inputs, such as raw materials, or outputs, such as the transportation and delivery of goods to (end-)customers and the provision of after sales services (Handfield & Nichols, 1999). Above all, SCM allows companies to share resources, to collaborate across organisation boundaries, to achieve common goals, and to concentrate on their core

competencies while outsourcing the other processes to cooperating suppliers or customers (Fawcett, Ellram & Ogden, 2007).

From this data it can be gathered that traditional logistics typically focuses on processes, such as procurement, distribution, maintenance, and inventory management, within an organisation (Hugos, 2006): whereas, SCM creates a network of companies in order to accomplish traditional logistics tasks as well as marketing, finance or customer pre- and after-sale services.

1.2.3 Importance of supply chain management (SCM) in humanitarian aid projects

Logistics does not solely play an important role in private sector operations: humanitarian aid organisations are likewise affected since 80% of humanitarian aid and disaster relief missions collude with supply networks during their employment (Fritz Institute, 2007). Therefore, supply chain management (SCM) can be regarded as an essential requirement to successfully coordinating the various stakeholders involved in relief operations [stakeholders are persons, groups, or organisations that can affect or be affected by the organisation's actions, objectives, and policies (BusinessDictionary, 2010). In the context of humanitarian aid stakeholders include donors, government, aid workers, etc.] (Chomilier, Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2003; Gustavsson, 2003; Thomas & Kopczak, 2007; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

Logistics in the humanitarian sector is defined as “the process of planning, implementing and controlling the efficient, cost-effective flow and storage of goods and materials, as well as related information, from point of origin to point of consumption for the purpose of meeting the end beneficiary’s requirements” (Thomas & Mizushima, 2005, p. 60).

As illustrated in Figure 1.1, the main flows of business and humanitarian supply chains include material, information, finance, people, and knowledge and skills. It is the flow of people, and knowledge and skills that affects the humanitarian sector to the greatest extent. Due to the fact that in a disaster-struck region each supply chain has to be built up from the very beginning, and is usually very different to previous ones, the necessary competencies need to be rapidly reconfigured (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Hence, the aid workers’ knowledge and skills are of utmost importance to guaranteeing a quick response.

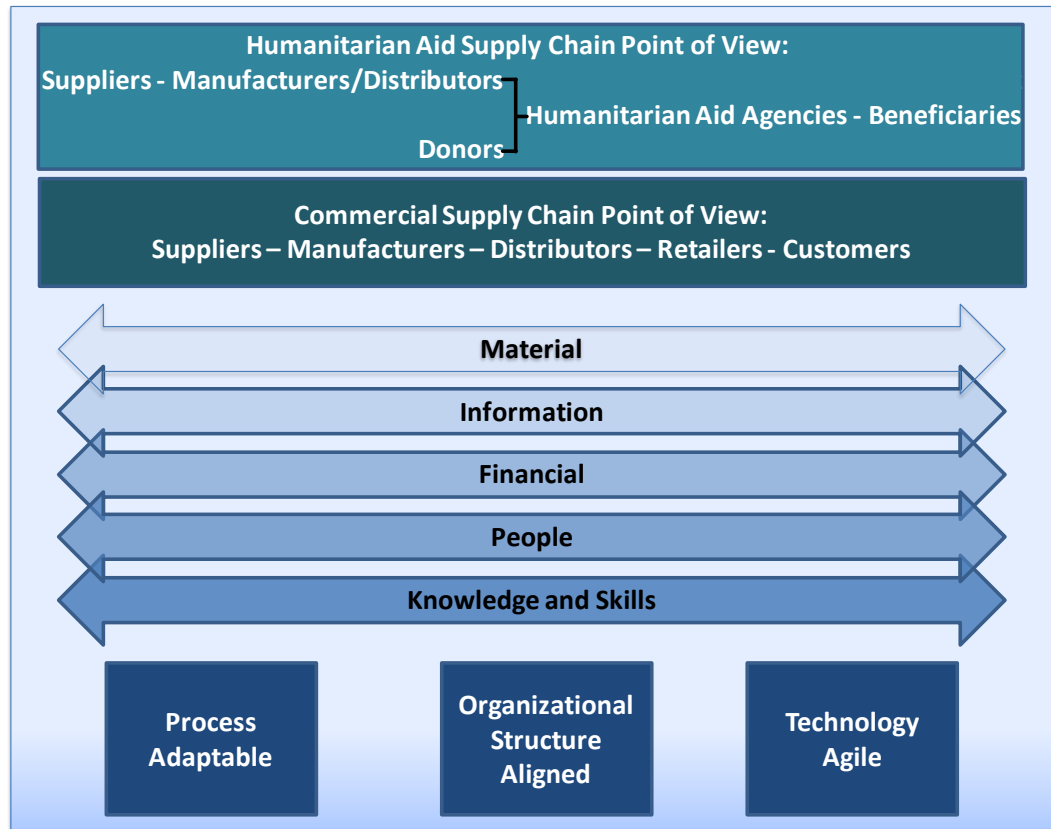


FIGURE 1.1: THE SUPPLY CHAIN FLOWS DISTINGUISHED BETWEEN HUMANITARIAN AID AND COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS OPERATIONS (ADAPTED FROM TOMASINI AND VAN WASSENHOVE, 2009)

The material flow represents the physical transport of commodities from vendors/donors through different distribution centres, such as regional or central warehouses, to the end consumer/beneficiaries: and vice versa (product returns, recycling, servicing) (Harrison & Van Hoek, 2008; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

Information is transferred in order to place and track orders. The provision of information is essential for the coordination of the material flow (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

Third, the financial perspective deals with the various payment schedules and credit terms as well as consignment arrangements (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

Finally, due to the fact that relief operations require a large number of people and are often characterised by a high level of uncertainty, the allocation of skilled workers and of knowledge about former humanitarian operations is of utmost importance. It can be contended that all flows are dependent on one

another so that interruptions in one of them might result in a failure of another flow. The inadequate provision of information on required materials, for example, might lead to unsolicited donations that may even hinder the proper accomplishment of relief activities.

Thomas and Mizushima (2005) argue that logistics bridges the gaps between disaster preparedness and response, procurement and distribution, as well as between headquarters and the field.

As explained above, logistical processes in humanitarian aid play a major role in successful response to disaster situations. Any logistical deficiencies and accidents can have tremendous consequences for victims and may be the deciding factor between life and death.

1.2.4 Introduction to cross-sector collaborations

The number of natural catastrophes occurring each year has quadrupled over the past two decades (Oxfam, 2007); therefore, these rank highly on both political and business agendas. Additionally, the increasing importance of corporate social responsibility (CSR) in business strategies has given rise to cross-sector collaborations in the humanitarian field.

Focusing on the logistical aspects of relief operations, businesses and humanitarian aid organisations have cross-learning possibilities. Private-sector companies can help in the improvement of relief operations by contributing modern technologies in their possession, readily accessible resources, and expertise with regards to the management of logistical activities. Humanitarian aid organisations on the other hand are experienced in building and coordinating supply chains in emergency areas, characterised by high uncertainty rates and limited resources.

As a consequence, long-term partnerships (the expressions “Partnership”, “Collaboration”, and “Cooperation” will be used synonymously in the following) between private companies and humanitarian aid agencies have the potential to exploit both partners’ core competencies, improve the reputation of businesses concerning responsible action and their impact on society, ameliorate disaster response, and strengthen the overall competitiveness of both market and aid environments.

Nevertheless, challenges and risks, such as a lack of mutual goals and common language, different organisational cultures, and differing levels of

commitment, exacerbate obstacles to the successful establishment of cross-sector collaborations.

Regardless of the challenges that cross-sector partnerships implicate, it can be argued that the prevailing synergies between private-sector and humanitarian aid organisations can add value to both partners involved.

1.3 Background of this study

Over recent years, an increase in the number of natural disasters, as well as their increasingly simultaneous occurrence and complexity can be regarded as an alarming fact, particularly in view of the limited resources that restrict the ability of aid agencies to respond to these events. The humanitarian aid organisation's objective is to provide aid in terms of water, food, medicine, shelter, security, and other relief supplies in the case of an emergency. Logistics plays an important part in disaster relief operations as approximately 80% of the activity related to a relief mission constitutes logistics processes.

Nevertheless, it is often argued that humanitarian aid agencies are about 15 years behind commercial logistics companies with regards to the development of supply chain processes (Van Wassenhove, 2006; Rickard, 2003). The fast and effective provision of disaster relief is highly dependent on the coordinated and successful execution of logistics activities. However, a lack of knowledge and experience of humanitarians in this particular field of expertise inhibits the improvement of performance in disaster relief.

On one hand, it can be observed that in the past few years supply chain management in the humanitarian aid sector has gained considerable recognition as organisations begin to modify their logistics activities, particularly in light of best practices developed for the commercial industry. On the other hand, commercial logistics companies experience increased pressure from stakeholders and pressure groups as to their strategies and practices, which primarily results from today's financial market structure. Stakeholders demand that businesses improve their corporate image by operating in accordance with the approach of corporate social responsibility (CSR).

Logistics companies, therefore, show extended interest in cooperating with humanitarian aid organisations within the context of CSR in order to benefit from

the value added to their brands in doing so. Cross-sector collaborations can create mutual benefits by way of knowledge transfer with regards to best practices, enhanced brand and public awareness, and improved organisational processes.

Nevertheless, corporate-humanitarian partnerships are still in their infancy and show dynamic potential in terms of the types of engagements emerging after disasters and the social as well as economic value they may produce. Therefore, it is necessary to further explore the benefits, challenges, and risks such partnerships might face and when, as well as how, companies can contribute to the improvement of relief efforts and disaster preparedness and, to a certain extent, disaster mitigation.

Finally, little research has been undertaken on the elements that commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations require for building successful collaborations. It is important to note that research efforts in this particular area suffer from insufficient reliable information. This study aims to contribute to filling this data gap. Since supply chain management in the private and humanitarian sectors can be regarded as a key element for coping with current and future challenges, investigation into cross-sector collaborations is of utmost importance.

1.4 Research aims and objectives

1.4.1 Aims

This study is based on the idea that corporate-humanitarian collaborations can contribute to the improvement of the effectiveness of disaster relief logistics.

First of all, this thesis seeks to provide insights into the broad concept of cross-sector collaborations in the field of humanitarian aid and disaster relief, and to detail the cross-learning potential for both the commercial logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector. Particular focus is directed to the benefits, challenges, and risks such corporate-humanitarian partnerships might provide. In addition, the author aims at highlighting the qualities and critical success factors that companies and aid agencies require in order to establish successful

collaborations, and outlines the possibility of participating in a partnership through corporate social responsibility.

1.4.2 Objectives

The study is based on the following two main research objectives:

Objective One: “To investigate the major benefits, challenges, and risks of corporate-humanitarian collaborations for both the commercial logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector”.

Objective Two: “To reveal and evaluate key qualities and critical success factors that commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations require in order to establish successful collaborations for the purpose of improving disaster relief logistics”.

1.4.3 Research questions

The following listed questions were used as a guide for the research process in order to achieve the above-mentioned objectives.

- *What are the key challenges in humanitarian aid and disaster relief logistics compared with that of commercial supply chain operations?*
- *What types of corporate-humanitarian partnerships are in place and what are the underlying motivations for their establishment?*
- *What are the major benefits for the parties involved, are there any challenges that need to be overcome and what are the risks to be tackled?*
- *What factors can be considered of great importance for the success of cross-sector collaborations?*
- *What are the specific qualities that commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid agencies require in order to successfully engage in corporate-humanitarian partnerships?*

1.5 Limitation of this study

This thesis is based on primary data which has been collected through the completion of a questionnaire by employees of the commercial logistics and humanitarian aid sectors as well as specialised theoretical information from academic literature.

This study focuses on cross-sector collaborations in the area of humanitarian aid, in particular on collaborations between commercial/private logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations. More specifically, corporate-humanitarian partnerships whose disaster relief operations are based on areas struck by sudden onset natural disasters (e.g. floods, earthquakes, hurricanes, etc.) are considered; whereas this study does not refer to slow-onset natural disasters (famine, drought, etc.), sudden-onset or slow-onset man-made disasters (terrorist attack, political crisis, etc.), or complex emergencies (e.g. civil war). Ongoing humanitarian aid work, such as the management of refugee camps, is not relevant to this study because the structure of the supply chain in these contexts differs from that of disaster relief chains. Due to the complex range of actors (all external participants involved in humanitarian aid affairs) involved in disaster relief operations, it is not possible within this study to illustrate the complete scope of practices and circumstances that prevail in real-life.

The findings of this study are based on information from self-administered questionnaires conducted exclusively in May 2010. Underlying reasons for the respondents' answers were not discussed and other possibly important facts could not, therefore, be included.

1.6 Research structure

Chapter One: The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction to the research topic. The development of the concept of business logistics and supply chain management is demonstrated and is applied to the area of humanitarian aid. Furthermore, a brief overview of cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid and disaster relief logistics is provided: on which further elaboration throughout the report is focused. The background problem and justification for the chosen topic, as well as the limitations of the study, and its research objectives are also pointed out in this section.

Chapter Two: This chapter provides an overview of recent literature findings, primarily on corporate-humanitarian collaborations in the field of disaster relief. First, the broad concept of humanitarianism and the fundamentals and challenges of disaster relief logistics are highlighted. Second, cross-sector collaborations between the commercial/private logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector, in particular the mutual benefits, challenges, and risks involved in such collaborations, are explored. This chapter culminates by demonstrating key factors for establishing successful partnerships.

Chapter Three: The methods of research are discussed in this chapter in order to prove reliability and credibility of the information gathered and to provide an overview of the advantages and disadvantages of the data collection methods. The process for collection and review of primary (questionnaire) and secondary (academic literature) data is explained. Furthermore, analysis of the results from the conducted questionnaire with SPSS is presented.

Chapter Four: This chapter presents the findings of the conducted questionnaire on corporate-humanitarian collaborations. The respondents' overall perceptions of partnerships and essential organisational characteristics for successful cooperation, as well as possible key barriers, are all discussed in this chapter. The final part of the chapter points out critical success factors that the commercial logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector must fulfil to build efficient partnerships.

Chapter Five: Model corporate-humanitarian partnerships are discussed in this chapter. It is focused on two existing collaborations, namely TNT with the WFP (World Food Programme) and DHL with the UN (United Nations). First, an overview of the companies and organisations involved is provided, so that subsequently the motivation for and building process of the partnerships can be demonstrated. Furthermore, initiatives of the partnerships, benefits and goals, as well as lessons learned are highlighted.

Chapter Six: The final chapter provides closing remarks about cross-sector collaborations in the field of humanitarian aid and disaster relief, as well as recommendations for future research.

2. CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines and debates the concept of disaster relief logistics and the potential for cross-learning possibilities through collaborations between businesses and humanitarian aid organisations. First, the broad concept of humanitarianism is reviewed and the differences between relief and commercial supply chains discussed. Second, the main types of cross-sector collaborations are presented and key benefits of these for both commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid organisations are highlighted. Finally, this chapter points out the major challenges and risks of corporate-humanitarian partnerships, and reveals critical success factors for building successful cross-sector engagements.

The results are established on recent literature findings. A large number of the articles reviewed are based on case study research, which allows the inclusion of data from various sources and the discussion of previous designed hypotheses.

2.2 Humanitarianism

2.2.1 The three guiding principles

Humanitarian aid organisations accomplish their relief operations within the framework of three generally accepted principles, namely *humanity, neutrality, and impartiality* (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). These tenets provide humanitarians a guideline by which their decision-making and activities are determined and evaluated.

According to Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) *humanity* refers to the relief and reduction of human suffering wherever found. This can be regarded as the principle motive for aid organisations to take action. Moreover, disaster-struck regions often lack basic resources, which are then provided by humanitarian aid agencies for the purpose of helping people in need. Often, such exceptional situations involve a social change accompanied by cultural and political conflicts and other acts of violence.

The principle of *neutrality* assures that the outcome of relief operations is not influenced by the interests of humanitarian aid workers (Van Wassenhove, 2006). In other words, all decisions and activities need to be conducted without bias, representing a fair and proportionate involvement. Thus, humanitarian aid organisations must not risk becoming caught up in political agendas (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). However, it can be argued that retaining a neutral point of view is the most difficult, costly, and risky part of their work. The aid worker's approach needs to focus on external circumstances only without alleging that problems are caused by the personal characteristics of individuals (Beristain, 1999).

Cultural differences and the emotions of people involved in disasters influence their behaviours in emergency situations and this further complicates the treatment of victims. In cultures where men and boys are favoured over women and girls (e.g. Afghanistan) aid workers have to decide whether they should follow locally accepted traditions or treat people according to the worker's own cultural principles. Any compromise to neutrality, for example through engaging in religious, political or racial controversies in an armed conflict, eradicates the intent of the operation and weakens the credibility of all actors involved.

Ambiguous goals, such as the distribution of relief kits to the different camps hosting opposing parties in a conflict and at the same time catering to their different needs without favouring one over the other might force the decision maker to prioritize one of the three principles (*humanity, neutrality, and impartiality*) over the other. The large amount of local, regional, and international actors involved in humanitarian operations and their various agendas also play a great part in contributing to the difficulties facing the retention of neutrality.

Finally, the concept of *impartiality* implies that each and every beneficiary, without regard to gender, religion or race, should receive help. Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) state that impartiality in relief activities can be assessed in terms of "non-discrimination between groups, proportionality in relation to need, and non-subjective recognition of needs as identified by the community" (p. 23).

Although all aid organisations evaluate their interventions based on the three principles of humanity, neutrality, and impartiality, variations can still be revealed due to the various founding ideologies of the agencies. Relief organisations' values and beliefs can be distinguished along three main

humanitarian philosophies: (1) *Faith-based organisations*, (2) *Dunantists*, and (3) *Wilsonians*.

- (1) *Faith-based organisations* are agencies that combine religious values and beliefs with social aims in order to conduct relief operations. However, the majority of faith-based agencies still adhere to the aforementioned principles and do not enjoin beneficiaries with their religious beliefs. Catholic Relief Services and Caritas can be named as examples of faith-based organisations.
- (2) The second group of organisations, the *Dunantists*, are based on the principles of the social activist Henry Dunant, who established the Red Cross Movement in 1875 (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). They focus on a non-interventionist strategy and strongly support the concepts of impartiality and neutrality. To these belong the Red Cross, Crescent Movement, Oxfam, Save the Children, Médecins Sans Frontières (Doctors Without Borders), as well as Action Contre la Faim (Action Against Hunger).
- (3) Finally, the *Wilsonians* are those organisations whose actions are based on the values of former US President Woodrow Wilson. Their ideological perspectives are rooted in Wilson's famous Fourteen Points publicised in 1918: encompassing advocacy of self-determination by ethnic groups, the spread of democracy and capitalism as well as anti-isolationism and anti-imperialism among others. Therefore, Wilsonians intend to modify political, economic, and cultural structures in order to release individuals and focus on the extinction of the root causes that pose a threat to populations (Barnett, 2005). This group includes, for example, Cooperative for American Remittances to Europe (CARE), and World Vision International.

2.2.2 Humanitarian space

The three principles of neutrality, humanity, and impartiality create a space, both conceptual and physical, within which humanitarian aid organisations are able to execute relief operations (Van Wassenhove, 2006). This is also referred to as the humanitarian space (Figure 2.1).

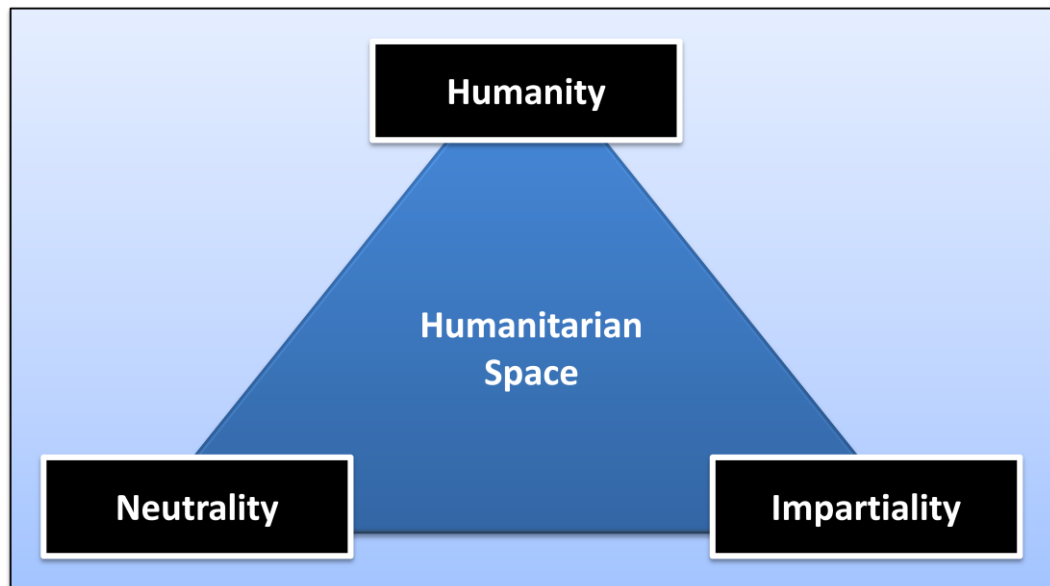


FIGURE 2.1: HUMANITARIAN SPACE AND HUMANITARIAN PRINCIPLES (ADAPTED FROM TOMASINI & VAN WASSENHOVE, 2009)

All three guiding principles are of equal importance, so that trade-offs on any of the three lines will automatically have an impact on the outcome of the conflict as well as the aid organisation's ability to perform. Maintaining this space is a difficult task due to rapid changes in the operating environment, such as security issues and political restrictions, the combined influence of which imparts the framework with a dynamic structure.

The humanitarian space, with regard to its physical component constitutes a "zone of tranquillity" (Van Wassenhove, 2006, p. 478) where non-combatant civilians and soldiers as well as aid workers are able to move about freely and are safe from potential gun fire and other attacks. Although members of military and political organisations are prohibited by international agreements to intervene in the humanitarian space, the borderline between these actors and the humanitarians may in some case be only vague.

Factors such as the existence of an ineffectual government, or even the active involvement of a government in a dispute, and the manipulation of humanitarian space by combatants to use others for their own ends, may all complicate the preservation of the humanitarian space (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). In addition, the availability of capital and the donors' own political agendas, the willingness of actors, as well as ambiguous goals might also influence the safety of the humanitarian space.

The conceptual humanitarian space provides humanitarians the principles upon which they may found and evaluate their decisions and ensures that they adhere to their mandates (Van Wassenhove, 2006; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

The humanitarian space is created for humanitarians involved in a conflict and yet it is usually determined by non-humanitarian actors, such as the military or belligerents, and their values and beliefs. Nevertheless, humanitarian aid agencies put a lot of effort and resources into the preservation of this space.

2.3 Disaster relief logistics

“Relief is the enemy of recovery following disasters, so minimise relief in order to maximise recovery”

(Otto Königsberger, Director Development Planning Unit, UCL, 1973)

This paragraph provides the reader with an overview of logistics in disaster relief operations, points out possible challenges, and discusses the characteristics of humanitarian relief versus commercial supply chains.

2.3.1 Fundamentals and challenges

Humanitarian logistics includes various activities at different times in rapidly changing environments for the purpose of efficiently responding to striking disasters (Kovács & Spens, 2007). Disasters can be defined as “a serious disruption of the functioning of society, causing widespread human, material or environmental losses which exceed the ability of affected society to cope using only its own resources” (United Nations, 1992, p. 27).

Present literature (Beristain, 1999; Van Wassenhove, 2006; Maon, Lindgreen & Vanhamme, 2009) groups disasters into four main categories (Figure 2.2):

Sudden or unexpected natural disasters: This group encompasses avalanches, earthquakes, floods, hurricanes, storms, tornados, tsunamis, and volcanic eruptions, among others.

Sudden or unexpected human-created disasters: This category includes, terrorist attacks, coups d'état, structural, transportation or industrial accidents, chemical or nuclear explosions, fires, chemical or atmospheric pollution, for example.

Slow onset or long-lasting natural disasters: To this group belong gradual disasters such as epidemics, famine, and desertification.

Slow onset or long-lasting human-made disasters: This category includes civil or international wars, displacement, and riots, for example.

FIGURE 2.2: DISASTER CATEGORIES (ADAPTED FROM BERISTAIN, 1999; VAN WASSENHOVE, 2006; MAON, LINDGREEN & VANHAMME, 2009)

In contrast to business logistics operations, which are profit-oriented, humanitarians are focused on helping the victims of catastrophes in their efforts for survival. A distinction needs to be made between logistics in a disaster relief operation and logistics in ongoing aid work: for example, the management of refugee camps (Kovács & Spens, 2007) compared with the provision of development aid over a longer period of time (e.g. education, building of roads, etc) (Scholten, Sharkey-Scott, & Fynes, 2009).

The aim of disaster relief logistics is to “design the transportation of aid material, food, equipment, and rescue personnel from supply points to a large number of destination nodes geographically scattered over the disaster region and the evacuation and transfer of people affected by the disaster to the health care centers safely and very rapidly” (Barbarosoglu, Özdamar & Cevik, 2002, p. 118).

Disaster relief operations have to be executed in environments characterised by defective infrastructures, for instance, often having a lack of

power and water and only limited transportation capabilities (Kovacs & Spens, 2007), which complicate the accomplishment of supply chain processes.

Continuous aid work, in contrast, focuses more on logistical or material provision in order to support the development of a crisis region, the coordination of refugee camps, or famine relief.

For the purpose of successfully executing the major supply chain flows (see 1.2.3 “Importance of supply chain management (SCM) in humanitarian aid projects”), three core factors need to be considered. First, the *structure of products and processes* plays a major role on how efficient supply chain processes can be accomplished. According to Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009), the level of adaptability of processes and products can be increased by their modularity: depending on the rapidly changing demands in humanitarian operations, necessary products and activities can be combined in order to respond most efficiently to changing requirements.

Another factor to be taken into consideration is the *structures within an organisation*. The supply chain performance will greatly depend on how the information flow is managed and how decisions are made as well as how employees are evaluated and rewarded (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

Finally, *Information Technology and Communications* (ITC) can be viewed as a major pillar influencing the conducting of supply chain processes. Modern technology enables smooth flows of information, due to real-time data transfer, and the ability to adapt to changes in the environment. Thus, establishing a Triple-A supply chain (one that possesses agility, adaptability, and alignment) might be viewed as the ultimate goal of humanitarian logisticians. Factors such as speed and low cost can be named as highly important characteristics that a supply chain needs to fulfil in order to attain competitiveness. Nevertheless, agility, adaptability, and alignment are further criteria of a supply chain that provide companies a competitive advantage over their rivals.

Agility refers to the ability to rapidly respond to unexpected changes in supply or demand in order to manage external disruptions, such as natural disasters (Lee, 2004). Humanitarian supply chains are characterised by frequently occurring changes in supply and demand, short time cycles, and external constraints (financial, political, or physical constraints) (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

The term *adaptability* refers to the ability to modify the supply chain design to accommodate market changes caused by political shifts, economic progress, and technological development (Lee, 2004). “As disasters, [...], create flux within societies, structural and physical shifts are expected and desired for rehabilitation to start. Therefore humanitarian supply chains are designed to be, above all, adaptable to the environments in which they operate” (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 8).

The last of the three factors, *alignment*, ensures that the interests of all relevant stakeholders can be brought into line, so that “a sense of unity and identity including aligned incentives” is created (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 8). This, however, poses a major challenge to a humanitarian supply chain since the interests of a vast number of different stakeholders (donors, suppliers, government, etc.) need to be aligned.

However, according to Van Wassenhove (2006) and Rickard (2003), the development of supply chain activities in the humanitarian sector is approximately 15 years behind that of commercial logistics firms. It can be argued that humanitarians have neglected the fact that the coordinated and successful execution of supply chain activities directly influences the effectiveness and speed of disaster relief programmes, although it constitutes the most expensive part of an operation (Rickard, 2003). This is attributable to a general lack of knowledge and experience with regard to logistics issues, and the fact that underlying logistical problems are often condoned as a result of the stresses inherent in humanitarian work (Rickard, 2003).

Organisations usually focus intently on the accomplishment of relief operations so that often little or no attention is given to the identification of constraints in the supply chain network (Arminas, 2005). The perception of a logistician’s role in the planning and execution of logistical activities in relief operations still remains unclear to managers. In contrast to private companies, where the improvement of process performance is at the fore in order to increase competitiveness for market dominance, humanitarians are not influenced by market forces and are not rewarded for their work (through internal incentives or higher revenue) (Van Wassenhove, 2006). It can be argued that the lack of comparative incentives contributes to the development of an organisational

culture with only limited focus on the enhancement of performance based on lessons learned.

In the aftermath of a disaster priority, however, is given to providing the most needed goods as fast as possible, so that trade-offs concerning transportation, speed, and cost, as well as the quantities and types of material demanded might come into play (Davidson, 2006). Lack of understanding as to the importance of logistics in humanitarian operations, and limited capital for appropriate planning, may lead to insufficient processes that are often only partially able to meet the determined requirements. Donations are usually designated for visible and direct relief operations in the aftermath of a disaster, rather than oriented to long-term utilisation. Hence, the restricted capital available hinders the organisation's investment in modern SCM techniques and ICT (information and communications technology) as well as strategic planning. As a result, smaller aid organisations are forced into funding their efforts from project to project (Gustavsson, 2003).

This short-term view is further exacerbated by the value-oriented culture of humanitarian aid organisations. Maon, Lindgreen, and Vanhamme (2009) argue that relief organisations struggle when considering the strategic necessity of logistics in relief missions due to their value-oriented culture and the lack of knowledge of inexperienced employees. A large number of volunteers employed within humanitarian aid organisations are often hardworking, talented and resourceful (Bonney, 2003). However, according to Gustavsson (2003), only a minority of staff members have commercial logistics backgrounds and most of the NGO leaders are experienced instead in social sciences or in law. In addition, volunteers often have a "common value system that drives them to exert positive influences on people's living conditions" (Maon, Lindgreen, & Vanhamme, 2009, p. 155), but usually do not have experience in supply chain management. Hence, "neither the various backgrounds of the volunteers nor the altruistic organizational culture provide a basis for the development of efficient [...] SCM or process integration". (Maon, Lindgreen, & Vanhamme, 2009, p. 155).

Knowledge gained during the field missions is frequently lost, due to a high turnover rate of field logisticians, often as high as 80% p.a. (Thomas, 2005). A further reason is the lack of sufficient knowledge about development processes, such as the utilisation of analysis tools (e.g. key performance indicators), central

databases with data of former operations (Lee & Zbinden, 2003), and ongoing training programmes, especially in the field of logistics (Maon, Lindgreen & Vanhamme (2009). For these reasons, retaining knowledge within a humanitarian organisation faces significant obstacles and this makes the development of SCM even more difficult. The absence of appropriate technology and SCM software often forces field logisticians to switch from electronic resources to paper (Gustavsson, 2003), a practice that can impair the processes of data recording, tracking, and ultimately its analysis. Thomas and Mizushima (2005) emphasise the fact that the data stored by logisticians can contribute to post-disaster analysis and the preparation for future disasters.

Nevertheless, humanitarian aid organisations such as the World Food Programme (WFP) or the International Medical Corps (IMC) put great effort into changing the prevailing circumstances by establishing collaborations with private sector companies for the purpose of exchanging best practices in the field of logistics and supply chain management. This will be further elaborated in Chapter 5.

The next subsection demonstrates the major differences between relief supply chains and commercial supply chains.

2.3.2 Humanitarian relief supply chains versus commercial supply chains

The ultimate aim of logistics is to deliver the right products or services in the right quantities to the correct locations at the determined time and at the lowest possible cost. Both business and humanitarian supply chains feature similar functional stages, such as the distribution of goods to the final customer or beneficiary within the supply network. However, several specific factors can be identified that differentiate humanitarian relief chains from business supply chains.

2.3.2.1 Humanitarian relief network

Before highlighting the differences between humanitarian relief chains and business supply chains it is necessary to briefly describe a typical relief network (Figure 2.3).

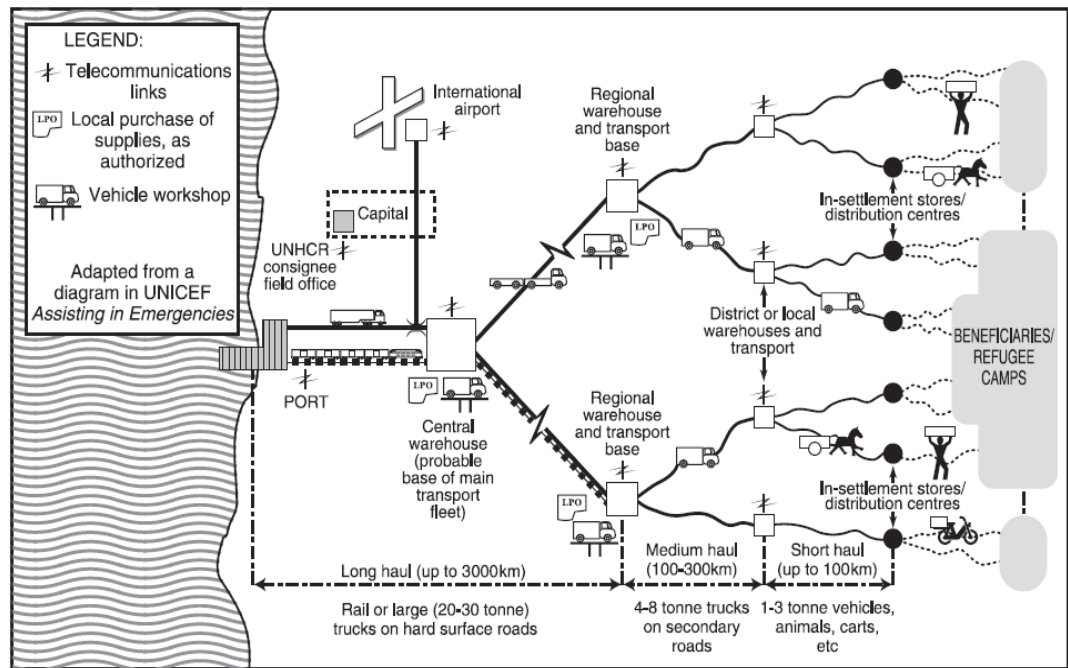


FIGURE 2.3: HUMANITARIAN RELIEF CHAIN STRUCTURE (DAVIS & LAMBERT, 2002)

Relief items are transported as long distance (up to 3000km), medium distance (100 up to 300km), and short distance (up to 100km) shipments to the point where they are needed. Supplies encompass pre-positioned stocks in warehouses, in-kind donations, and products from specific suppliers (Beamon & Balcik, 2008). These are shipped from globally dispersed locations to the primary warehouse close to a seaport- or airport in the disaster-struck region. In the next step, supplies are transported to a central warehouse (secondary hub) which is best located in a major city. There, goods are sorted, stored and consolidated for transportation to local distribution centres (tertiary hubs) where the actual transport of supplies to the end-consumers (beneficiaries) is conducted. Locally procured products may either be stored at secondary and/or tertiary hubs or directly delivered to the consumption point (Beamon & Balcik, 2008).

Accordingly, a humanitarian supply chain connects various stakeholders (e.g. government, agencies, donors) in order to “deliver the right relief items to the right people in the right quantity at the right time” (Cottam, Roe & Challacombe, 2004, p. 6).

Beamon and Balcik (2008) identify three main stages in relief operations that humanitarian aid agencies follow once a catastrophe has occurred:

- (1) *Assessment Phase*: This phase refers to the assessment of needs within the first 24 hours of a disaster: with regard to resources required in order to be able to perform relief activities (Thomas, 2007). Teams, usually consisting of experts in water and sanitation, nutrition and health care, conduct a rough assessment of needs based on an estimated number of victims. Information is transferred to the responsible off-site logistician who then calculates the necessary amount of supplies.
- (2) *Procurement of Relief Goods*: According to Thomas (2007), the first appeal for cash and in-kind donations is usually initiated within 36 hours of the occurrence of a catastrophe. The mobilization of relief supplies is dependent on the response of donors: i.e. if not enough funds are available then relief operations cannot be accomplished. Logisticians check which types and quantities of relief goods are demanded and assess availability of pre-positioned supplies, for example at a humanitarian organisation's central warehouse or at local sources. Everything else that is not directly available to the organisation is globally procured through competitive bidding (Beamon & Balcik, 2008).
- (3) *Transportation of Relief Supplies*: The relief supplies are shipped to the disaster-struck region depending on the availability of transportation assets, on the location where the disaster occurred, and on the existence of pre-negotiated contracts with suppliers. Also, goods need to be customs cleared upon arrival in the destination country and further transported to secondary and tertiary hubs.

It is important to note that while supplies are pushed through the supply network in the immediate response to a catastrophe, a pull approach is adapted in the reconstruction phase of disaster relief operations (Long & Wood, 1995; Kovács & Spens, 2007).

A push logistics system refers to a supply chain where each available resource is utilized in order to produce as many goods as possible without taking into account the actual demand. A pull supply chain, however, considers real customer demand instead of sales forecasts to determine the amount of produced items (Womack & Jones, 1996, Christopher, 2005). Hence, the customers "pull" the products through the system, resulting in lower inventory levels and a potentially higher capability of existing resources to meet the specific needs of customers within budgetary constraints. In the beginning of a relief

operation, when demand is unclear, resources are pushed through the supply network. In the construction phase, however, actual needs are more accurately known and goods can be pulled through the system, guaranteeing a more efficient supply of resources due as well to the correction of possible mistakes that were made in the beginning of the operation.

2.3.2.2 Stakeholder management and funding constraints

Although, the structure and processes of a humanitarian relief chain might be broadly similar to a traditional commercial supply chain and the competencies as well as expertise necessary to perform logistics activities might be regarded as nearly equal in both sectors (University of Arkansas, 2005), various differences can be highlighted.

Two major factors that distinguish commercial supply chains from humanitarian relief chains refer to stakeholders and funding constraints. According to Beamon and Balcik (2008) the large number of stakeholders involved in relief operations, along with their often conflicting expectations and interests, exacerbates the hierarchical arrangement of aims in disaster relief logistics. Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) refer to this process as producing ambiguous objectives. The stakeholders' unknown level of devotedness, which is also dependent on the organisations' mandates (operational boundaries), size and the presence of each individual agency in the field, contribute to the development of ambiguous objectives (Kovács & Spens, 2009). Due to the high pressure from donors, with regard to solely funding projects that conform to their agendas, consistent funding cannot be guaranteed. This pressure results mainly in focusing on direct relief operations only, rather than contributing to disaster preparedness and ultimately enhancing overall relief activities in the long-term.

A further difficulty related to donors is the role of the media in disaster relief operations (Van Wassenhove, 2006). Aid organisations rely on donations from various sources and these sources need to be publicly informed about the distress of those affected by a disaster. However, aid agencies also have to cope with unsolicited donations, which may create bottlenecks within the supply network leading to delays in the distribution of much needed goods. Commercial companies are usually not affected by such constraints.

Another characteristic that is related to funding constraints is the use of modern technologies for tracking and tracing relief goods and stock control. This is further complicated by the unpredictability of resources (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009): with regard to the total number of staff involved, the amount of capital available, and the state of the local infrastructure. Due to a high turnover rate of field personnel, aid organisations often lack skilled volunteers that are readily deployable in disaster areas. Furthermore, aid agencies have limited capital available for their operations and often have to wait for a long time until donations can be transferred, due to a complex financial supply chain.

Accurate information on resource capacities for example, and on the demand for relief supplies, is often scarcely available due to a lack of information systems and software (Beamon & Balcik, 2008; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Tracking and tracing in humanitarian supply chains is in many cases only superficially conducted utilising Microsoft Excel spreadsheets. This decreases visibility with regard to incoming shipments and goods in transit and might lead to delays in customs clearance and in ongoing transportation to central warehouses. It also undermines the implementation of an accurate performance measurement system due to the lack of reliable and accessible information.

Nevertheless, when measuring the overall system efficiency, humanitarian aid agencies focus on output performance measures, such as the required time for the actual provision of help after the occurrence of a disaster (Thomas, 2002), or the ability of an organisation to provide various relief supplies in a timely manner (Beamon & Balcik, 2008). This is in contrast to businesses, which focus on resource performance measures: for example, on profit maximisation.

Commercial logistics companies, on the other hand, operate supply chains in less restricted environments (Beamon & Balcik, 2008), so that service providers, when investing in improvements to their supply chain, are not usually limited by external forces such as donors. Hence, commercial companies often increase their performance by investing in modern information technology, which provides them with a competitive advantage and oftentimes enhances the effectiveness of their logistics processes due to accurate information transfer. However, aid agencies experience high pressure from donors who determine the use of their donated resources as this influence further complicates the rapid and coordinated accomplishment of processes.

2.3.2.3 Complexity and transparency of disaster relief operations

Overall, in a business environment, strategic, tactical, and operational supply chain management techniques and strategies are well developed and this attribute of business supply chain management supports the achievement of the company's objectives and customer expectations. Hence, a relatively high transparency of processes can be achieved: in contrast to relief chain operations where there is often a lack of control over the activities due to the complex nature of an emergency situation (Kovacs & Spens, 2007).

Dispersion and complexity can be named as further characteristics that impede the accomplishment of logistics processes during relief operations (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Disasters can occur at anytime, anywhere, and claim any number of victims. This high uncertainty in humanitarian supply chains is manifested in unexpected changes to supply and demand, the unpredictable amount and quality of resources provided, sudden shifts in the operational environment, and transportation capacity limitations (Kovács & Spens, 2009).

While demand patterns of for-profit organisations generally include products and services, demand for disaster relief operations usually encompasses relief supplies and people (Beamon, 2004; Beamon & Balcik, 2008), the supply of which is often limited (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Hence, the required supplies in a disaster-struck region can only be accurately defined after the existing need is identified (Beamon, 2004; Beamon & Balcik, 2008) depending on the type and size of the catastrophe as well as the social and economic characteristics of the operating environment. In disaster relief, the pattern of demand is, therefore, rapidly changing due to timing, location and scale (Murray, 2005; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Arminas (2005) states that "purchasing and logistics for major disaster relief is like having the client from hell – you never know beforehand what they want, when they want it, how much they want and even where they want it sent" (p. 14).

Commercial organisations, in contrast, usually deal with relatively stable demand patterns from known customers and with a pre-assigned set of suppliers and manufacturers (Cassidy, 2003). Therefore, the order fulfilment procedures of aid agencies vary greatly from those of for-profit companies. First, zero lead time (no early warning) between the occurrence of a disaster (demand) and the actual

need for relief supplies can be considered as a factor that is in stark contrast to traditional commercial supply chains. According to Beamon and Balcik (2008) commercial companies often have lead times of a few days between their order placement and the actual need for the product. Second, the state of the distribution network is a further element that needs to be taken into consideration. Humanitarian aid agencies have to cope with a high degree of uncertainty about the demand location, which is a symptom of a range of causes including the damaged local infrastructure (Long & Wood, 1995), political instability (blocking of arrival of relief supplies), looting, and topographical challenges that obstruct access to the crisis region (Beam & Balcik, 2008; Kovacs & Spens, 2007).

In addition, the distribution network must be able to start and stop the supply of goods at very short notice due to the fact that both the source and the destination of relief supplies can shift rapidly (Long & Wood, 1995). Also, the infrastructure in disaster areas is usually poorly developed and not capable of handling the unexpected rise in demand or resources: with the result of a “lack of possibilities to assure quality of food and medical supplies” (Kovács & Spens, 2007, p. 108). Finally, each humanitarian operation brings together a completely new formation of organisations and teams that might have only imprecise links with each other and thus lack efficient cooperation and coordination.

Language barriers, not just between locals and aid workers but also between humanitarian aid organisations (Long & Wood, 1995), hamper the distribution of appropriate supplies (Kovacs & Spens, 2007) due to the occurrence of misunderstandings. Long and Wood (1995) state that collaborating aid organisations may use differing statistical measurements during their assessment processes, and thus could make translation errors resulting in major misunderstandings.

The urgency of response after a catastrophe is a further characteristic of humanitarian interventions. It can be argued that humanitarians are exposed to highly complex and intense processes with regard to the amount of activities to be planned, coordinated and accomplished in a very limited timeframe.

Further, transportation assets are often limited, which exacerbates problems with pre-planning the distribution of goods. This is unlike the commercial supply chain which is usually pre-established, reliable and unchanged, so that with the aid of a known number of transport assets the distribution of goods and services can be accomplished. In addition, commercial distribution networks are designed for repetitious utilisation.

An emergency environment also means that the relief chain is often controlled by political actors or military forces rather than by transportation and inventory cost deliberations (Long & Wood, 1995). Hence, food or other resources might be stolen by armed forces or used as bribes in order to maintain the supply of relief goods. Moreover, the availability and distribution of relief supplies is of higher importance than minimal stock levels. Security issues with regard to the storage and transport of goods need to be taken into consideration as well. According to Long and Wood (1995), warehouses need to be protected against theft: especially food depots as these “can become armed fortresses” (p. 222). Truck shipments of relief supplies might be endangered due to the fact that trucks are frequently robbed, shot at, or bogged down.

Beamon and Balcik (2008) state that once a disaster has occurred, suppliers often increase their prices for high demand products, a practice which is further exacerbated by the necessity to procure goods from different suppliers each time a disaster occurs. For-profit organisations that are not dealing with commodities often benefit from relatively consistent prices over a longer time period.

Another factor complicating disaster relief operations is their customer structure: with regard to humanitarian aid organisations this is represented in the aid recipients (Beamon & Balcik, 2008). In contrast to the customers of commercial organisations, the beneficiaries of aid are not in a position to choose between different products available on the market and to choose the one that best meets their criteria, for example in terms of quality and price. Therefore, Beamon and Balcik (2008) argue that “the aid recipient operates in an unregulated monopoly, where the stakes associated with supplies are often life or death” (p. 6). Kovacs and Spens (2007) further support this argument by stating that a true demand is not generated by the “customers”: rather it is assessed by aid workers. As a consequence, customers as defined in the “corporate world” do not exist in humanitarian relief chains. Furthermore, a contract between humanitarian aid organisations and beneficiaries determining rules and regulations for the provision of the service or goods also does not exist.

The data suggests that the main factors that differentiate commercial supply chains from relief chains are the operating environment, the humanitarian aid organisation’s focus on transportation resources, and real-time communication. By contrast, strategies, processes, and capital investments are

prioritised in commercial activities (Long & Wood, 1995), as well as challenges with regard to the order fulfilment procedures.

In other words: “imagine the logistics involved in planning an event like the Olympics. Now imagine planning the same event but not knowing when or where it will take place, how many spectators will attend, or how many athletes will compete. The near impossibility of this task gives some insight into what humanitarian logisticians are up against. [...] logistical shortcomings and oversights in the humanitarian context may result in serious consequences for the victims of disasters and could literally mean the difference between life and death.” (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. “inside cover”).

In order to contribute to the improvement in reactivity of humanitarian aid organisations, the next paragraph seeks to outline how commercial logistics providers can assist relief work through engaging in cross-sector collaborations to accommodate demand in the field.

2.4 Cross-sector collaborations

“Increasingly the focus of NGO’s eyes on companies is turning away from funding in isolation towards the issue of “humanizing capitalism” – perhaps the key task of the 21st century”.

(Edwards, 1999, p.144)

This section provides insights into cross-learning opportunities for both businesses and humanitarian aid agencies, and points out the possible benefits and disadvantages when establishing partnerships between the two. Furthermore, challenges and risks involved when setting up a corporate-humanitarian collaboration are highlighted and critical success factors revealed.

2.4.1 Introduction

For many years, businesses have played an important role in humanitarian aid operations: donating relief supplies, such as cash or in-kind donations and services, to various leading humanitarian aid agencies through philanthropic

programmes or contractual partnerships, alliances, or coalitions with differing levels of formality (Austin, 2000). However, in recent years, especially since the earthquake and resulting tsunami that affected South Asia in 2004 as well as Hurricane Katrina in 2005, the number of commercial organisations involved in relief operations has increased significantly (Thomas & Fritz, 2006; Murray, 2005; Van Wassenhove, 2006; Binder & Witte, 2007). This increase in participation is reflected in the fact that companies today more often provide more than just logistical assistance or building material on the basis of accountability or a charity budget but are actively developing more straightforward procedures for supporting relief activities (Binder & Witte, 2007). Thus, it can be predicated that new types of business commitment in disaster relief operations might develop out of the current climate.

According to Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2006) cross-sector collaborations are defined as “partnerships involving government, business, nonprofits and philanthropies, communities, and/or the public as a whole [in order to link or share] (..) information, resources, activities, and capabilities by organizations in two or more sectors to achieve jointly an outcome that could not be achieved by organizations in one sector separately” (p. 44).

Collaborative structures generally differ in the degree of formality: from casual, onetime, or episodic engagements through to supremely formalised contractual cross-sector cooperation (Simo & Bies, 2007). Such collaborations usually aim at enhancing public good as well as including some form of private sector and non-profit enterprise involvement. Arrangements between organisations also range on a spectrum from those that are hardly related to each other to those where there is joint authority and the capacity for solving problems equally.

Various reasons for cross-sector engagements can be highlighted. First is the presence of a shared power-world involving various organisations, groups, and communities that might each be more or less affected or responsible with regard to public challenges (Crosby & Bryson, 2005). A second factor to be taken into consideration is the increasing pressure on companies by their stakeholders to improve the corporate image by actively operating according to the approach of corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009; Van Wassenhove, 2006; Maon, Lindgreen & Vanhamme, 2009).

On one hand, it can be argued that private-sector companies only agree to collaborations with not-for-profit organisations in order to enhance their image and their share prices: focusing solely on profit, which is not in accordance with the values and beliefs of humanitarian aid agencies. Hence, critics contend that the more businesses are involved in humanitarian aid work the weaker the practice of humanitarian principles becomes (Binder & Witte, 2007). In the worst case, donor funding might be completely suppressed by public subscription to this sentiment.

On the other hand, not-for-profit organisations benefit from such a collaboration by means of gaining new knowledge and sharing best practices: benefits that contribute to the overall efficiency of relief work. Furthermore, increased competition within the area of humanitarian aid and disaster relief work might even contribute to the reduction of failures in disaster relief operations while simultaneously enhancing value for money (Binder & Witte, 2007). Nevertheless, the real impetus for establishing collaborations might be found in the realisation that a single enterprise is not able to achieve its humanitarian goals and objectives without cooperating (Roberts, 2001). In other words, collaboration is essential to the achievement of the individual goals that enterprises have in disaster relief operations.

Extreme events, such as natural and man-made disasters, require businesses and non-profit organisations to collaborate for the purpose of efficient relief operations in the aftermath of such catastrophes. Binder and Witte (2007) explain that the majority of collaborations are in the fields of logistics, information technology and telecommunications, inasmuch as humanitarian aid organisations most likely need support in these areas.

2.4.2 Types of collaborations

Various ways that companies engage in cross-sector links can be identified. Binder and Witte (2007) divide business initiatives into three categories: namely, (1) single company engagement initiatives, (2) partnership initiatives, and, (3) meta initiatives.

Single company engagement refers to engagements established by a single company, which are usually launched in the aftermath of a disaster or crisis and managed by the corporation's CSR (corporate social responsibility) department. Such initiatives may range from solely philanthropic activities, such

as the provision of employee donations, through to the development, coordination, and implementation of humanitarian aid and relief activities in disaster-struck regions. This may include the despatch of company employees in disaster areas for actively coordinating and accomplishing relief efforts, or the provision of in-kind donations.

Thomas and Fritz (2006) suggest that organisations that have decided to participate in a philanthropic programme should develop an unambiguous donation process before aid is actually required. They further state that, at best, private sector companies engage with aid agencies in such initiatives that require exactly the goods or services the company provides. It is also essential that clear arrangements, with regard to the beginning and end of the period of donation, are provided, and where applicable shipping, tracking and tracing strategies, as well as a clear definition of the degree of public visibility of these procedures must be in place.

The pharmaceutical company Abbott Laboratories and the American Red Cross can be named as an example of a single company philanthropic partnership. Abbot Laboratories agreed upon the arrangement of providing the American Red Cross with relief kits (antibiotics, baby food, etc.) in case of a catastrophe. Once a significant disaster has occurred, the requisite operations are up and running following a single phone call from either partner. Thus, both parties involved can benefit from the initiative through higher brand awareness and staff goodwill as well as the ability to respond with faster and more efficient reactions to the consequences of a disaster (Thomas & Fritz, 2006).

With regard to a single company integrative initiative, both parties involved profit from the strength of their respective core competencies, in terms of reducing inefficiencies in their processes. A lack of trust between aid agencies and private sector companies, and the significant differences in humanitarian principles versus business objectives, may contribute to the fact that only a few such arrangements exist. However, the collaboration between TNT and the World Food Programme, and that between UPS and Care are examples of single company integrative engagements. This type of engagement among others will be further elaborated in Chapter 5.

Another type of engagement is that of *partnerships between businesses and traditional humanitarian aid organisations*, such as nongovernmental

organisations (NGOs), the United Nations (UN), and other bilateral development organisations (Binder & Witte, 2007). Such partnerships might consist solely of two parties, i.e. between a commercial logistics provider and a humanitarian agency (for example, the collaboration between DHL and the UN) or they may encompass multiple organisations in cooperation with each other.

Finally, *meta-initiatives* refer to a pool of businesses and other actors with the purpose of improving relief operations through enhanced coordination and knowledge sharing.

Thomas and Fritz (2006) further divide partnerships into *multi-company philanthropic* and *multi-company integrative partnerships*. They argue that on one hand, a partnership solely based on financial philanthropy might be more helpful for aid organisations due to the fact that “companies don’t always have what the agencies they deal with want, nor do they necessarily know which agencies want what they can contribute best” (Thomas & Fritz, 2006, p. 120). On the other hand, multi-company integrative partnerships pool the expert knowledge, goods, services, and best practices of a greater number of various firms. Hence, such a broad partnership might have the capability to satisfy the needs of multiple aid agencies.

The Disaster Resource Network (DRN) and the Partnership for Disaster Response are examples of multi-company philanthropic partnerships. Member organisations of the Partnership for Disaster Response are required to name their contributions before a disaster takes place so that resources can be matched to appropriate relief organisations. The DRN, however, allocates business donations that are collected during the aftermath of a disaster to the requirements of aid organisations.

The rapid and accurate assessment of the needs of relief agencies and the efficient passing on of this information to the business members, as well as the timeliness of their subsequent response, can be regarded as difficulties in such partnerships. Clear arrangements, with regard to the type of emergencies that require donations and the funding and coordination of such networks, can be viewed as further contentious points that need to be negotiated (Thomas & Fritz, 2006).

Meta-initiatives, as representative of an integrative approach, aim at “systematising and formalising” disaster relief operations (Binder & Witte, 2007,

p. 10). Thus, through interaction between humanitarians and business experts, innovative ideas and acknowledging behaviour is promoted. However, one can bring forward the argument that the promotion of brand awareness is less prominent with multi-company partnerships due to a more convoluted path to recognition of the brands involved compared with the direct recognition presented by a single company integrative partnership; thus, long term gains on the part of the companies involved may be hard to identify. In addition, the level of control concerning the choice of projects and the codetermination of the overall direction of efforts might be an inferior position for these companies compared with single company partnerships (Thomas & Fritz, 2006).

From this data, it can be inferred that launching single company partnerships before a catastrophe occurs and its aftermath is felt, that is, before aid is actually needed, is highly effective and an efficient method of applying partnership resources to disaster relief. However, multi-company partnerships may in some cases be more effective due to their possession of a broader pool of skills, services, and equipment than a single company is able to provide. Engaging in a corporate-humanitarian partnership (business with nongovernmental organisation) can enable the partners to build capacity between disasters from which both partners can benefit in an emergency situation. Nevertheless, all three types of engagement support the transfer of value for mutual benefit, which is according to Tennyson (2003), the essence of collaborations.

2.4.3 Benefits

Cross-sector collaborations in the humanitarian aid sector, not just with governments and the military but with commercial companies, are becoming increasingly important. Although, both types of organisations have very different characteristics – humanitarian aid agencies are usually bureaucratic and slow-moving, whereas businesses are action-oriented and competitive – various cross-learning possibilities are present. For the purpose of understanding the motivations behind such collaborations, the benefits for both businesses and humanitarian aid agencies are discussed.

2.4.3.1 Corporate image and identity

Regardless of which element one considers to be the principal motivation for businesses in establishing cross-sector collaborations, the majority of academics agree that the increased importance of corporate social responsibility (CSR) has contributed to a rise in corporate-humanitarian partnerships.

According to Jamali and Keshishian (2008) CSR encompasses “the principles, processes, practices, and activities adopted by a corporation beyond its pursuit of economic responsibility for its shareholders and beyond compliance with regulations, which contribute to the improvement of the welfare of its stakeholders or specific constituency groups and societal segments” (p. 278). In other words, companies benefit from CSR in the sense of gaining social benefits, together with their overall economic profit, by encouraging public interest and freely eradicating processes that harm the general public in an anticipatory manner.

While the power and impact of corporations on society and on the environment has increased significantly, stakeholders’ pressure on their companies’ strategies and practices has also gained similar levels of momentum. Today’s financial markets enable investors to trade stocks freely: they lead to increased competition among companies, and they allow customers to become informed and demanding (Jamali & Keshishian, 2008).

Particularly, NGOs exert leverage on businesses demanding that they publicize their strategies with regard to environmental and social conscience. However, it can be argued that pressure groups show an increasing willingness to cooperate with private sector companies in favour of mutual goals within the context of CSR (Conley & Williams, 2005). In addition, executive board members can expand their business processes by implementing long-term value added through cross-sectoral partnerships (Hardjono & Marrewijk, 2001). Both parties involved might be in favour of the partnership because they have come to understand that collaborations can have considerable impact on the effectiveness of an organisation’s processes and can even have a positive impact on the society as a whole.

On one hand, the question arises whether businesses should implement the principles of CSR into their company culture altogether and to this end invest

the shareholders' money in relief operations. On the other hand, Porter and Kramer (1999) argue that "the more social improvements relate to a company's business the more it leads [sic] to economic benefit as well" (p. 130). Thus, it can be derived that a cross-sector collaboration may only be successful when the CSR principles are in accordance with the company's strategies and focus on its core competences.

Collaborations may be profitable for both parties involved if their social and economic values overlap (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Doubtlessly, enterprises have to demonstrate the social and economic benefits their partnership with a humanitarian organisation provides to stakeholders and to the company itself (Van Wassenhove, 2006). This is due to the fact that the organisation in part invests the stakeholders' money in establishing and managing the partnership with a humanitarian aid organisation and this course of action may not be initially beneficial. Hence, companies need to make sure that the collaboration is adding value for both the stakeholders and the organisation.

2.4.3.2 Mutual benefits

According to Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009), CSR (corporate social responsibility) can be regarded as an essential non-financial performance indicator for businesses that optimally results in an enhanced company image and rising share prices. However, one can bring forward the argument that although both actors show increased affinity for engaging in some sort of partnership, their motives may still be different.

On one hand, companies focus on improved corporate brand awareness and recognition (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009; Van Wassenhove, 2006; Binder & Witte, 2007), extended knowledge in the field of CSR (Arya & Salk, 2006), as well as an improvement in process efficiency and the bottom line (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). The humanitarian aid organisations' motive, on the other hand, might be best summarised as, solving complex societal issues, increasing the availability of funding resources, and enhancing the effectiveness of disaster relief activities (Melaville & Blank, 1993).

It is, however, well-recognised that successful cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid have the capability to exploit the business partners' core

competencies in order to enhance disaster response and eventually disaster mitigation for mutual benefit from various competencies (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009; Jamali & Keshishian, 2008). Concerning the private sector, the main contributions to collaborative partnerships can be regarded as especially the availability of finances and modern technologies, but also to the provision of recent logistical software solutions that may be useful for efficiently coordinating relief operations, special managerial skills and expert knowledge, as well as creativity and zest for action (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009; Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008). Humanitarians, on the other side, provide insights into areas of interest for businesses, such as the ability to form supply chains that are agile and rapidly adaptable to changing circumstances (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009; Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008), and they can be regarded as being mission driven and able to reach people in need (Jamali & Keshishian, 2008).

Further advantages are the delivery of fast and effective support during relief operations through the provision of resources, such as cash donations, goods or volunteers. These, ideally, ready accessible resources can contribute to the building of capacity between disasters with regard to improved relief goods and further training leading to potentially faster and more effective disaster response.

Another factor to be taken into consideration is staff motivation. Businesses are constantly looking for opportunities to increase the motivation of their employees in order to reduce staff turnover and to attract potential employees. By engaging in a partnership with a humanitarian agency for the purpose of actively reducing human suffering caused by catastrophes, companies anticipate a positive impact on staff morale, motivation and their loyalty towards the company (Binder & Witte, 2007; Van Wassenhove, 2006). This impact can be further enlarged upon through the direct involvement of staff in disaster relief operations. However, no reliable data demonstrating a positive or negative influence on employee morale in the case of business engagement in humanitarian aid is available at the time of writing.

A further generally accepted motivation for businesses and NGOs alike is the possibility of cross-learning through knowledge transfer and the exchange of best practices. Being involved in relief operations provides companies with

insight into how best to operate in environments characterised by social and political difficulties and poor infrastructure. Thus, firms are able to test different management styles and strategies in stressful situations in order to optimise their performance when coordinating their own global supply chains. Enterprises are often affected by the aftermath of catastrophes so that they can also take advantage of their experience in relief operations for creating their own disaster response strategies and thereby enhance product development (Binder & Witte, 2007).

According to Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009), humanitarian aid organisations truly benefit in two main senses: namely back-office support for the purpose of improving the degree of preparedness for disasters and also with regard to logistical issues to do with the transportation of essential resources during catastrophes.

Back-office support refers to the establishment of reliable contracts with suppliers and service providers with the aim of improving and strengthening relationships with various partners. In addition, the provision of communication assets and the development of information channels contribute to the visibility of processes, and simultaneously may result in more efficient planning and forecasting (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

In order to assist humanitarians with *the movement* of much needed assets to beneficiaries, businesses should supply resources, such as aeroplanes and office or warehouse space, as well as communication instruments that are readily accessible. As a consequence of forward planning, companies can rapidly access their resources and make them available to the humanitarian aid agencies for assisting their operations.

Finally, cross-sector partnerships might provide the possibility to access new business areas that would otherwise be hard or even impossible to enter (Van Wassenhove, 2006; Binder & Witte, 2007). Therefore, both humanitarian aid organisations and commercial companies are able to build networks with various stakeholders who may bring a positive contribution to their operations and to the communities affected by catastrophes. With the support of businesses and aid organisations, there is potential to accelerate the disaster recovery activities, in a way that profits both the private sector as well as the local economy affected by the catastrophe.

In summary, the main benefits that cross-sector partnerships can provide are innovative ideas to challenges, access to a wider range of resources, dynamic new networks, a better understanding of each partner's values and attributes, and knowledge transfer for achieving common and complementary goals. However, even though there are a great number of advantages that partnerships create, challenges and risks do exist.

2.4.4 Challenges and risks

Establishing effective cross-sector collaborations in the area of humanitarian aid involves various issues and challenges that need to be overcome. First of all, negative stereotypes, with regard to aims and objectives as well as cultural differences and the associated values and beliefs, are prevalent on both sides. According to Heap (2000), not-for-profit organisations usually view themselves in a partnership with a private company as not on equal footing and believe that their interests are less likely to be taken into consideration leading to the circumstance that most of the benefits of the partnership will stay with the company. He further states that while the private sector generally regards not-for-profit organisations as "idealists and undisciplined by the reality of the market place" (p. 558), the humanitarian sector often sees firms as "unreliable, having prospered at the expense of everyone else" (p. 558).

Van Wassenhove, Tomasini, and Stapleton (2008) argue that the scepticism of humanitarians towards executives is based on the fact that businesses might refrain from the partnership or reduce their level of commitment once conflicts or problems arise. For example, a firm's subsidiary is being closed down in an area where aid projects are in progress and thus does not further support the operations. This might lead to underfunded projects and finally to the failure of the relief project. However, contract clauses that regulate an exit strategy for all partners in such a critical situation can be adopted in the forefront of the collaboration.

It is often stated that partnerships between businesses and humanitarian aid organisations might lead to the undermining of humanitarian principles (Global Public Policy Institute, 2009; Binder & Witte, 2007; Wassenhove, Tomasini, & Stapleton, 2008). According to Ballou (2004) three main objectives

upon which commercial companies plan their logistics concepts can be named: cost reduction, capital reduction, and service improvement.

Cost reduction refers to the decrease in overall costs for transporting and storing goods. The objective, *capital reduction*, is directed to the minimization of investment in logistics activities and to the simultaneous increase in the return on logistics assets. The last of the three objectives, *service improvement*, focuses on increasing profit by enhancing customer value. Therefore, Beamon and Balcik (2008), define the strategic goal of a for-profit organisation as “producing profit and high quality goods or services corresponding to customer goals and values” (p. 5).

On the contrary, a relief supply chain focuses, unlike a commercial supply chain, on minimizing human suffering as far as possible in consideration of financial constraints. According to Moore (2000), mission effectiveness and financial sustainability can be identified as the two bottom lines of humanitarian aid organisations in contrast to businesses focusing primarily on the financial bottom line. He further states that the value an aid agency tries to achieve is determined by the actual relief operation, so that the current mission effectiveness can be regarded as the measurement upon which future performance will be evaluated; whereas in the for-profit sector, financial performance is the benchmark for evaluating past activities and for planning future operations.

Thus, a great challenge is to bring both the businesses’ objectives and goals and the humanitarians’ principles and goals together in order to form equally beneficial partnerships. However, Van Wassenhove, Tomasini, and Stapleton (2008) raise the question of how this can be monitored and evaluated with regard to business terms. Additionally, the lack of appropriate measurement techniques might even threaten the partnership due to the fact that the actual value of collaboration for each partner might not be evaluable.

Binder and Witte (2007) identified in their study that few executives are actually acquainted with humanitarian principles. They further maintain that businesses would rather donate resources for disasters the public is aware of than for less publicly acknowledged emergencies, such as famine. It is often argued that commercial organisations prefer to engage in disaster response operations rather than in disaster preparedness and mitigation and if true this might be due to the lack of visibility of a company’s efforts in the absence of a catastrophe. Thus, the choice that businesses have over which project to get

involved in may contribute a further challenge to corporate-humanitarian collaborations. Van Wassenhove, Tomasini, and Stapleton (2008) argue that companies usually choose projects that are located in countries known to the business through pre-existing operations, or projects characterised by relatively low-cost and low risk for the company but with high potential of publicity for their efforts.

This is further supported by Thomas and Fritz (2006) who state that companies usually donate assets in the case of well-publicized catastrophes only, rather than providing assistance for less familiar emergencies. Humanitarian aid agencies, however, choose their projects based on need, which is very often found in neglected parts of the world unfamiliar to the public (Wassenhove, Tomasini, & Stapleton, 2008).

Thomas and Fritz (2006) further point out that aid organisations harbour mistrust towards businesses due to indiscriminate donations that have been made in the past, such as in the form of expired food or medicines donated to disaster-struck areas. It may be concluded that companies are more focused on branding concerns rather than maintaining proportionality in their events. However, Binder and Witte (2007) highlight that no evidence could be found that decisions are made without incorporating need.

Nevertheless, the differing cultures of private and not-for-profit organisations do not automatically imply that business engagements cannot be established in accordance with humanitarian principles. The inclusion of special contract clauses determining the terms of adherence to humanitarian guidelines in the agreement ensures the prevention of future misunderstandings (Global Public Policy Institute, 2009).

Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) point out that even if both parties involved might have competencies in common (e.g. logistics), each of them, however, has different routines and well established methods that help them manage the various tasks. This might lead to problems in their cooperation that hinder the smooth conduct of their processes. This challenge can be overcome by assessing the needs, expectations, and concerns at the beginning of the collaboration and before the advent of a disaster.

Moreover, although the transfer of knowledge constitutes a major benefit of corporate-humanitarian collaborations, Szulanski (2003) identified various factors that may hinder this process (Table 2.1):

Arduous relations: <i>“ease of communications and intimacy of the overall relationship”</i> (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 160).	Absorptive capacity: <i>“inability to exploit outside sources of knowledge”</i> (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 163).	Causal ambiguity: <i>“when the reasons for success or failure in replicating a best practice in a new setting cannot be determined”</i> (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 161).
Lack of trust and interface at all levels	Lack of resources	Insufficient contact
Insufficient knowledge of each other’s world	Too few staff	Lack of common language
Distance and difference in methodologies and environments	Lack of skills	Lack of understanding of transferable practices
Lack of confidence in long-term commitment and willingness to engage	No recognition of need to learn	Irreducible uncertainty with regard to the re-creation of transferred knowledge

TABLE 2.1: BARRIERS TO KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER (ADAPTED FROM SZULANSKI, 2002; AND VAN WASSENHOVE, TOMASINI & STAPLETON, 2008)

The following statement illustrates these barriers to knowledge transfer:

“I may be very motivated and willing to learn but we are 5,000km apart and do not meet regularly (arduous relationship). I don’t really understand what these other guys are doing and why it works for them (causal ambiguity). I am constantly over-stressed (limited absorptive capacity) so transferring a best practice from them to me is not going to work. ”

(Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 160)

These barriers also imply that the knowledge of one organisation might not be suitable to the partner organisation's needs. Hence, both partners need to adapt the information to suit their situation in order to benefit from it.

A further challenge resulting from conflicting objectives and interests is based on the degree of involvement and the position of each party in the cooperation. Companies might want to obtain as much publicity as possible whereas humanitarian aid organisations focus more on the adherence to humanitarian principles during their relief operations and try to avoid becoming involved in economic and political agendas (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Obscure and unpleasant press releases might even result in damage of the image or questioning of the validity of either actor. However, this risk can be reduced by negotiating the conditions of communication techniques and public relations. Tennyson (2003) states that working together in a partnership can lead to split loyalties and that partners may feel pressured by the other affiliate to compromise on their own goals.

Another issue might be the differing degree of commitment of each of an organisation's employees. Decisions for or against collaborations are commonly leadership-driven: i.e. important senior executives feel obliged to donate assets to people in need (Binder & Witte, 2007). Nevertheless, this behaviour does not guarantee the same level of commitment from employees at the operational level. After all, it is the employees at the operational levels who are required to make a partnership work (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

Appropriate resources and effective management need to be put in place in order to successfully set up the partnership and retain the motivation of the parties involved for keeping it up and running. Thus, each actor needs to define needs and service levels in order to meet the expectations that each partner holds for the engagement. These expectations should be identified in the beginning of the collaboration, and if possible any concerns should be discussed in an open and non-judgemental dialogue (Tennyson, 2003).

Both businesses and humanitarian aid organisations might not be willing to hand over responsibilities or activities for which they believe they are able to achieve the best outcome themselves (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Tennyson (2003), however, argues that engaging in a partnership inevitably leads to a loss of autonomy in the fields of joint work. For aid organisations, any

unwillingness to share responsibilities with a business might be rooted in the circumstance that the staff of humanitarian aid organisations often fear that businesses do not appreciate the validity of humanitarian aid work and instead may criticise their activities (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008).

Companies, therefore, might tend to provide resources that are not necessarily needed, just to attract public attention in the first days of a disaster, and this practice generally leads to a less effective disaster response (Global Public Policy Institute, 2009). This can result in misunderstandings with regard to the actual required assistance in a conflict and double the accomplishment of processes, which simultaneously lead to higher transaction costs for both actors.

It can, however, be argued that the avoidance of integrating businesses into the pre-planning processes of humanitarian aid organisations can also lead to an increased indifference within companies towards relief support due to their inability to assist as much as they otherwise could. For the purpose of avoiding such scenarios, engagement rules concerning the areas in which organisations should work together in order to achieve the optimal impact on processes, instead of individually attempting to achieve the best results in each area, need to be determined (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

According to Tennyson (2003), guiding principles “provide the ‘cement’ that holds the partnership together over time” (p. 6). Nevertheless, guidelines should allow some level of flexibility in order to respond most efficiently to needs in an environment characterised by a high level of uncertainty.

Another factor to be taken into consideration is the development of an efficient relationship management in order to create a point of intersection that unites the core competencies of each actor. The area of engagement and point of time when support is needed must be clearly determined in order to avoid confusion and to reduce the risk of inefficiency (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008). Furthermore, Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) state that such an interface enables both partners “to build trust, foster mutual respect, and develop a common language and goals” (p. 145).

A further characteristic that might impede cross-sector collaborations is the variance in time frames in which the actors operate. Humanitarian aid organisations usually perform in longer time frames than companies. Thomas and Fritz (2006) report that for aid agencies to issue appropriate guidelines for an

alliance with a business partner might take up to 18 months. Hence, businesses might not be willing or able to invest such great amounts of time in the elaboration of a partnership.

On the other side, firms need to realize that, especially in the beginning of a partnership, finding common ground as well as developing an accepted understanding of values and expectations claims resources, time, and commitment from both partners. Nevertheless, a lack of confidence in long-term obligation and insufficient willingness to engage create a further barrier to the successful establishment of collaborations (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008).

Jeopardizing an aid organisation's public image through partnering with corporations that may be known for scandals is a risk that many organisations do not want to bear (Maon, Lindgreen & Vanhamme, 2009). Furthermore, institutions value their reputation and are worried about whether their image might be negatively affected by the partnership itself or by any future consequences because of the failure of the collaboration (Tennyson, 2003).

It is clear then that the main challenges and risks can be briefly summarised as existing negative sectoral prejudices, such as single-mindedness (businesses) or being overtly bureaucratic (not-for-profit organisations); limitations of individuals leading the collaboration, such as restricted communication, and/or inadequate partnering skills; and organisational limits (i.e. intolerance or conflicting goals).

Regardless of the challenges cross-sector partnerships implicate, a great number of academics agree that the synergies of cooperation between businesses and humanitarian aid organisations outweigh the risks and add value to both partners involved: which can be regarded as the essence of a partnership. Nevertheless, global guidelines need to be developed in order to improve the effectiveness of business engagement in humanitarian aid operations as a response to the inadequacies of many existing contracts. Figure 2.4 summarises the major strengths and weaknesses and opportunities and threats (SWOT) of cross-sector collaborations: as well as suggesting appropriate measures for the achievement of goals and risk reduction.

		Opportunities	Threats
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Improvement of <i>disaster relief</i> operations and <i>disaster mitigation</i> •Enhancement of business operations in emergency situations •Benefiting from improved <i>employee satisfaction & public image</i> •Access to <i>new business areas</i> •Broadening of stakeholder network •Acceleration of disaster recovery activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Differences in <i>organisation culture</i> (aims, objectives, values, & beliefs) •Undermining of humanitarian values/principles •<i>Image damage</i> due to obscure & unpleasant press releases •Lack of <i>transparency</i> may lead to less effective operations & double accomplishment of processes
Strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •<i>Cross-learning</i> opportunities through knowledge transfer •Provision/sharing of scarce resources •Exploitation of <i>core competencies</i> •Exchange of <i>best practices</i> •Access to <i>a wider range of resources</i> •Achievement of <i>mutual goals and benefits</i> •<i>Innovative ideas</i> to complex problems 	Measures	Measures
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Treating collaboration as part of the <i>company's CSR program</i> •Including staff in relief missions •Adapt processes to lessons learned •Provision of <i>readily accessible resources</i> (manpower, transportation assets, cash donations) •<i>Capacity building and training</i> between disasters 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Assessing of <i>needs, expectations, and concerns</i> in the beginning of the collaboration and before disasters •Appropriate resources and <i>effective management</i> need to be in place •<i>Integrating partner</i> into each others pre-planning processes
Weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Organisational limits •Lack of willingness to hand over responsibilities •Lack of <i>clear arrangements</i> •Internal/external <i>communication problems</i> •Different motives for collaboration •Lack of appropriate <i>KPIs</i> 	Measures	Measures
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Clear <i>partnership agreement and exit strategy</i> in place •Flexible guiding principles •<i>Engagement rules</i> where, when, and how organisations can get involved in relief efforts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Negotiating the conditions of <i>communication techniques and public relations</i> •Appropriate <i>KPIs</i> for measuring the actual values for the partners •Efficient <i>relationship management</i> in place to create a point of intersection •<i>Contract clauses</i> determining the adherence to humanitarian principles

FIGURE 2.4: SWOT MATRIX OF CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS

2.4.5 Critical success factors for cross-sector collaborations

Working cross-sectorally requires several factors to be taken into account in order to enable the creation of mutually beneficial collaborations. It is important to mention that the research area of humanitarian logistics is quite new: especially its focus on criteria for potential business partners. Therefore, only a small number of appropriate academic articles could be found.

First, partnering principles need to be established at an early stage of the collaboration and need to be approved by all actors. Tennyson (2003) argues that in a cross-sector engagement each party has different priorities and guidelines and it might therefore be difficult for one partner to agree on the

principles of the others. He further states that the principles of equity, transparency, and mutual benefit are essential to successful collaborations.

Equity refers to the equal right of each partner to participate in decision making processes and implies “the validation of those contributions that are not measurable simply in terms of cash value or public profile” (Tennyson, 2003, p. 6).

Transparency in a cross-sector collaboration is a necessity in order to build trust between partners which is often regarded as being one of the main success factors. Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2006) state that trust is both the lubricant and the glue in a collaborative partnership since it enables cooperation between partners and also solidifies the partnership. Hence, the transferring and sharing of data and knowledge between partners and the display of good intentions all contribute to the building of trust. Failing in these areas, on the other hand, impairs mutual trust (Arino & de la Torre, 1998; Merrill-Sands & Sheridan, 1996).

Finally, *mutual benefit* is achieved if specific profits for each party, over the joint benefits, are created. Thus, the achievement of reciprocal benefit can be regarded as an essential factor for sustaining the commitment of individuals in order to maintain a long-term collaboration.

Another factor to be taken into account is that all actors are aware of the risks and rewards that are implied in any kind of engagement. According to Tennyson (2003) all partners need to understand their own potential risks and rewards, as much as they have to be aware of their business partners' risks and rewards, in order to keep to the principle of mutual benefit.

The resources (financial assets, services or goods, access to further organisations, technologies and expertise) that each organisation is able to contribute to the partnership need to be considered prior to engaging in a collaboration in order to increase the effective direction of the engagement (Austin, 2000). Simo and Bies (2007) further support this contention by stating that sufficient organisational capacity is essential to any contribution to effective cross-sector engagements. Consideration of available resources in this way more or less assures the future efficiency of the collaboration because both partners then knowingly have access to a broader range of resources and skills

that may be needed for future operations. It further implies that the interests of both parties are openly discussed for the purpose of obtaining consensus on mutual goals (Tennyson, 2003).

A further success factor is the presence of governance structures in order to avoid future misunderstandings. Organisations have to settle on a partnering agreement that can range from informal to highly formal process structures (Bryson, Crosby, Stone & Saunoi-Sandgren, 2009). Nevertheless, formal agreements may be more efficient with regard to encouraging formal leadership, establishing resource capacities, and expediting decision making, which in conjunction result in the development of longer-range engagement strategies (Bryson, Crosby & Stone, 2006).

It is often stated that successful cross-sector collaborations require the involvement of various individuals who support and promote the partnership at a professional level and from a position of experience in order to improve the engagement's internal and public profile. These individuals can be internal employees or even external brokers who operate on behalf of the business partners at multiple levels and focus on formal leadership roles (e.g. project director, co-chairs of a steering committee) and informal leadership (Tennyson, 2003; Bryson, Crosby & Stone, 2006).

Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2006) argue that the establishment of corporate-humanitarian collaborations is more likely to be effective when "one or more linking mechanisms, such as powerful sponsors, general agreement on the problem, or existing networks, are in place at the time of their initial formation" (p. 46). Hence, businesses and humanitarian aid organisations that have had some degree of engagement in previous operations might consider a closer relationship in the future. Furthermore, organisations that agree on mutual goals and objectives in the beginning of a partnership are more likely to agree on the nature of further steps in their partnership (Huxham & Vangen, 2005).

The success of a collaboration is also dependent upon the individuals' capabilities to manage the partnership in order to create mutual benefits. Thus, allocating responsibilities to individuals and maintaining their commitment to

partnering is of high importance, as is the appropriate evaluation of the partnership's outcomes.

Tennyson (2003) suggests focusing on three main evaluation criteria: impacts of the collaboration's projects on society, the value of the engagement to each individual organisation, and the actual costs and profits of the partnership approach. Thus, it is possible to assess whether the collaboration has effectively achieved the determined goals, has created mutual benefits to all partners, and ultimately whether the chosen approach was the most successful of those available. This, however, presupposes a joint research process to collect and analyse required information.

Van Wassenhove, Tomasini, and Stapleton (2008) further recommend that commercial companies may be able to evaluate the effectiveness of the collaboration through the tracking of press coverage in relation to their efforts and compare the results with an approximate calculation of the degree of advertising, and its requisite expense, that would have been necessary to achieve the same. In addition, internal surveys on the satisfaction of employees could be conducted and the company's rank compared to competitive businesses in league tables may be monitored throughout the partnership.

With regard to evaluation carried out on the humanitarian side, Van Wassenhove, Tomasini, and Stapleton (2008) recommend assessment of the number of lives saved or, for example, the amount of people fed. Beamon and Balcik (2008) further suggest evaluating the delivery flexibility: i.e. the time necessary to respond to a disaster after its occurrence and also the organisation's ability to deliver various types of relief supplies in a timely manner. This need to be contrasted, for example, to the amount of additional donations and humanitarian aid workers necessary in order to achieve the same results. Also, historical data from similar catastrophes could be used to calculate the expenses that would have actually occurred without the assistance of a partner.

Finally, Van Wassenhove, Tomasini, and Stapleton (2008) adapt nine best practices for corporate-humanitarian collaborations (originally developed by the not-for-profit organisation Global Impact) that encompass many of the critical success factors stated above (Figure 2.5):



FIGURE 2.5: BEST PRACTICES FOR CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (ADAPTED FROM VAN WASSENHOVE, TOMASINI & STAPELTON, 2008)

These best practices provide a basic framework upon which humanitarian aid organisations and businesses can build their collaborations in order to create a strong foundation for successful operations. In addition, Hagen (2002) summarises the critical success factors in the four Cs, namely compatibility, capability, commitment and control, all of which are necessary to take into consideration when establishing corporate-humanitarian collaborations.

2.5 Conclusion

Cross-sector collaborations among humanitarian aid organisations are likely to increase over the next few years since humanitarians progressively search for opportunities to enhance disaster response as meanwhile businesses decry the potential to improve corporate social responsibility by engaging in partnerships.

Cooperation between the logistics and humanitarian sector is characterised by constant changes in the modality of collaboration: usually emerging after

momentous catastrophes (Van Wassenhove & Tomasini, 2009). Media coverage of human suffering brought on by the consequences of natural or man-made disasters has steadily strengthened the role of businesses in humanitarian aid from solely philanthropic approaches to more active involvement in relief operations.

On one hand, it is widely accepted that cross-sector engagements between businesses and humanitarian aid agencies can provide mutual benefits for both partners involved. Especially in the field of logistics, which represents 80% of the activities of relief operations, logistics companies can contribute to the improvement of process' efficiency. On the other hand, humanitarians provide companies with the possibility to learn from their supply chain experience in emergency situations. Furthermore, the access that a partnership enables to a broader range of resources, such as financial assets, services or goods, and modern technologies as well as links to other organisations and new networks, can be regarded as major benefits for both partners.

Sharing knowledge and best practices for the purpose of achieving common and complementary goals can make cross-sector collaborations a win-win strategy.

Engagement in a partnership is often accompanied by various challenges and risks. It is important to find a partner organisation that provides "as good a match as you can find to enable the partnership to achieve its objectives" (Tennyson, 2003, p. 9). Nevertheless, challenges such as existing sectoral stereotypes, the lack of a common language and culture, inadequate partnering skills, as well as conflicting goals can make it difficult to establish a successful collaboration, especially in the early days.

Basic guidelines and agreements on the degree of commitment, on how and most notably when firms can support humanitarian aid agencies in their operations, need to be developed. Thus, finding a partner that provides most of the required qualities, is able to commit to a collaboration, and has the potential and resources to successfully establish a close partnership overtime is a challenge that needs to be overcome.

In conclusion, it can be stated that businesses can contribute to the process of enhancing relief operations through collaborations with humanitarian aid agencies, particularly with focus on supply chain processes. However, it is

important to note that not every organisation is able to engage in a partnership. “For some companies, and in some circumstances, less engagement is, in fact, more, and thus organizations should not rule out the alternative option of simply making a cash donation” (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 164).

Nevertheless, Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) further state that “better supply chain management will be a key ingredient in building a solid foundation for tackling the complex humanitarian problems of the future” (p. 166).

The following chapter works to demonstrate the different methods of data collection used in this study.

3. CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This third chapter outlines and discusses the rationale and methods deployed for the data collection of this study: including the gathering of primary data and the review of secondary literature. First, the research design is outlined, followed by the description and reasons for the choice of such data collection methods. This is attended by a discussion of the questionnaire and the chosen sample. Chapter three also highlights the research process of the secondary data and the analysis of the questionnaire results. Finally, credibility, validity, as well as research ethics are considered.

3.2 Research design

A research design refers to the approach used in order to collect and analyse data about a specific research topic. It includes an outline of the researcher's methods, from defining research questions/hypotheses through to the outcome of the study, and the criteria used for evaluating the conducted investigation. Therefore, the research design provides a framework for "the generation of evidence that is suited both to a certain set of criteria and to the research question in which the investigator is interested" (Bryman, 2008, p. 30).

For the purpose of collecting and analysing data about the qualities and success factors of commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies, a cross-sectional research design with secondary analysis of existing data and case studies was chosen.

A cross-sectional design, also called 'survey design' refers to "the collection of data on *more than one case* (...) and at a *single point in time* in order to collect a body of *quantitative* or *quantifiable data* in connection with two or more variables (...), which are then examined to detect *patterns of association* (Bryman, 2008, p. 44).

This approach involves investigation into the variation of results with regard to different cases. Hence, the researcher was able to explore variations between organisations, i.e. various commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations; and people, i.e. different job positions, age, etc. of logistics

employees and humanitarian aid workers. This design requires the collection of primary data on the variables of interest at a single point in time (Graziano & Raulin, 2010).

A questionnaire, which was completed by a determined sample population, served as the principle method for the gathering of primary information. However, this entailed that the data deployed in the study would come from a single data collection phase, since respondents were not post-tested in a later survey: although a comparison of data gathered on population characteristics to results collected at a subsequent date was not possible within this study, subgroups were sampled as defined by age (e.g. 30 to less than 40 years) in order to achieve a sufficient mode of comparison.

The choice of the research design was also based on the timescale and resources available and in particular on the feasibility of the research with some account of hidden or unknown problems that may have prevented it from being completed on time.

Overall, the research method provided a well-founded overview of the current views about cross-sector collaborations.

3.2.1 Deductive versus inductive research approach

In general, research can either be explanatory or descriptive and its findings either deductive or inductive. According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007), there are two ways of designing a research approach. First is the deductive approach, where the researcher creates a hypothesis and chooses a research strategy in order to examine the hypothesis. Hence, the research process is based on a previous logical line of reasoning in order to collect data towards confirming or negating the theory. Secondly is an inductive approach, that essentially works in the opposite way: the researcher collects and analyses data given and designs a theory resulting from information analysis (Saunders Lewis & Thornhill, 2007; Veal, 2005).

This study was based on inductive reasoning since the research process began with the gathering of primary and secondary data which was then analysed with final conclusions drawn from the information thus made available. The decision to follow an inductive approach was based on the fact that cross-sector collaborations in the area of humanitarian aid and disaster relief represent a relatively new phenomenon that has not yet been researched in depth: in

particular with regard to the qualities that commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid agencies require for the establishment of successful partnerships.

However, a sufficient amount of articles based on corporate-humanitarian partnerships were available so that a relatively broad comprehension of the topic could be achieved. Additionally, primary data which was collected through a survey, provided specific information on the investigated topic and this allowed the researcher to develop a theory that displays the analysed results. Finally, it can be argued that an inductive approach left a margin for change in the research emphasis. This was especially helpful at the beginning of the research process since subsections of the topic could be adapted according to the availability of information.

3.2.2 Quantitative and qualitative methods

In terms of methodology, two distinctive approaches for conducting research can be distinguished. First, the quantitative strategy focuses on the quantification of data in the collection and analysis process. Numerical data is collected in order to test hypotheses/theories or draw conclusions (Bryman, 2008). It is often necessary to collect data from a relatively large sample size in order to ensure reliability of results (Veal, 2005). Quantitative methods, such as questionnaires, observation, and information from secondary sources aim at generalising findings of a representative sample studied to a wider population (Veal, 2005).

Qualitative research in contrast, is focused on the collection and analysis of words rather than statistical data (Veal, 2005; Bryman, 2008). Usually, a great amount of information about a smaller number of topics is gathered for the purpose of generating new theories. Qualitative data, however, might not be as representative as quantitative information because of the small sample size, often comprising only a few individuals or organisations, that is necessitated by the higher volume of information to be gathered from each source. Therefore, this approach places its emphasis on a deep understanding of the behaviour and experience of a small sample.

This thesis focuses on the analysis of quantitative information about corporate-humanitarian collaborations. The aim, as far as possible, was to generalise results derived from data collected from a broad sample, which can be

regarded as representative of a wider population. Adapting a quantitative approach enabled the researcher to provide a broad overview of the current trends in this area, which allows subsequent studies to focus on only a few points that might be of high importance to the subject. The principle method for collecting primary data was a questionnaire which mainly resulted in statistical information.

3.3 Method of data collection

3.3.1 Questionnaire

Besides the collection of secondary information, primary data, i.e. “new information collected as part of a research project” (Veal, 2005, p. 28) was gathered through a self-completion questionnaire. Essential advantages of collecting primary data were the connection of this information to the specific research question: the researcher gained insight into first hand information and experiences from selected respondents and to this end encouraged respondents to mention their opinions or to give feedback beyond the scope of the set questions. Thus, the collected information was unique to the researcher’s topic and no one else had the possibility to manipulate it.

It should be noted that gathering primary data was afforded by a high expenditure of time: including time spent designing and conducting the questionnaire, analysing the collected data, and interpreting the findings. According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007) and Veal (2005), the main tool for gaining primary information in business research is questionnaires, due to the fact that the researcher himself can decide on the sample and the types of questions to be asked. In relation to the study, each respondent was requested to reply to an identical list of questions. Consequently, the questionnaire produced valuable data which was required to achieve the research objectives.

Interviews were not conducted for this study because a great number of possible interviewees were geographically widespread due to their current places of employment. Additionally, humanitarian aid workers operating in disaster-struck areas were to a great extent only available via email, necessitating that the best technique of collecting up to date data was via a questionnaire. Thus, the use of questionnaires allowed the researcher to reach a larger sample size, so that the survey results could be summed up and regarded as a largely accurate estimate of the current state of the wider population.

It can also be argued that conducting personal interviews could have influenced the respondents' answers due to the interviewer's gender, social background, or ethnicity (Bryman, 2008) and these issues of potential bias and influence were avoided by the use of a relatively anonymous questionnaire.

3.3.1.1 Advantages and disadvantages

One of the advantages of conducting a questionnaire is the transparency of research methods: i.e. it is clear to all readers of the final study how the information has been collected and analysed, and thus survey data can be re-analysed, or the data collection repeated, by other researchers in order to extend or revise the study. The quantifiable data collected also provides the reader an accessible and succinct overview of the findings. The repetition of a survey at a later point in time allows the comparison of data in order to reveal change over time and, finally, information can be gathered from a relatively large sample size on a comparable basis (Veal, 2005).

With a self-completion questionnaire, respondents were required to answer the questions by themselves, without the assistance of the researcher. Compared to a structured interview, the questionnaire was cheaper to administer due to the fact that the sample for this research was geographically widely dispersed and it would not have been possible to travel to all of those polled due to a lack of time and the high costs involved in doing so.

Self-completion questionnaires can also be regarded as more convenient for participants since the respondent could fill out the questionnaire at a time suitable to them and could take as much time as they needed to complete it.

A disadvantage could be viewed in this case in the absence of an interviewer who could otherwise provide assistance in case respondents were unsure about a question. The impact of this disadvantage was decreased through the formulation of clear and easy to understand questions with simple instructions as to how to answer them. Moreover, respondents were made aware of the possibility to email the researcher their queries about the questionnaire. Nevertheless, interviewees seemed to have difficulties describing "what advantages they provide their partner organisation". Most of the responses described the advantages the company or organisation *obtained* from their partner instead of listing the benefits the assisting company or organisation *provides* its partner. An additional sentence asking participants to list the three

most important benefits offered by their organisation to the partner organisation might have been helpful.

Respondents could also read the questionnaire in full initially before answering the first questions, which could result in unreliable data because questions would then be considered in the wrong order. This problem was largely eliminated through conducting an e-survey (fully electronic survey). Participants were required to answer all questions displayed on one page before they were able to move on to the next page and answer the subsequent questions that were not previously visible. This also lowered the possible risk of missing data through the non-completion of questions by respondents.

It is often argued that self-completion questionnaires result in a lower response rate than structured interviews (Bryman, 2008). For the purpose of reducing this risk, a cover letter individually addressed to the respondent, highlighting the research topic and the reasons for the study, was included in the email invitations. Prior to sending the questionnaire the respondent's willingness to participate in the study was inquired through previous email contact. Furthermore, this email notification served as an identifier for invalid email addresses, which also provided an estimate of frame error (please refer to Czaja and Blair, 2005 for further information on "frame error"). Consequently, the researcher was able to identify how many additional invitations needed to be sent in order to avoid compromising the reliability of the data due to a lack of participants. Attention was also paid to the layout of the questionnaire in order to improve the likeliness of a high response rate.

3.3.1.2 Types of questions

Various types of questions were used in order to find out about the opinions of respondents (please refer to appendix 7.3 "Questionnaire" for a complete overview of the survey):

Closed-answer questions: Participants were provided with a range of pre-determined answers and were asked to tick the appropriate box or boxes. This question type was easy to code compared to open-answer questions and allowed respondents a relatively fast completion of the survey. Furthermore, the comparability of answers was enhanced and possible obscurities with regard to the intended meaning of the question were minimised.

The category “Other” was offered in question 17) *“What position do you hold in the organisation”* since not all possible job positions could be listed. This option also ensured that respondents were not confused by the question in case they were not able to find an answer that they could readily identify with.

Open-answer questions: Respondents could answer the question however they wished, so that they were not influenced by determined response choices. This type of question allowed for replies the researcher did not consider beforehand. In addition, the respondent’s current state of knowledge about the topic could be examined. Open-answer questions were especially useful for this study as it deals with a relatively new area of research.

Nevertheless, only a small number of open-answer questions were included in the survey since they were time-consuming for participants to complete, which increased the risk of missing data due to unanswered questions. In contrast to closed-answer questions, responses were difficult to code because an appropriate coding frame had to be developed. An example open-answer question follows: *“10) Please, list the requirements your optimal partner would have to fulfil”*.

Likert scale: This scaling technique aimed at measuring respondents’ intensity of feelings, such as their agreement or disagreement with a proposition. A seven-point scale was deployed, including a middle position indicating the respondent’s neutrality on the aspect. Example questions were *“8) Please read the statements below and indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with them by ticking the appropriate box”* or *“9) How important do you believe each of the following items is for a successful cross-sector collaboration?”*.

Ranking questions: Respondents were asked to rank seven items in order of importance. They were required to prioritise answers from “very important (1)” to “not at all important (7)”. For example, *“4) If you are employed at a humanitarian aid organisation, please rank the following items in terms of the importance to you in choosing a commercial logistics company”*.

Rating questions: This question type asked participants to rate different answer options. For example, *“11) Please rate the following key barriers for cross-sector collaborations from very strong to very weak”*.

Check questions: The inclusion of check questions increased the reliability of the collected information. In one question, participants of the study had to list the requirements commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations need in order to establish successful corporate-humanitarian

partnerships. In a different question, respondents were asked to list the requirements their optimal partner (commercial logistics company or humanitarian aid organisation) would have to fulfil. Hence, the consistency in replies could be tested.

Demographic questions: This type of question addressed various characteristics of the respondents, including gender, age, type of organisation employed at (commercial logistics company or humanitarian aid organisation), and status in a company or organisation (Managing Director; Head of Mission; etc.). Information about the characteristics of individuals could later be used in order to compare responses between different groups.

The designed questionnaire consisted of 17 questions related to cross-sector collaborations between logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations. The survey was designed for an interval of 10 to 12 minutes and was pilot tested with a subsample and further refined based on the respondents' comments. Additionally, the order of the questions was chosen based on their difficulty, i.e. simple questions were put at the beginning, which enabled the respondents to be slowly introduced into the research area. More comprehensive questions, such as Likert scales and rating questions, were arranged in the second part of the questionnaire and, finally, demographic questions were asked at the end.

3.3.1.3 Sample

The population of this study was made up of staff and members of commercial/private logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations with worldwide operations. Two main clusters of the population were created.

- (1) "*Commercial/private logistics companies*", preferably those involved in disaster relief operations related to natural sudden-onset disasters through collaboration with a humanitarian aid organisation based on a philanthropic or CSR (corporate social responsibility) project.

(2) “*Humanitarian aid organisations*”, which were actively involved in mainly disaster relief operations related to natural sudden-onset disasters and preferably were engaged in a partnership with a logistics company.

Within these clusters, possible respondents were chosen. Respondents preferably needed to be involved in the planning and/or in the coordination process of in-kind and/or financial donations for relief activities, or be actively involved in relief missions through volunteer work for humanitarian aid organisations, company projects and/or CSR programmes, such as collaborations with humanitarian aid agencies. Involvement in a partnership was, however, not a prerequisite for participation in the survey.

Participants were also asked to provide further contact details of colleagues in order for the researcher to be able to establish contact with others who were relevant to the research topic. Hence, a random sample within the previously determined clusters was achieved.

This process enabled the researcher to study a relatively large and representative sample of the population for the purpose of achieving a broad spectrum of opinions and experiences. In addition, sampling error could be reduced due to the fact that respondents involved in or experienced with disaster relief operations were directly contacted: reducing the risk of including too many people who had no experience at all. Furthermore, sampling bias with regard to human bias could be lowered because no subjective criteria, such as relating to the respondent’s personality or outward appearance, were applied during the selection process. The participant’s availability (for a personal meeting) also did not influence the sampling process since selection was conducted without their knowledge.

The sample size was based on cost and time considerations and on the possibility of reducing error as much as possible. A sample size of a total of 51 companies and organisations was achieved, so that the precision and reliability of data could be increased. A standard non-response rate of about 20% was considered during the sampling process.

The sample, however, was relatively homogeneous because employees of commercial logistics companies who have no background knowledge about disaster relief, as well as humanitarian aid workers who focus on man-made and

slow-onset disasters, were excluded from the study. Nevertheless, within the determined clusters a relatively high variety with regard to the positions held by respondents was achieved.

Interviewees were invited to take part in the questionnaire via email. Due to the sample of the research, they were offered two options to complete the questionnaire:

- (1) *“Attached Microsoft Word document”*: This option aimed especially at humanitarian aid workers who have limited internet access due to their current relief operations in the field. Respondents could easily save their answers and send the questionnaire as an attached document back to the researcher. Disadvantages of this method refer to the great variety of e-mail programmes and settings, i.e. size limits for incoming emails may be set by system administrators or attachments deleted by the email system (Czaja & Blair, 2005). Moreover, respondents might not open the attachment at all because they are concerned of possible computer viruses. However, these problems did not impact on the research process.
- (2) *“E-survey (fully electronic survey)”*: This option required participants to log on to a specially designed homepage in order to fill out the questionnaire. Completing the e-survey required a stable internet connection. This type of survey had the advantage that the collected data could be immediately analysed with appropriate software (e.g. SPSS/PASW) due to its electronic format. A disadvantage might have been incompatibility with different operating systems, in particular with regard to the resolution. The researcher chose the most common screen resolution 1024X768.

The most preferred option was found to be the e-survey as 99% of the total number of respondents completed the questionnaire online.

3.3.2 Desk research

This study is partially based on secondary sources in order that it is able to provide a solid information base and to relate ideas and findings to academic

studies of other researchers. It can be considered an important part of any research project to collect secondary data in order to avoid the repetition of time consuming information collection processes.

3.3.2.1 Advantages and disadvantages

Secondary data refers to “existing data that has been collected by someone else for some other purpose” (Veal, 2005, p. 28). Often large amounts of information (e.g. statistics, company reports, academic articles, etc.) are stored by various sources, such as organisations, libraries, and government agencies, and these are, in many cases, available through particular online search engines.

Advantages of the use of secondary data include decreased cost and time investments and often a high-quality of information. Sources provide access to a wide variety of data for a relatively small fraction of the resources required when conducting primary research in person (Bryman, 2008). Hence, by using secondary sources it was possible to gain extensive data and analyse it in a shorter period of time. The information gathered from these sources was often based on highly representative samples, covering a wide variety of regions and social groups, and the studies were conducted by experienced researchers or research organisations, who mostly applied structured processes for the collection and control of information.

Secondary literature provided a basic understanding of the topic researched, including concepts and theories, research methods and strategies, controversies, and inconsistencies in findings, as well as an overview of the authors who are of particular importance to the investigated topic.

3.3.2.2 Systematic review process

The research process for secondary literature was based on a systematic review process which is explained in the following paragraph.

First, key aspects of the main topic area were brainstormed in order to determine keywords for the literature research in several journal databases. This process was chosen as a method of sampling the available literature, rather than conducting a content analysis, due to the fact that only a few journals existed that

were directly dedicated to humanitarian aid and disaster relief logistics, and the range of academic articles in this area was very limited. Additional keywords were added during the research process: derived from reviewed articles and the suggested keywords provided from databases.

The following is a list of some of the keywords deployed for the secondary literature research:

- *“disaster relief” AND “logistics”*
- *“disaster relief logistics” AND “logistics company”*
- *“humanitarian aid” AND “logistics”*
- *“cross-sector collaboration**”*
- *“corporate-humanitarian partnership**”*

Keywords were connected with specific link terms in order to enlarge or limit the search results.

The primary search process was based on an online article search using various meta-search engines and business databases provided by Massey University library subscriptions and computer search resources. Furthermore, the inter-library loans system provided a further option for accessing rare material, as well as books held by other libraries.

After having gained an overview of the most recent information and of the important researchers on the topic, the reference lists of articles and books were browsed in order to broaden the information base with regard to journal articles, authors, and research keywords.

Web pages provided the fastest access to widespread information on the research area which, on one hand, complicated the analysis and reliability evaluation of the data; while on the other hand, multiple linked pages increased the range of sources of possibly suitable material and provided new ideas and subjects that have been recently discussed in the topic area. Web pages supplying reliable information were recorded by bookmarking them in the web browser, so that they could be accessed again at a later point in time.

In the next step, retrieved journal articles were reviewed and distinguished according to their reliability, content, the topicality of information, and the

suitability of data with regard to the investigated topic. The literature research was completed based on the fact that additional research resulted in prevailing literature that had already been retrieved.

For the purpose of evaluating the content of the articles, literature was grouped into three categories:

“*Category A*”: Articles of every description that included data of great relevance to the topic, i.e. explicit information on corporate-humanitarian partnerships (including case studies), disaster relief logistics with a focus on cooperation between companies and aid organisations, and commercial versus relief supply chains.

“*Category B*”: Articles of every description that included information relevant to the research question, i.e. information on corporate-humanitarian partnerships (more generalised) and humanitarian aid logistics with a focus on man-made catastrophes.

“*Category C*”: Articles of every description that included information less relevant to the chosen subject, i.e. general information about humanitarian aid and disaster relief logistics, and private-NGO partnerships in general.

Emerging challenges, especially in the beginning of the review process, were related to the process of rating the articles as to whether reliable data was provided. This was due to the fact that the author’s opinion was not always clearly articulated so that the objectivity of the information was difficult to evaluate. Nevertheless, through the gaining of an overview of the most popular researchers and main points in the field, information reliability could be assessed. Additional data about specific sources was obtained through web searches when necessary.

The literature research resulted in the identification and classification of articles published in peer-reviewed journals, magazine and newspaper articles, company presentations and reports, and studies reported in books and on web pages.

3.4 Analysis of primary data

The gathered data from the questionnaire was analysed largely with the help of IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Statistics 18 for Windows (also referred to as PASW [Predictive Analysis SoftWare]) which is one of the most widely deployed computer software applications for the analysis of

quantitative data. SPSS simplified the analysis process by providing the researcher a broad range of standardised statistical analysis tools.

The questionnaire data was stored on an SQL database and was then manually transferred to the SPSS programme. The answers were coded using different variables such as 1,2,3, etc., with the number 99 being used to represent all missing values. The advantage of this method was that it enabled the collected data to be entered relatively fast, since the numeric keypad was the major input medium. In order to eliminate possible errors the entered data was checked in three different ways. First, the total number of respondents was calculated and compared to the total number of variables entered for each question. Second, particular coding variables were assigned for each answer; consequently, numbers which were not included in the coding scheme were mistakes. Finally, the completed questionnaires were consecutively numbered so that a transposition of the questionnaires during the process of data entry could be precluded.

Univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses were conducted in order to analyse the collected information and to explore relationships between up to three different variables in each case. Frequency tables were important instruments, especially as they helped to gain an initial overview of the results and to organise them (please refer to Spiegel, 1961 for further information on “frequency tables”). Grouped-data frequency tables were not created due to the expectation that these would cause a loss of precision in the analysis of data. Additionally, the median and the mean of each data set were calculated. The advantage of the use of a median figure was that results were not influenced by possible outliers. Also, diagrams and bar graphs were used for the purpose of visualising percentages, as well as highest and lowest values.

In the next step, relationships between two or more different variables were highlighted by deploying contingency tables. In order to test the level of relationship between two variables, *Spearman's rho* [for pairs of ordinal variables: “variables whose categories can be rank ordered but the distances between the categories are not equal across the range” (Bryman, 2008, p. 322) or one ordinal and one interval/ratio variable: “variables where the distances between the categories are identical across the range (Bryman, 2008, p. 322)] was utilized. Additionally, the contingency tables were compared for the purpose of investigating whether a third variable may moderate different relationships.

For the purpose of analysing the ranking questions, a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was used. The ranking result of the different factors was based on the sum of the total number of respondents voting each factor to be “most important” (1), “important” (2), “slightly important” (3), “neither important nor unimportant” (4), “slightly unimportant” (5), “unimportant” (6), and “least important” (7). Totals and final ranking results were calculated using the Excel formula “Countif”.

The answers to the open-ended questions were categorised in order to statistically analyse them. The most frequently mentioned answers were regarded as individual variables and the others were grouped into meaningful categories, leaving as few as possible answers in the “other” group. Afterwards, respondents’ individual answers were reviewed according to the determined variables, and codes were assigned, for either “named” (1) or “not named” (2), which were finally recorded in SPSS.

Finally, it is important to note that the possibility of input or sampling errors could not entirely be excluded. Because of the relatively small sample size, the collected data ought not to be generalised with regard to the whole population.

3.5 Credibility and reliability

The quality of collected primary data was evaluated through two main criteria: reliability and validity.

“*Reliability*” refers to the consistency of measures (Bryman, 2008), i.e. to what extent would the results be the same if an identical research study was repeated at a later time or with a varying sample of topics (Veal, 2005). Reliability can be tested by deploying a test-retest method, but this method was not employed in this case as it would require a longer period of data collection and analysis than was available. In order to measure the internal reliability of the primary data gathered a large number of questions covering various topics important to the research objectives were asked in the questionnaire. This provided a consistent indication of each respondent’s knowledge about the topic. Also, several test-questions, where respondents had to provide nearly the same answer in each case, were included in order to test the consistency of their responses. Finally, the response rate of 49% served as an indicator for a relatively high reliability of the information gathered. The lower the response rate, the likelier it is that “bias in the findings will be greater” (Bryman, 2008, p. 219).

Another attribute of primary data that can be measured is “*validity*”: which refers to “the extent to which the data collected truly reflect the phenomenon being studied” (Veal, 2005, p. 42). Face validity (i.e. what it appears the indicator will actually measure is what it is intended to measure) was guaranteed through the discussion of the questionnaire with experts in the field of research.

External validity refers to the extent to which research findings can be generalised beyond the actual research context (Bryman, 2008). In order to achieve strong external validity, a representative sample from which primary data was gathered through the questionnaire was randomly chosen. Moreover, participation in the study was assured through direct contact with respondents asking for their interest in participating before the questionnaire was sent out. In this way, the dropout rate was reduced. Finally, the study was conducted at several different places and with respondents in varying job positions. This increased the representativeness of the sample for the broadest population possible.

3.6 Ethical considerations

When conducting research, ethical issues have to be considered since the researcher himself is responsible for the accomplishment of data collection in an ethical manner: i.e. “in accord with the guidelines for humane treatment of participants” (Graziano & Raulin, 2010, p. 48). Ethical principles needed to be considered throughout the research process and especially in the procedures-design phase (Graziano & Raulin, 2010), before participants were contacted.

The study was reviewed with regard to four considerations identified by Diener and Crandall (1978) that are critical to ethical issues:

- *Whether there is harm to participants*
- *Whether there is a lack of informed consent*
- *Whether there is an invasion of privacy*
- *Whether deception is involved*

Considering these four areas it should be noted that this research did not harm participants (e.g. physical harm, stress, loss of self-esteem) since care was taken that participants could not be identified through the publication of the

research findings and also children were not involved in the study. Moreover, participation in the study was on a voluntary basis. All participants were previously informed in a cover letter about the content, purpose of the study, and how the information was going to be used. In addition, interviewees were asked for their permission to receive participation materials before the questionnaire was sent out.

Confidentiality of information was guaranteed in the sense that no data would be made available to anyone except the researcher and that no one could be identified from the information they provided since the questionnaire was conducted anonymously. Thus, privacy of the respondents was maintained. Furthermore, participants were not asked to provide responses on sensitive types of information, such as income.

Due to the nature of this e-survey, interviewees were not asked to email the questionnaire back to the researcher and therefore, could not be identified to their responses. Although questionnaires were emailed to respondents who were not able to complete the survey online, the researcher made sure that they could not be identified through numbering the questionnaires rather than naming them and subsequently ensuring that they were not reviewed before being printed off. Collected data was electronically stored and security was ensured through password protection.

Having outlined the methods of data collection, chapter four of this study now moves on to consider the results of the questionnaire focused on cross-sector collaborations.

4. CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Analysis of the results of the questionnaire on corporate-humanitarian collaborations in disaster relief and humanitarian aid is presented in this chapter. First, an overview of the participants of the survey and their perceptions about cross-sector collaborations is provided. Second, characteristics that commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations assume to be essential when engaging in a partnership are illustrated. Additionally, the chapter outlines possible key barriers to cooperation. Finally, major critical success factors that need to be considered when establishing cross-sector collaborations are pointed out based on the previously analysed results of the questionnaire.

4.2 Questionnaire results

4.2.1 Participants

The questionnaire was distributed to a total of 51 people, whereof 26 were employed by commercial logistics companies, such as DHL, TNT, Agility, and UPS (United Parcel Service) while 25 were humanitarian aid workers from UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund), World Vision International, Doctors Without Borders [Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF)], and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) among others. The questionnaire was conducted worldwide including countries, such as New Zealand, Germany, Singapore, Central African Republic, and Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka.

The response rate reached the total of 49%, whereof the majority of people working for either a commercial logistics company or humanitarian aid organisation were male. Only 18% of commercial logistics staff respondents and 9% of humanitarian respondents were female. A total of 11 participants from

commercial logistics companies and 14 from humanitarian aid organisations was achieved.

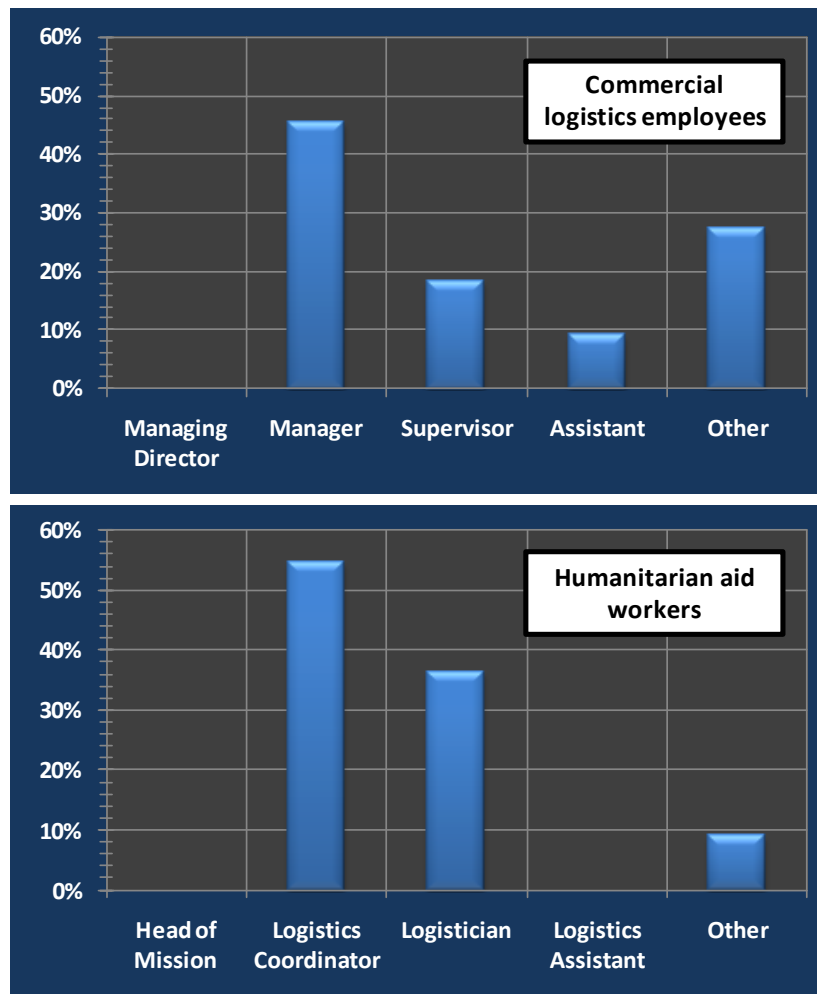


FIGURE 4.1: JOB POSITIONS OF COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS EMPLOYEES AND HUMANITARIAN AID WORKERS

Figure 4.1 depicts the percentage distribution of job titles held by respondents. The upper bar chart illustrates the results for the commercial logistics industry and the lower bar chart presents the findings for the humanitarian aid sector. Following the gridlines, the graphs show the total number of respondents in percentage terms on the ordinate and the various job titles on the abscissa.

The majority, which accounts for 46% of respondents working in the commercial logistics industry, have a “managing position” in the company, followed by “Supervisor” (18%) and “Assistant” (9%). The final 27% belong to the

category “Other”, which includes “Regional Head of Department” and “Clerical Assistant”. More than half (55%) of the humanitarian respondents are “Logistics Coordinators”, followed by “Logistician” (36%), and “Other” [Logistics and Fleet Warehouse Assistant, (9%)]. The majority of all respondents are aged between 30 to less than 40 years.

4.2.2 Overall perception of cross-sector collaborations

The respondents were asked to indicate their perception of corporate-humanitarian collaborations (“favourable”, “unfavourable”, “not sure”, “no opinion”) and whether they are involved in cross-sector collaborations, as well as how successful they feel the partnership is (“very successful”, “fairly successful”, or “not very successful”). Figure 4.2 illustrates this by showing the percentage distribution of the humanitarian aid workers’ and commercial logistics employees’ perception of (upper bar chart) and involvement in cross-sector collaborations (lower bar chart). On the ordinate the total number of respondents in percentage terms is shown. On the abscissa the respondents’ level of perception of corporate-humanitarian collaborations (upper bar chart) and involvement in corporate-humanitarian partnerships (lower bar chart) can be seen.

The graph indicates that the majority of respondents both in the logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector evaluate partnerships as “favourable”, whereas 21% of relief workers and 18% of commercial logistics employees are “not sure” about their perception of corporate-humanitarian partnerships. This might be due to their non-involvement in such collaborations or due to the relative infancy of this type of partnership with the result that scarce independent research is available on their success or failure. Nevertheless, no statistical correlation between the respondents’ perceptions and their involvement (from “very successful” to “no involvement at all”) in cross-sector collaborations could be ascertained. 36% of respondents from the commercial logistics sector and 50% of interviewees from the humanitarian aid sector are not involved in corporate-humanitarian collaborations.

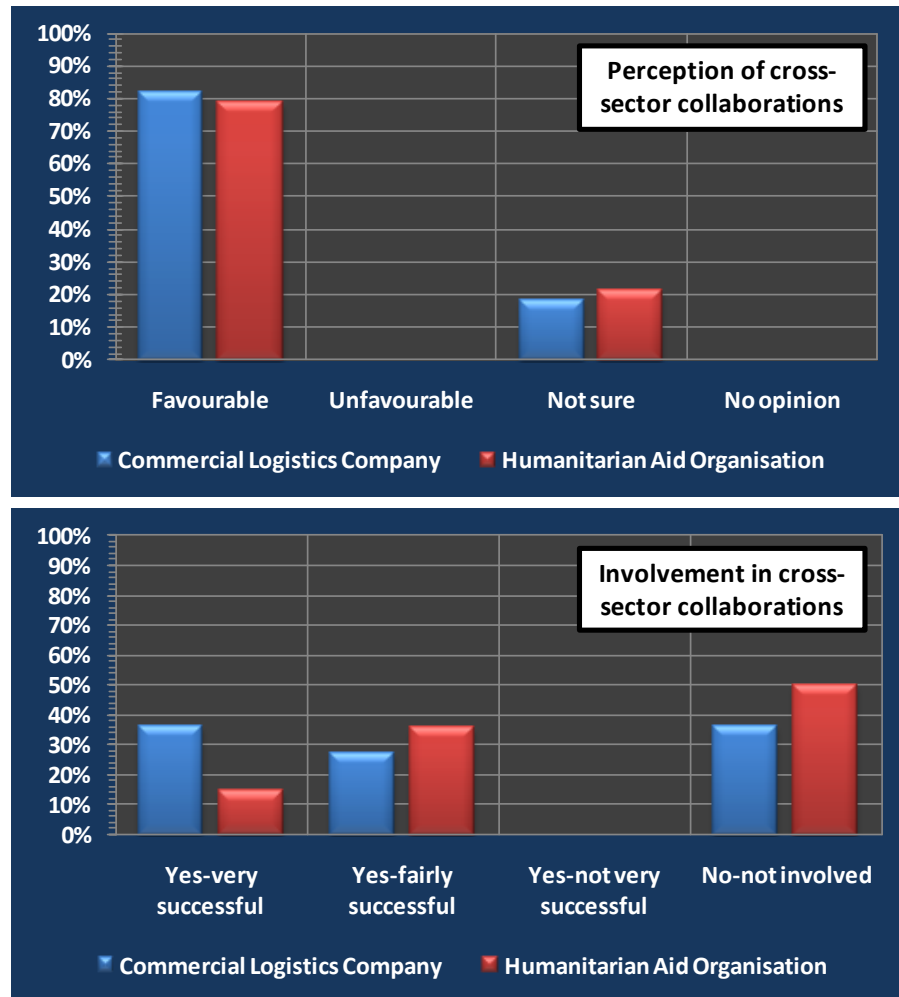


FIGURE 4.2: PERCEPTION OF AND INVOLVEMENT IN CROSS-SECTOR COLLABORATIONS OF COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS COMPANIES AND HUMANITARIAN AID ORGANISATIONS

It is important to note that just over 36% of commercial logistics employees who are involved in partnerships (which accounts for the majority) rate them as “very successful”: which is in sharp contrast to the ratings given by humanitarian aid workers. Of the humanitarian aid workers surveyed, 36% assess their collaborations as “fairly successful” and only 14% as “very successful”. This fact might be based on the limited knowledge held by logistics companies regarding disaster relief logistics when these companies first enter into a cooperation. On one hand, logistics organisations may be confident that the support they provide during relief missions contributes to the improvement of processes at exactly the stages humanitarian aid workers are dependent on. On the other hand, it may be argued that communication difficulties between partners do not allow commercial companies to help as much as they actually would be able to in other circumstances. Hence, aid workers might not state their needs and expectations

clearly enough for companies to be optimally effective and a general “language barrier” may further exacerbate barriers to the provision of the right service at the right time and place. Additionally, it has to be taken into consideration that only half of those relief workers who participated in the survey were actually involved in a collaboration.

Figure 4.3 provides an overview of the most frequently mentioned advantages that commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid organisations involved in corporate-humanitarian collaborations provide their partners. On the ordinate the total number of respondents in percentage terms and on the abscissa the respective sectors can be observed out.

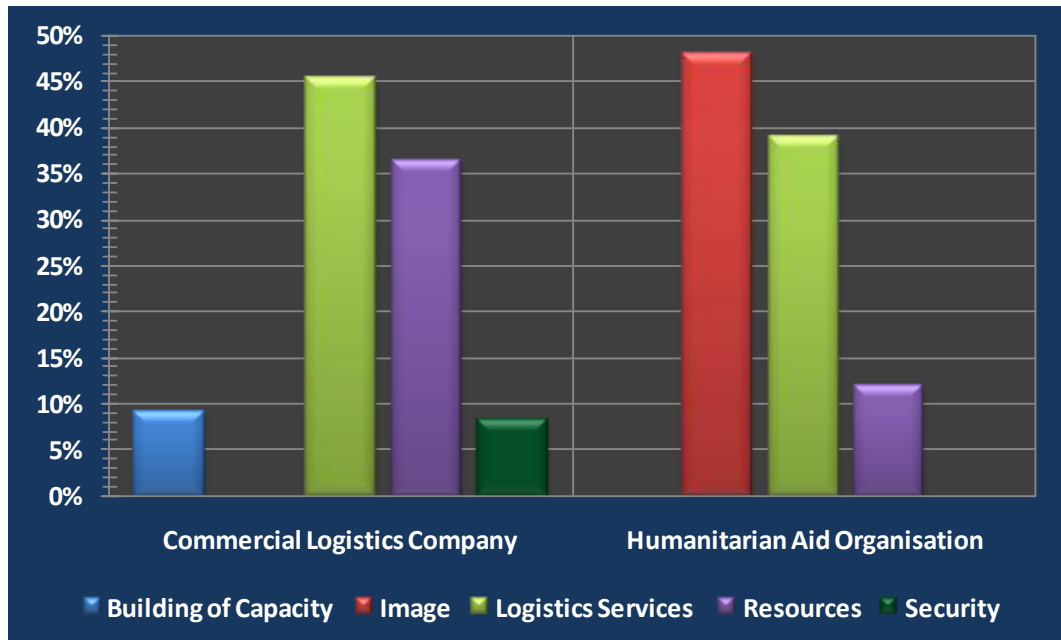


FIGURE 4.3: OVERVIEW OF BENEFITS COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS COMPANIES AND HUMANITARIAN AID ORGANISATIONS PROVIDE THEIR PARTNER

The main benefit commercial organisations provide humanitarian aid agencies is “Logistics Services”, including best practices, logistics expertise, consulting and improvement activities, as well as staff training. This is followed by the provision of “Resources”, such as material and financial resources and manpower. Finally they help build the capacity of relief supplies between disasters and provide some degree of security of the flow of processes as well as of material and financial supplies.

Humanitarian aid agencies in contrast provide their partners publicity and the possibility to improve their reputation and increase brand awareness. Moreover, humanitarian aid workers are experienced in the management of logistics operations pertaining to emergency situations, so the commercial companies may be able to adapt these procedures to maintaining their own business processes in disaster areas.

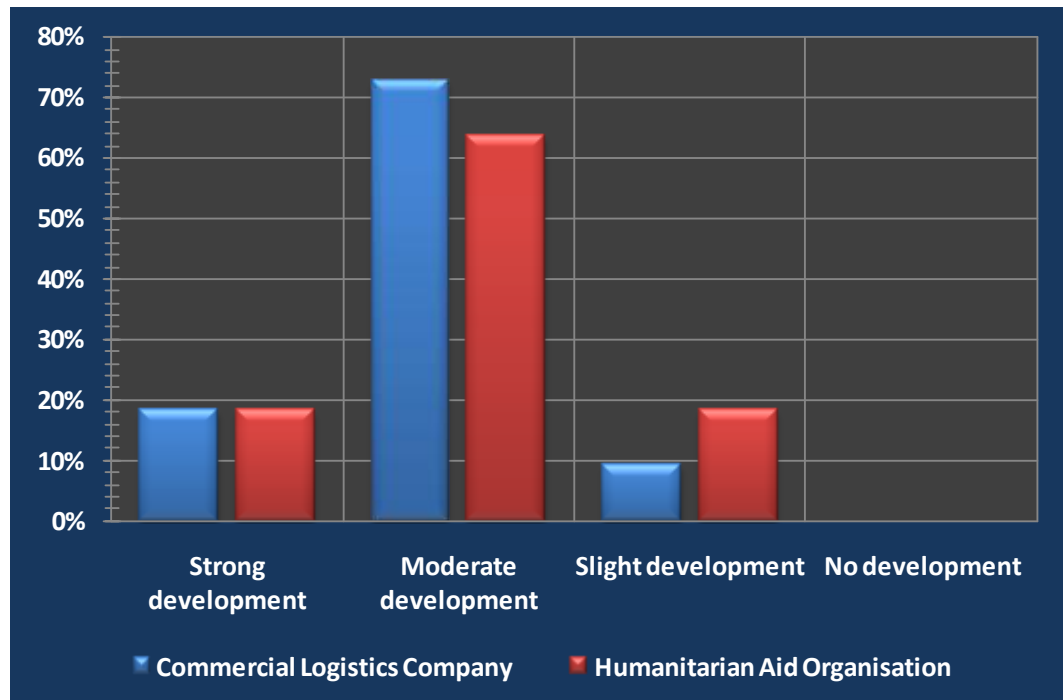


FIGURE 4.4: FORECASTED DEVELOPMENT OF CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS IN THE FUTURE

Finally, respondents were asked to forecast the future development of cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid and disaster relief from “strong development” to “no development”. Following the gridlines of Figure 4.4, the graph shows explicitly the trend towards a moderate development of such partnerships. A minority of respondents from both the commercial logistics industry as well as the humanitarian aid sector believe that corporate-humanitarian collaborations will not exhibit either strong or slight development in the near future. Additionally, all respondents agree that some kind of development, either strong or weak, will be observable. It can be argued that the humanitarian aid workers may be slightly more sceptical of the development than respondents from the commercial logistics sector. This might be correlated to the

earlier feedback in which the respondent's experience of collaboration was rated less successful by humanitarian respondents than by participants from the commercial logistics industry.

4.2.3 Organisational characteristics

In order to find out the most important characteristics a commercial logistics company or a humanitarian aid organisation requires, respondents were asked to rank seven different factors from 1 for the "most important" to 7 for the "least important" in choosing an organisation to partner with. Figure 4.5 provides an overview of the three most important and the three least important requirements for a humanitarian aid organisation to fulfil in order to represent an optimal partner for a commercial logistics company.

It is essential to note that the rating factors were the same for both sectors, except for "Pro-bono or cost implications" particularly to humanitarian aid organisations and "Ability to be rewarded" limited to commercial logistics companies.

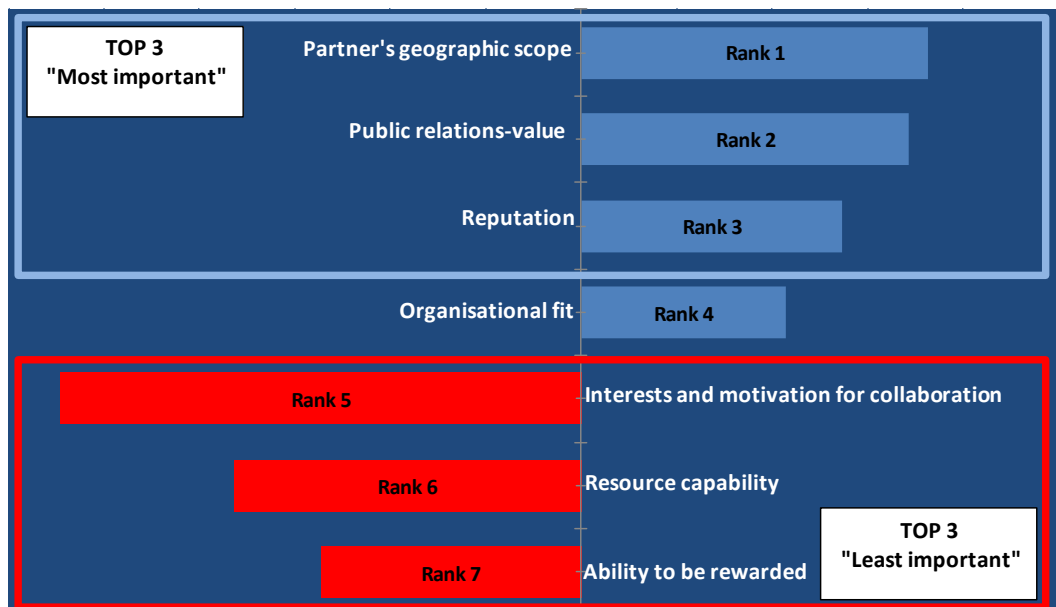


FIGURE 4.5: CHARACTERISTICS MOST IMPORTANT TO LEAST IMPORTANT IN CHOOSING A HUMANITARIAN AID ORGANISATION

Figure 4.5 depicts the ranking results for logistics companies. Respondents selected “Partner’s geographic scope” as the number one criterion when choosing a humanitarian aid organisation, followed by “Public relations-value” and “Reputation”. The least important characteristic is the “Ability to be rewarded”.

Relief workers in contrast rated “Partner’s geographic scope” and “Resource capability” as the number one criteria their partner would need to have (Figure 4.6). This is followed by “Reputation” and “Pro-bono or cost implications”. The least important characteristic for humanitarian aid organisations is “Public relations-value”.

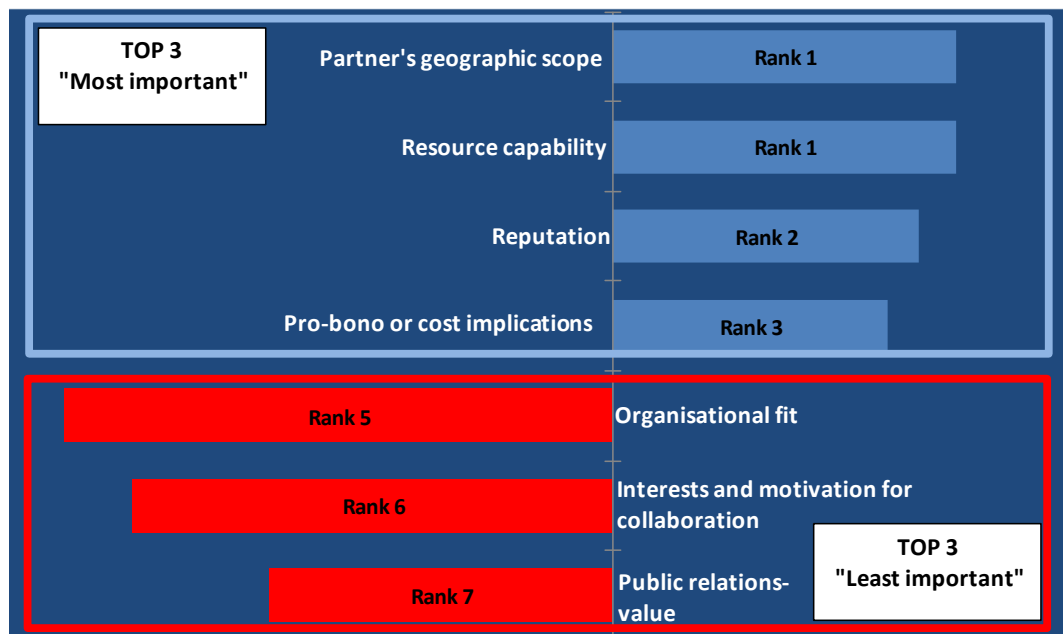


FIGURE 4.6: CHARACTERISTICS MOST IMPORTANT TO LEAST IMPORTANT IN CHOOSING A COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS PROVIDER

Respondents from both the commercial logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector agree that “Partner’s geographic scope” is the most important factor that is considered when choosing a potential partner organisation. Considering logistics companies, this criterion is closely related to “Public relations-value” since it can be derived from literature that such partnerships are increasingly incorporated into the CSR (corporate social responsibility) programme of firms in order to improve their public image and brand awareness. Hence, the broader the scope of operation of a humanitarian

aid organisation the bigger the opportunity for the logistics company to attract public attention to their offers of support in publicly well-known disasters.

This is in sharp contrast to humanitarian aid workers, who ranked “Public-relations-value” as the least important factor. This might be due to the fact that although, they need publicity when disasters strike in order to attract donors, aid workers primarily focus on providing help to beneficiaries and actively try to avoid becoming involved in economic and political agendas.

For humanitarian aid organisations it is, however, of advantage when their partner company has a well developed worldwide network of operations, since this may increase the chance of benefiting from a wide variety of resources that are globally accessible. This assumption is supported by the number one ranking of “Resource capability”, tied with “Partner’s geographic scope”.

Surprisingly, respondents from both sectors voted “Organisational fit” as relatively unimportant (logistics companies ranked it fourth and humanitarian aid organisations fifth), although it is often argued in recent literature that it is one of the essential factors that needs to be considered when choosing a potential partner. For example, TNT considered “Organisational fit” as the most important element in its selection process, since it supports knowledge transfer and provides the basis for a successful cooperation (TNT’s partner selection process is further elaborated in Chapter Five: “Model partnerships in humanitarian aid operations” under point 5.2.3.1 “Deciding on a motive”).

It is crucial to note that respondents from commercial logistics providers ranked “Ability to be rewarded” as the least important factor when choosing a humanitarian aid organisation. This can be explained with the observation that companies may receive “indirect” rewards for their support in the form of higher brand awareness, improved employee satisfaction, motivation, and loyalty, as well as the possibility to access new business areas.

Finally, the criterion “Reputation” is important for both sectors: possibly because of the risk of past scandals of one organisation causing damage to their collaborator.

In close relation to the ranking question, respondents were asked about their opinion as to the requirements a commercial logistics company or a humanitarian aid organisation would need to fulfil in order to establish successful

cross-sector collaborations. No pre-determined answer choices were presented in order that respondents were not influenced in their decision making. Answers were summarised into various categories in order to enable the use of statistical analysis.

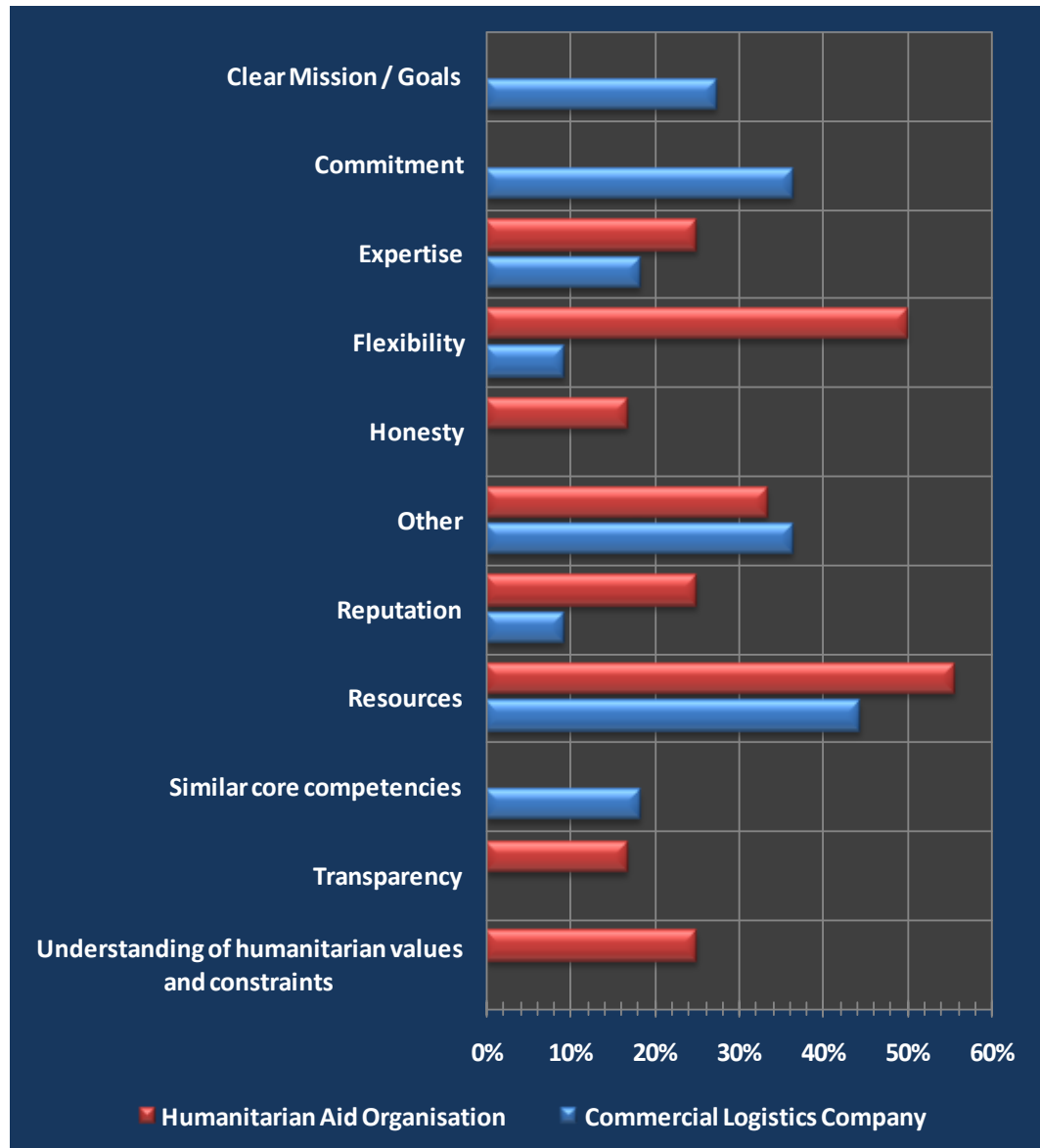


FIGURE 4.7: REQUIREMENTS THAT RESPONDENTS VIEW COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS PROVIDERS AS NEEDING TO FULFIL

Figure 4.7 illustrates the various characteristics commercial logistics providers require and their percentage distribution (abscissa) based on responses from commercial logistics employees (blue bar) and humanitarian aid workers (red bar). It can be clearly seen that both sectors agree on the point that “Resources” are the most important element a logistics provider requires. The category

“Resources” includes material resources, such as trucks or warehouses; manpower; and funding. In relation to funding, one logistician stated that companies should show “patience with the very often slow response time within the financial management of any humanitarian organisation”. This can be linked to the second most important factor for humanitarian aid field personnel, namely “Flexibility”. This point summarises the company’s ability to adapt quickly to sudden changes in demand, changes in the operating environment, or to the organisational structure.

The chart explicitly shows that “Commitment”, “Clear mission/goals”, and “Similar core competencies” were only named by commercial logistics companies. “Commitment” refers to the dedication of employees to the partnership and the buy in at CEO level. It is the second most important factor for logistics employees, followed by a clearly determined mission and goals as well as the individual aims each partner has for the collaboration. Finally, matching “Core competencies” was listed, i.e. the partner organisation should have “logistics” as one of their most important areas of operation and improvement. Comparing these results to the previous ranking questions, it can be stated that relief workers selected “Resource capabilities” as the number one requirement a logistics company needs to fulfil, a selection which was confirmed by responses of both sectors in this question. Hence, the essential prerequisites a commercial logistics provider needs to have to form a successful collaboration are sufficient resources, both financial and material; a high degree of commitment from employees at all levels; as well as a clear understanding of expectations and goals; supported by matching core competencies.

The factors “Understanding of humanitarian values and constraints” (basic knowledge about humanitarian principles, operations, and constraints), “Honesty” (being honest about aims, objectives, expectations), and “Transparency” (transparent organisational and operational structures) were only mentioned by humanitarian aid workers. Additionally, they stated that the logistics provider should have an “interest in helping people at very low cost” and should treat a humanitarian aid organisation “as a partner”. Thus, the commercial logistics company’s ability to provide a broad range of resources, to adapt an honest and flexible approach with transparent processes in all aspects of the collaboration, and to show some level of understanding of and knowledge about humanitarian values are essential requirements for relief workers committing to a partnership with a commercial logistics company.

Other characteristics mentioned by humanitarian aid workers were a track and trace system, the ability to go the last mile [“last mile distribution is the final stage of a humanitarian relief chain; it refers to delivery of relief supplies from local distribution centers (LDCs) to beneficiaries affected by disasters” (Balcik, Beamon & Smilowitz, 2008, p. 51)], and long term arrangements. Additionally, the partner’s geographic scope, good reputation, and the willingness to say “Yes” were sated by respondents from the commercial logistics industry.

Figure 4.8 below illustrates the characteristics humanitarian aid organisations require according to responses from commercial logistics employees (blue bar) and humanitarian aid workers (red bar). On the ordinate the different criteria are shown and the abscissa depicts in percentage terms the total number of respondents who listed the respective criterion.

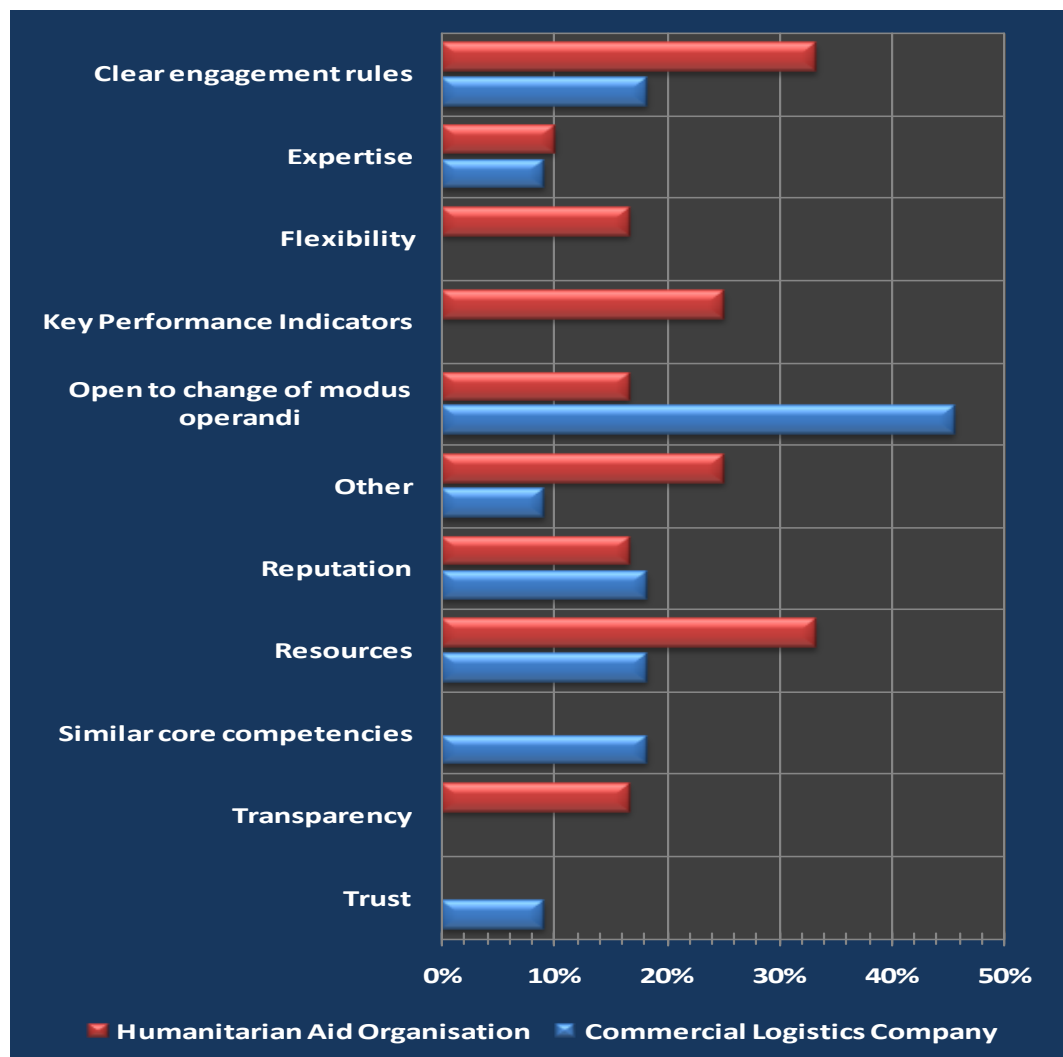


FIGURE 4.8: REQUIREMENTS THAT RESPONDENTS VIEW HUMANITARIAN AID ORGANISATIONS AS NEEDING TO FULFIL

The number one criterion named by commercial logistics employees is the humanitarian aid organisation's ability to "adapt to a different modus operandi", i.e. being open to change of routine processes and methods and to adapt to a business organisation culture. This is followed by the importance of the "Partner's reputation", "Clear engagement rules", "Resources", and "Similar core competencies". Additionally, "Trust" seems to be a further criterion that is essential for a humanitarian aid organisation, but was not listed by humanitarian aid field personnel. It can be derived from recent literature that trust is a crucial factor in a collaboration. Thus, it is surprising that both sectors have made no mention of it in the previous question and only the minority of commercial logistics employees find it an important quality.

With regard to the characteristics aid workers believe to be important for a humanitarian aid organisation, "Resources" and "Clear engagement rules" can be named as the major factors. Besides this, "Key performance indicators" seem to play an important role when considering the qualities a humanitarian aid organisation requires. It was often mentioned by relief workers that "an excellent reporting system" and the close monitoring of performance are essential prerequisites for successfully establishing a partnership. This factor has not been named by respondents from the commercial logistics sector, although it may be more closely related to a business organisation culture.

Other factors stated by humanitarian aid workers include a good in-house organisation, identification with humanitarian aid principles, and monetary awareness of cost implications. Moreover, the willingness to achieve mutual goals and the partner's public awareness are additional qualities named by commercial logistics employees.

To sum up, logistics providers see the main qualities of a successful partner organisation in its ability to allow changes in the current modus operandi, the availability of sufficient resources to manage the partnership, supported by clear engagement rules as well as similar core competencies. In contrast, relief workers believe that a broad range of resources, clear engagement rules and transparent as well as flexible procedures that are closely monitored by performance indicators are the main qualities a humanitarian aid organisation needs to fulfil.

For the purpose of monitoring the consistency of answers, respondents were asked to list the requirements their “optimal” partner would have to fulfil. This is illustrated in chart 4.9.

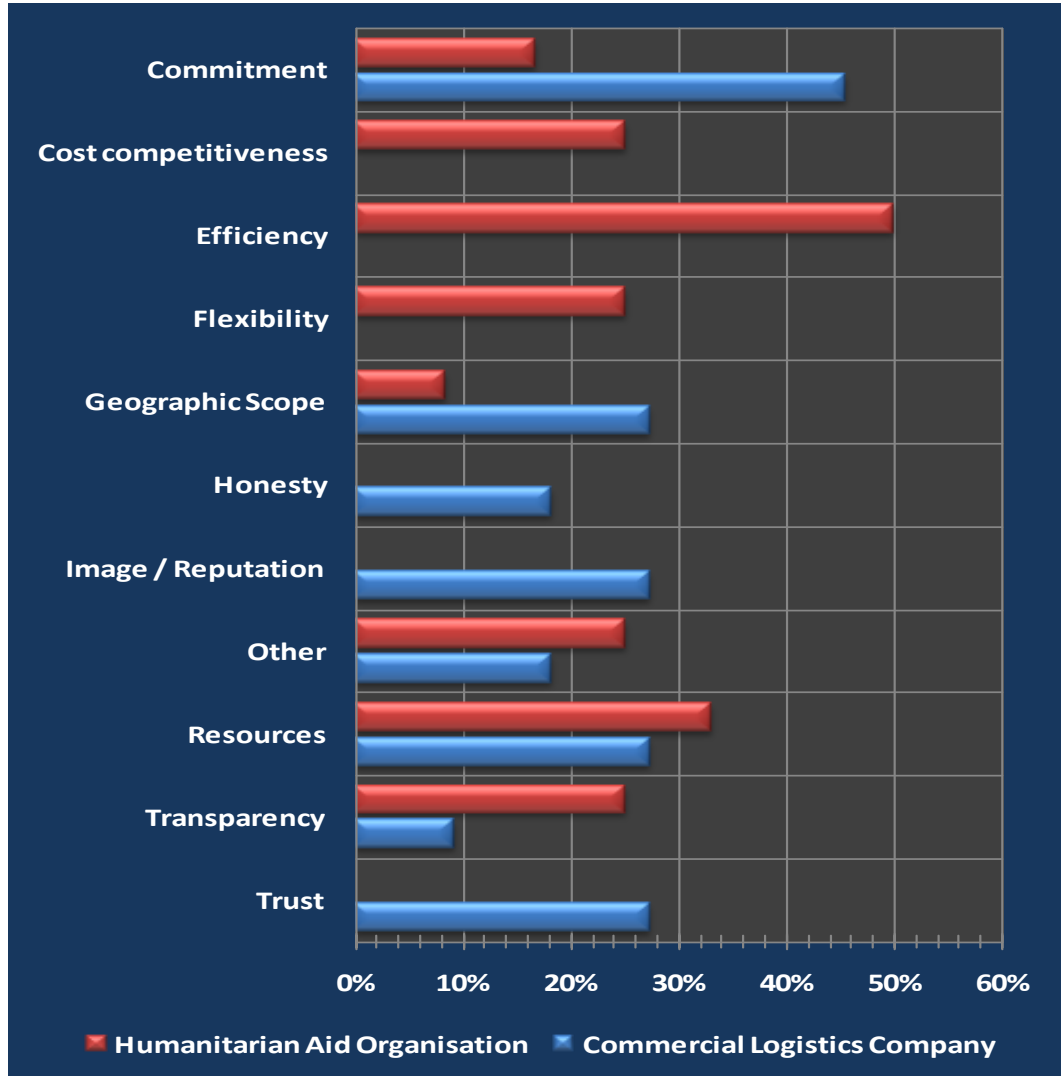


FIGURE 4.9: FACTORS AN “OPTIMAL” PARTNER WOULD REQUIRE

The “optimal” partner of a commercial logistics company would require a high level of commitment to the collaboration, a good public image and a broad scope of operation, as well as sufficient resources to establish and manage the partnership. Moreover, trust, honesty, and transparent business processes are essential. These results show a similarity to the questions analysed in this section with regard to the qualities “Resources”, “Reputation”, and “Trust”. Nevertheless, the most important characteristic, “Commitment”, was only listed as a necessary requirement that a commercial logistics company needs to fulfil and not awarded the importance that it seemed to be given in response to

previous questions. Additionally, the responses did not contain the requirement “Openness to change”.

“Efficiency” and “Resources” are the two main criteria a commercial logistics provider would have to fulfil in order to be considered an “optimal” partner for a humanitarian aid agency. These are followed by “Flexibility”, “Cost competitiveness” (good value for money in order to create a win/win situation), and “Transparency”. “Partner’s geographic scope” was only barely mentioned, although it was ranked the most important criterion when choosing a commercial logistics firm.

4.2.4 Characteristics of cross-sector collaborations in disaster relief and humanitarian aid

In order to test hypotheses derived from recent academic literature, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with pre-determined statements on a scale from 3 (“strongly agree”) to -3 (“strongly disagree”).

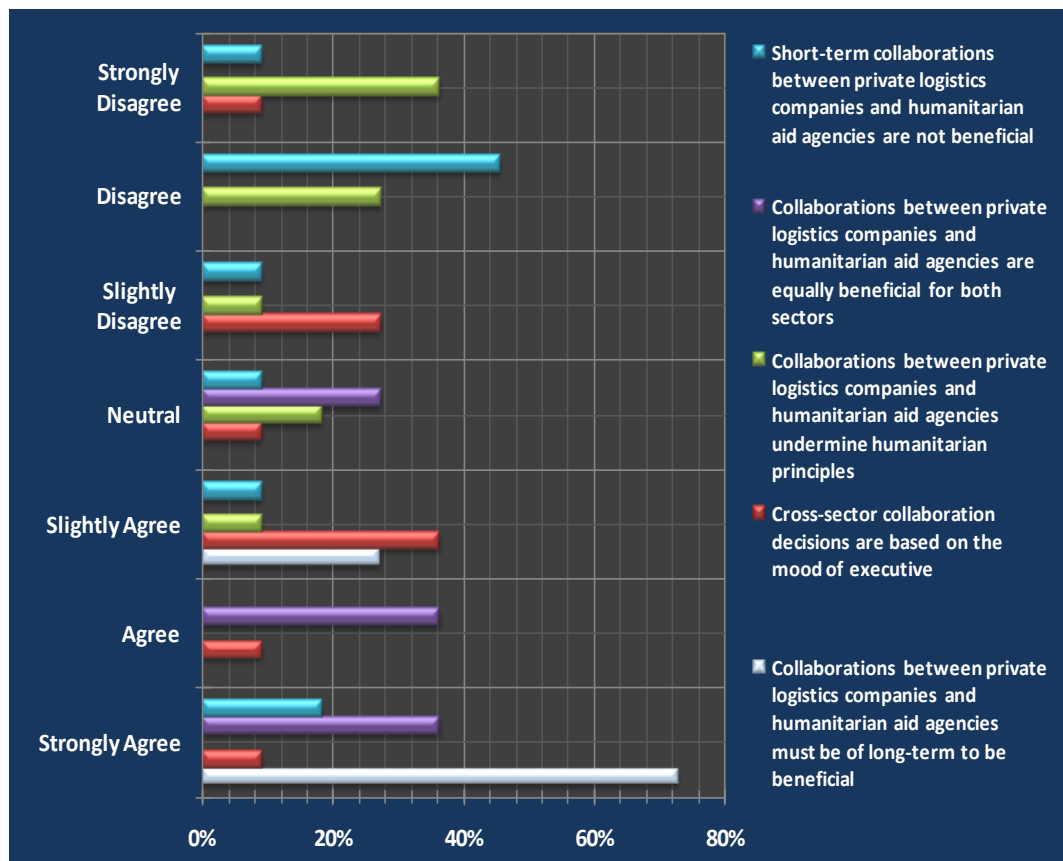


FIGURE 4.10: RESPONDENTS’ LEVEL OF AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH HYPOTHESES RELATED TO CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS INDUSTRY)

The chart 4.10 projects the responses from commercial logistics employees. On the ordinate, the level of agreement or disagreement can be seen. On the abscissa, the total number of respondents in percentage terms is shown. Each statement is coloured differently in the bar chart.

The greatest accordance of responses can be examined for the hypothesis “Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies must be of long-term in order to be beneficial” since a clear majority (73%) “strongly agrees” with the statement.

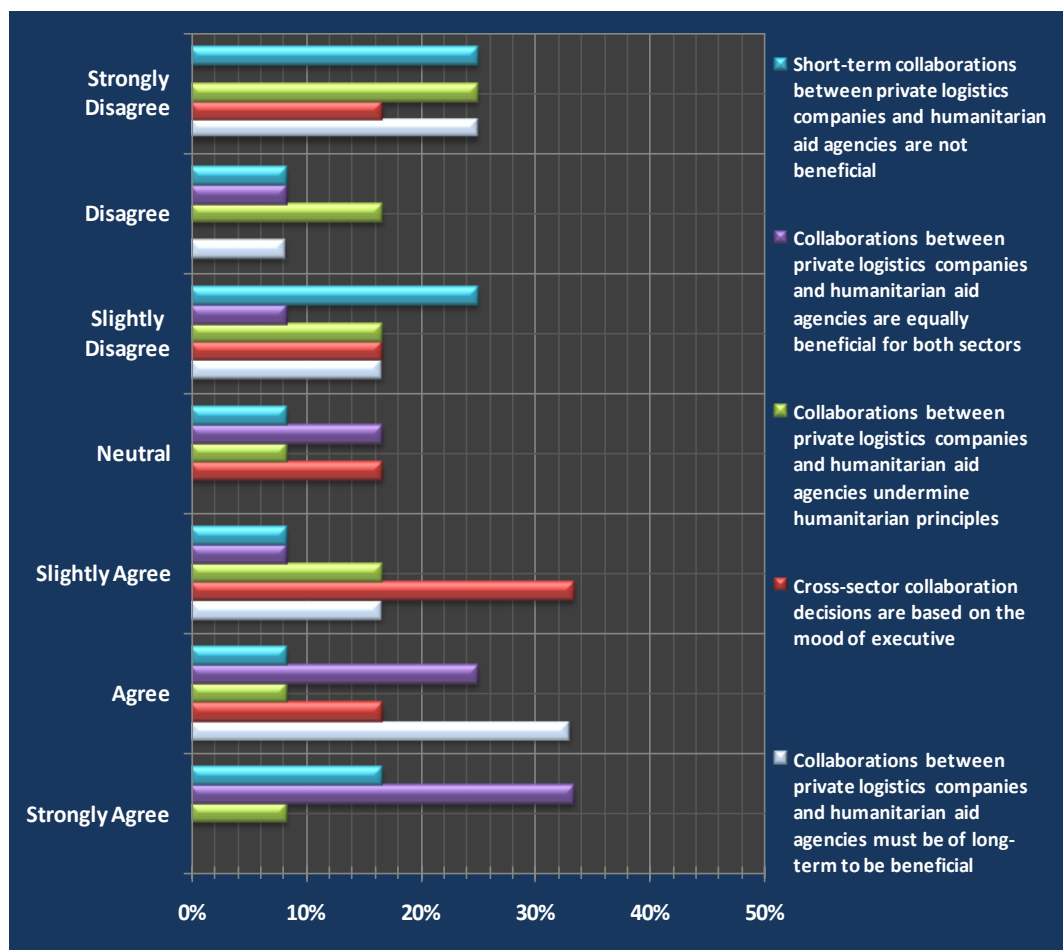


FIGURE 4.11: RESPONDENTS’ LEVEL OF AGREEMENT OR DISAGREEMENT WITH HYPOTHESES RELATED TO CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (HUMANITARIAN AID SECTOR)

Compared to the findings from the humanitarian aid sector (Figure 4.11), where most of the respondents (33%) “agree” to the hypothesis, it can be argued that the result is not as clear as in the case of the commercial logistics industry. The statement that “short-term collaborations between private logistics companies

and humanitarian aid agencies are not beneficial” was verified because most of the participants of both sectors “disagree” or “strongly disagree” with the hypothesis.

Regarding the assumption that “corporate-humanitarian partnerships are equally beneficial” it can be claimed that more than 36% of commercial logistics employees as well as the majority of humanitarian aid workers “agree” or “strongly agree” with the statement. The median, which describes the numeric value separating the higher half of the sample from the lower half, is for both sectors 2 (“agree”) which means that 50% of respondents are below and 50% are above this value in both sets of respondents (please refer to appendix 7.4.1 “Mean and Median values” for a complete overview).

Considering whether “collaborations between commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid agencies undermine humanitarian principles” it can be observed that most of the respondents working in the commercial logistics industry either “disagree” (27%) or “strongly disagree” (36%). Humanitarian field workers, in contrast, tend to “slightly agree” (17%) to the assumption, while 8% even show “strong agreement”. Nevertheless, the majority, which accounts for 25% of respondents as a whole, “strongly disagree” with the assumption. Finally, interviewees indicated their level of agreement or disagreement with the hypothesis that “cross-sector collaboration decisions are based on the mood of executives”. Most of the respondents from both sectors “slightly agree” with the statement.

4.2.5 Overview of the main characteristics important to successful corporate-humanitarian collaborations

The following charts illustrate the respondents’ rating of characteristics that might be crucial for successful corporate-humanitarian collaborations on a scale from 3 (“very important”) to -3 (“not at all important”). On the vertical axis the level of importance is depicted, while on the horizontal axis the total number of respondents in percentage terms can be read out. Each factor is coloured differently in the bar chart. Only the four most important and the four least important factors are presented (please refer to appendix 7.5.1 “Complete overview of rating of characteristics important to corporate-humanitarian

collaborations (commercial logistics industry)” and 7.5.2 “Complete overview of rating of characteristics important to corporate-humanitarian collaborations (humanitarian aid sector)” for a detailed overview).

The four most important factors that, according to the respondents from the commercial logistics industry, contribute to successful cross-sector collaborations are “Mutual trust” (73%), “Transfer of know-how and knowledge acquisition” (54%), “Partner’s problem solving competence” (36%), and “Pooling of partner’s material resources” (36%) (Figure 4.12). In accordance with responses to previous questions, the characteristics “Trust” and “Resources” once again rank highly on the importance scale for commercial logistics providers.

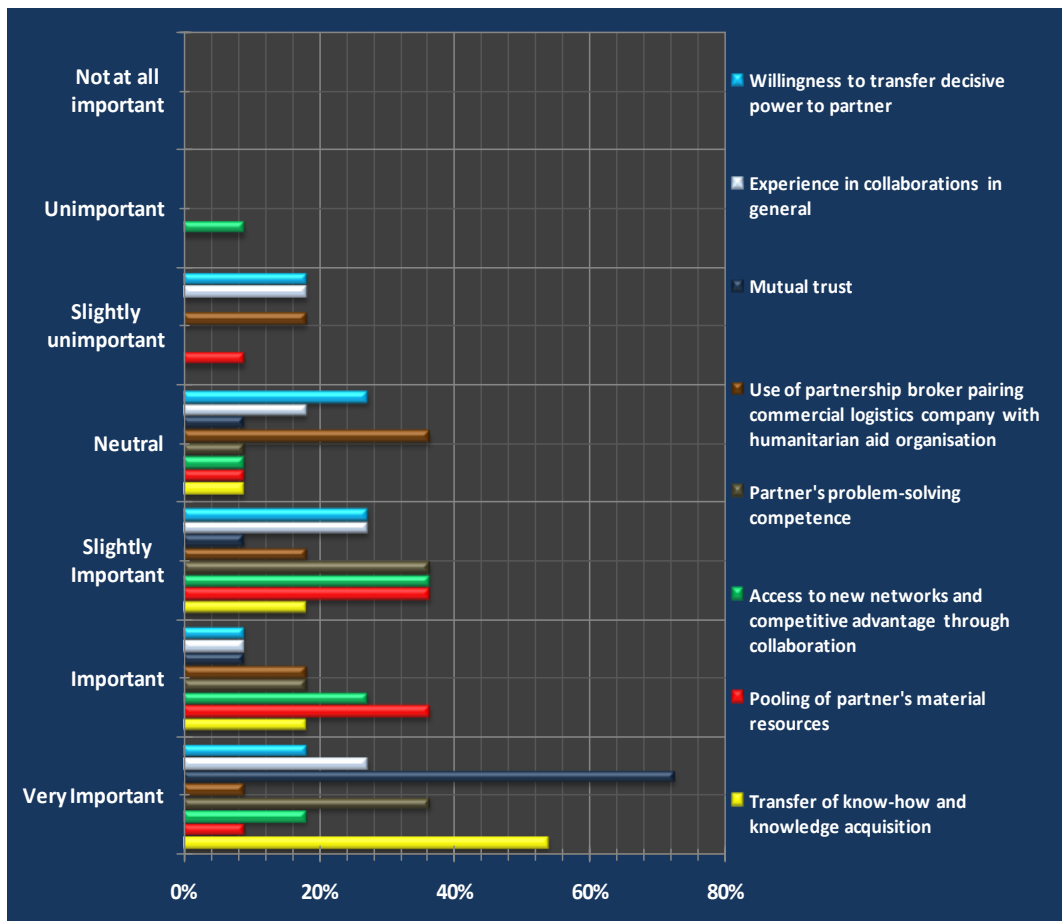


FIGURE 4.12: RESPONDENTS’ RATING OF CHARACTERISTICS IMPORTANT TO CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS INDUSTRY)

The features ranked less important for a successful partnership are “Use of a Partnership Broker”, “Willingness to transfer decisive power to partner”, “Experience in collaborations”, as well as “Access to new networks and

competitive advantage through collaboration". It is, however, important to mention that clearly defining "unimportant" factors bears a difficulty since no definite majority is shown. Looking at the mean values (the sum of observations divided by the total number of observations), which range between 2.4 and 3.0 it can be seen that most of the respondents tend to rate the factors as only "moderately important" (please refer to appendix 7.5.3 "Mean and Median values" for a complete overview). The last element, "Access to new networks and competitive advantage through collaboration", may be regarded as contradicting the fact that "Partner's geographic scope" (the organisation's worldwide presence and operations) was ranked as the most important factor when choosing a humanitarian aid agency. This may automatically imply the access to new networks and would provide the company a competitive advantage. Nevertheless, respondents may have interpreted "Access to new networks" differently: i.e. the emphasis may lie on the total number of potential business partners in a specific geographical area or field of expertise rather than on the geographical coverage.

Looking at the humanitarian aid organisation's point of view (Figure 4.13) the four most important qualities that help build successful corporate-humanitarian partnerships are "Rapid access to partner's resources and services" (58%), "Mutual trust" (58%), "Persisting independence of partners" (42%), and "Transfer of know-how and knowledge acquisition" (33%). Another important factor may be "Use of a partnership broker pairing commercial logistics company with humanitarian aid organisation". Compared to the previous questions, the characteristic "Resources" is again ranked as a crucial requirement. It is, however, important to note that aid workers find "Mutual trust" equally as important as "Resources" although it was not mentioned as a feature their optimal partner would need to have.

Factors that are less important to humanitarian field personnel are again difficult to define, and only three characteristics could be found. Nevertheless, the three less essential factors may be "Willingness to transfer decisive power to partner", "Experience in cross-sector collaborations", and "Experience in

collaborations in general”. The median values of all three factors are 3 (“slightly important”) which illustrates that 50% of respondents believe that they are neither important nor unimportant or even unimportant for successful collaborations (please refer to appendix 7.5.3 “Mean and Median values” for a complete overview).

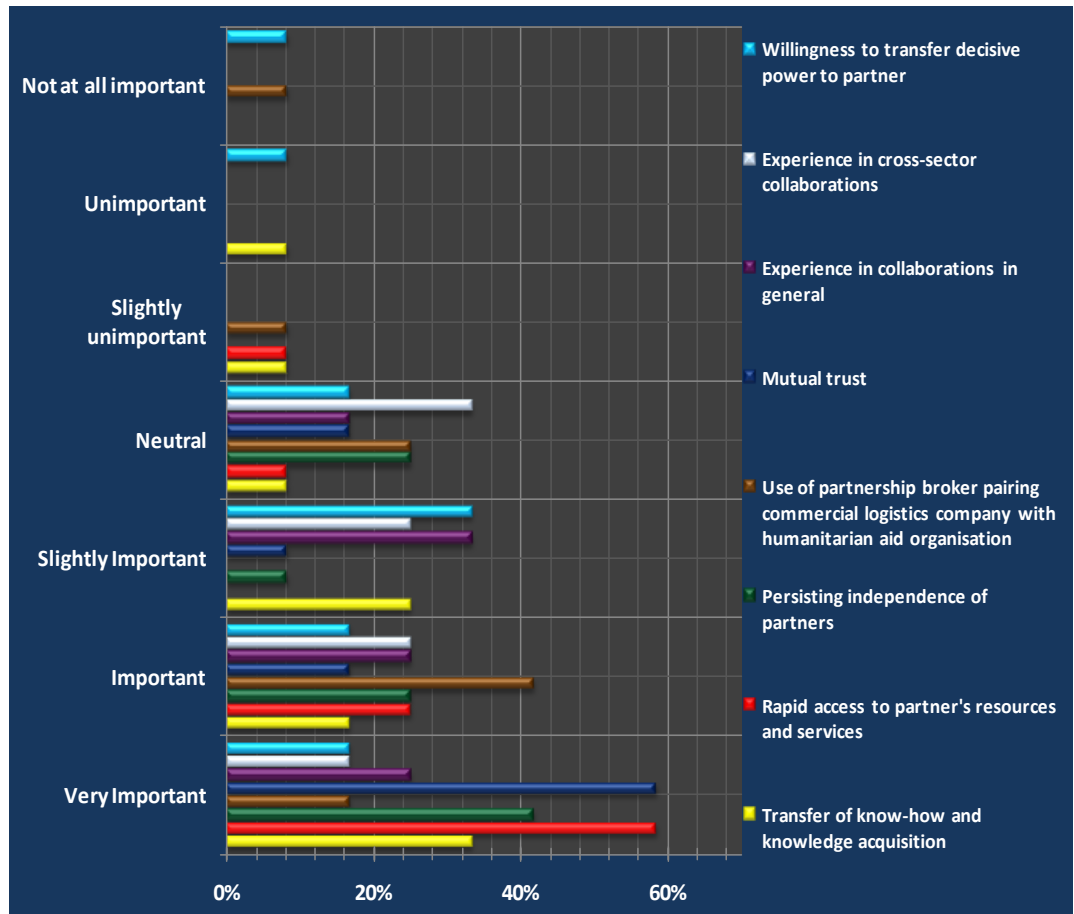


FIGURE 4.13: RESPONDENTS’ RATING OF CHARACTERISTICS IMPORTANT TO CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (HUMANITARIAN AID SECTOR)

Comparing the results from both sectors it can be argued that a similarity with regard to the most important characteristics ranked by each group exists. Both commercial logistics employees and humanitarian aid workers believe that a successful collaboration depends on the availability of resources, mutual trust, as well as the sharing of best practices and specialised knowledge. Furthermore, the independence of partners is essential for aid workers but not necessarily for commercials. This might be due to inexperience and a lack of trust with regard to

engaging in partnerships with businesses, and relief workers may also tend to avoid becoming too dependent on businesses in their operations.

4.2.6 Possible key barriers for cross-sector collaborations

A further question included in the survey asked respondents to rate possible key barriers for successfully establishing corporate-humanitarian partnerships on a scale from 3 (“very strong barrier”) to -3 (“very weak barrier”).

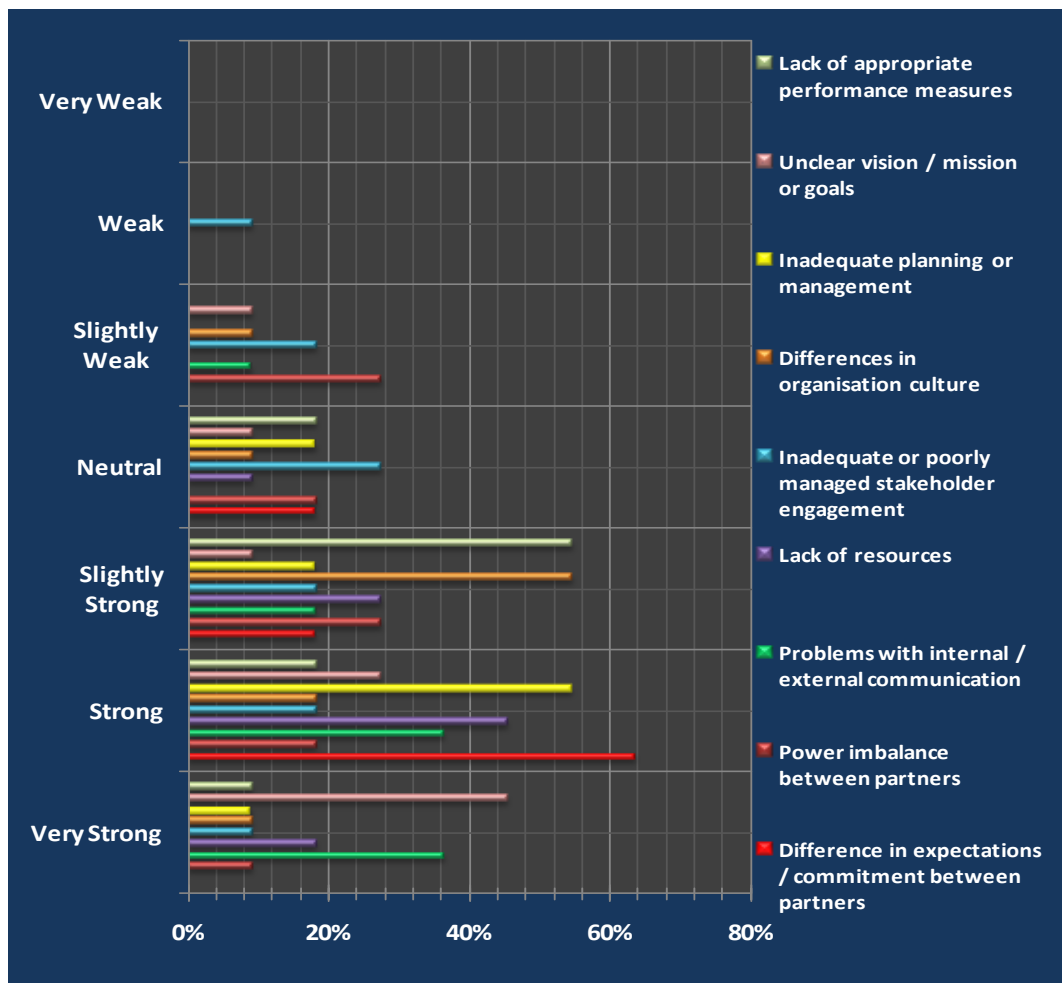


FIGURE 4.14: RESPONDENTS’ RATING OF THE STRENGTH OF KEY BARRIERS TO CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS INDUSTRY)

The diagram above (Figure 4.14) illustrates the results of respondents from the commercial logistics sector. The strength of each barrier is depicted on the

ordinate and the horizontal axis shows the total number of respondents in percentage terms. Each factor is illustrated in different colours in the bar chart.

The majority contend that “Differences in expectations/commitment between partners” (64%), “Inadequate planning or management” (55%), and “Lack of resources” (46%) are “strong” barriers that may hinder the successful establishment of collaborations. Additionally, the features “Unclear vision/mission or goals” (46%) and “Problems with internal/external communication” (36%) are rated as being “very strong” barriers by most of the interviewees.

It is important to note that the factor “Differences in organisation culture” is regarded as a moderate impediment which confirms the result of the ranking question: where “Organisational fit” was ranked as the fourth most important characteristic when choosing a potential partner organisation. Furthermore, more than half of respondents (55%) believe that the “Lack of appropriate performance measures” might have an influence on the outcome of partnerships. However, performance measures were only named by relief workers in the previous questions as an important element that humanitarian aid organisations require to build successful collaborations: this was not named as a significant element by company employees.

Also, it can be argued that a contradiction between the previous results of the ranking question and the findings of the present question exists. Commercial logistics employees ranked the factor “Interests and motivation for collaboration” in the bottom three of the most important characteristics when choosing a humanitarian aid organisation. This stands in contrast with the result that more than half of the respondents rated “Differences in expectations/commitment between partners” as a “strong barrier” negatively influencing the outcome of a partnership.

Regarding the responses of the humanitarian aid workers it can be seen (Figure 4.15) that the majority of respondents rated “Unclear vision/mission or goals” (36%), and “Differences in organisation culture” (36%) as the “strongest” handicaps for successful corporate-humanitarian collaborations. “Strong” barriers, according to humanitarian aid workers are “Inadequate or poorly managed stakeholder engagement” (36%), “Lack of resources” (36%), and

“Inadequate planning or management” (27%). Considering the fact that “Organisational fit” was ranked fifth out of the seven most important characteristics when choosing a business partner, this outcome clearly shows the opposite, i.e. a great number of humanitarian aid workers do believe “Differences in organisation culture” constitute a “very strong” barrier for a successful relationship.

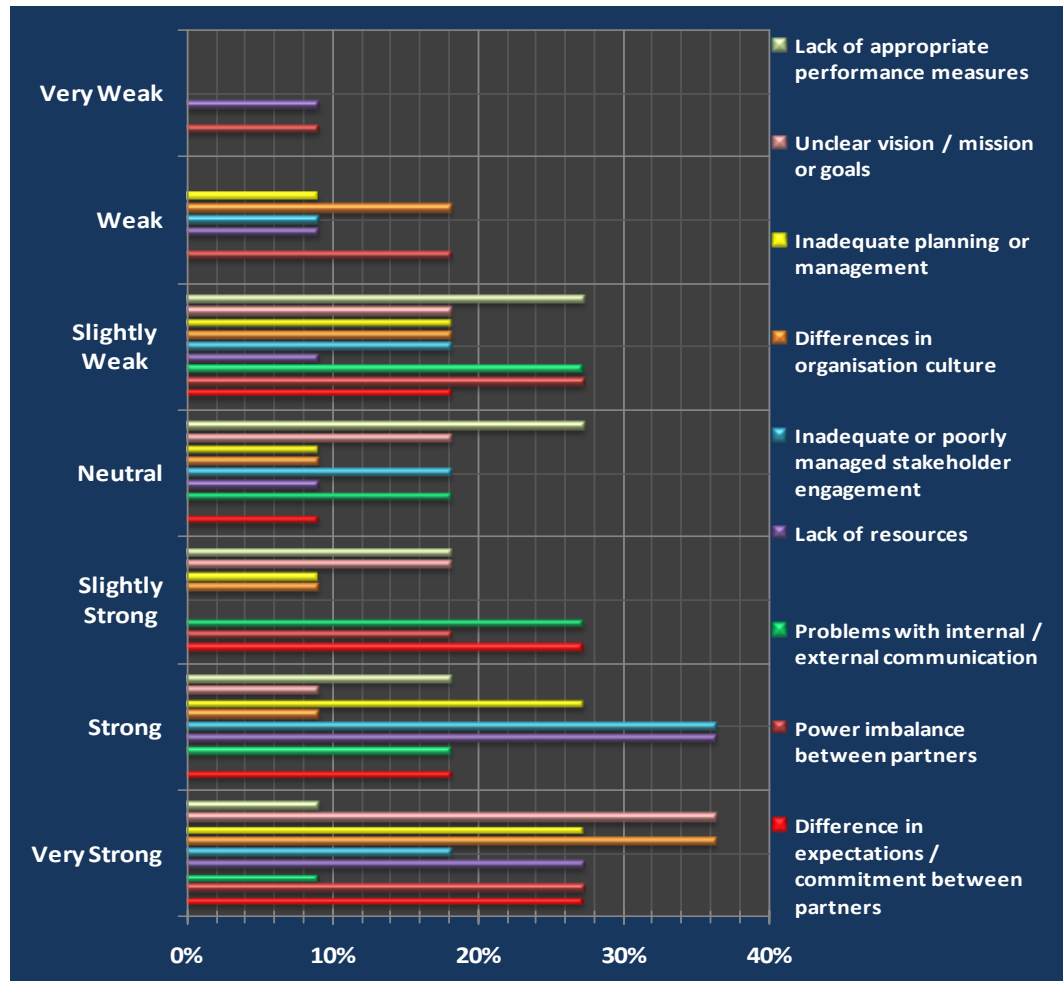


FIGURE 4.15: RESPONDENT’S RATING OF THE STRENGTH OF KEY BARRIERS TO CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (HUMANITARIAN AID SECTOR)

Weaker barriers, according to respondents, are “Lack of appropriate performance measures”, and “Problems with internal/external communication”. Additionally, the factor “Power imbalance between partners” resulted in a relatively fluctuating evaluation: ranging from “very strong” to “very weak”. Considering the mean value for the last factor, “Power imbalance between

partners”, which is 3.3, it can be seen that the average number of respondents are prone to rate it as a “moderate” hurdle for collaborations (please refer to appendix 7.6.1 “Mean and Median values” for a complete overview).

Comparing these results with the findings from the commercial logistics industry it can be argued that both sectors agree that different expectations and a varying level of commitment to the partnership, no clear goals, as well as a lack of resources and pre-planning of procedures create key barriers for cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid and disaster relief. They, however, disagree with regards to “Differences in organisation culture” which humanitarian relief workers view as representing a “very strong” barrier, in contrast to commercial logistics employees who rate it as only “moderately strong”.

4.2.7 Factors that influence cross-sector collaborations

Respondents were asked to what degree specific factors might assist or hinder corporate-humanitarian partnerships. A scale from 3 (“completely assist”) to -3 (“completely hinder”) was deployed. Only the four most important and the four least important factors are again presented (please refer to appendix 7.7.1 “Level of assistance of characteristics for corporate-humanitarian collaborations (commercial logistics industry)” and 7.7.2 “Level of assistance of characteristics for corporate-humanitarian collaborations (humanitarian aid sector)” for a complete overview).

Figure 4.16 shows the ratings given by respondents from the commercial logistics industry. The vertical axis illustrates to what degree the characteristic assists or hinders the collaboration. The total number of respondents in percentage terms is displayed on the horizontal axis. The various barriers are depicted in different colours in the bar chart.

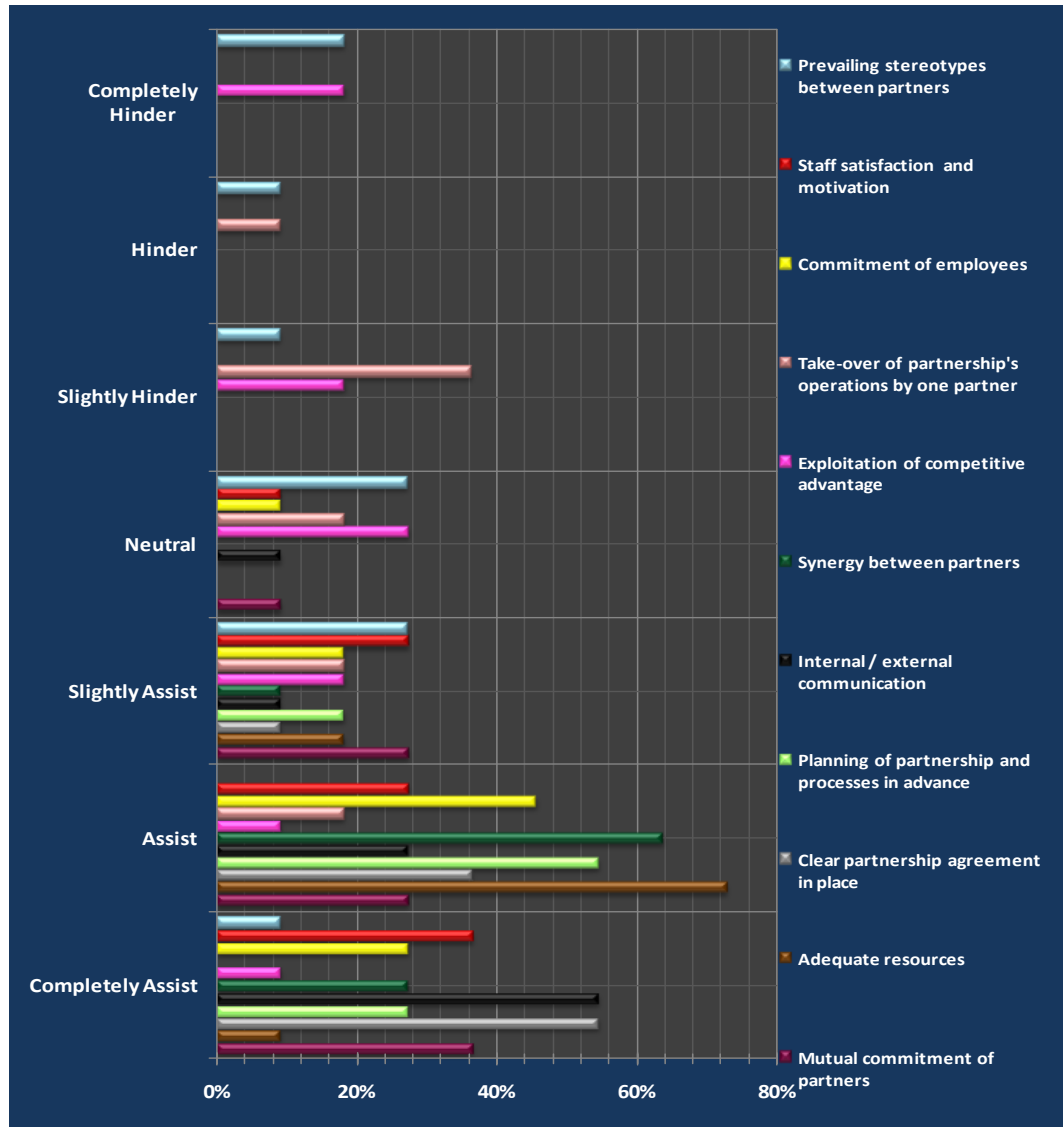


FIGURE 4.16: RESPONDENTS' RATING OF THE LEVEL OF ASSISTANCE OF CHARACTERISTICS FOR CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (COMMERCIAL LOGISTICS INDUSTRY)

The diagram shows that the characteristics “Internal/external communication” (55%), “Clear partnership agreement in place” (55%), “Mutual commitment of partners” (36%), and “Staff satisfaction and motivation” (36%) are rated by the majority of respondents as the most essential elements that assist the successful establishment of collaborations. Further assisting characteristics are “Adequate resources” (73%), “Synergy between partners” (64%), Planning of partnership and processes in advance” (55%), and “Commitment of employees” (46%). These results confirm the findings from the previous question since respondents from the commercial logistics sector indicated that communication, either internal or external, and the pre-determined goals and expectations of

each partner are crucial for effective partnerships. It is important to note that motivation and satisfaction of employees are regarded as additional elements that assist cooperation and which further emphasize the often mentioned quality “commitment of staff” to partnership operations.

The features respondents believe may negatively influence the success of collaborations include “Take-over of partnership’s operations by one partner”, “Prevailing stereotypes between partners”, and “Exploitation of competitive advantage”. The mean values range between 3.1 and 3.8 and the median values between 3 and 4, which confirms that the average number of respondents rate these characteristics as “moderately supporting” or even as “neither assisting nor hindering the partnership operations” (please refer to appendix 7.7.3 “Mean and Median values” for a complete overview). It may be derived that businesses prefer to maintain their independence in a partnership and provide support in managing and accomplishing operations without taking-over the responsibility for the complete mission. Furthermore, it might be argued that prejudices commercial logistics companies may have about humanitarian aid organisations (e.g. having highly bureaucratic processes and relatively slow decision making), or vice versa, influence the establishment of corporate-humanitarian collaborations in the sense that they may prevent organisations from considering engaging in a partnership at all.

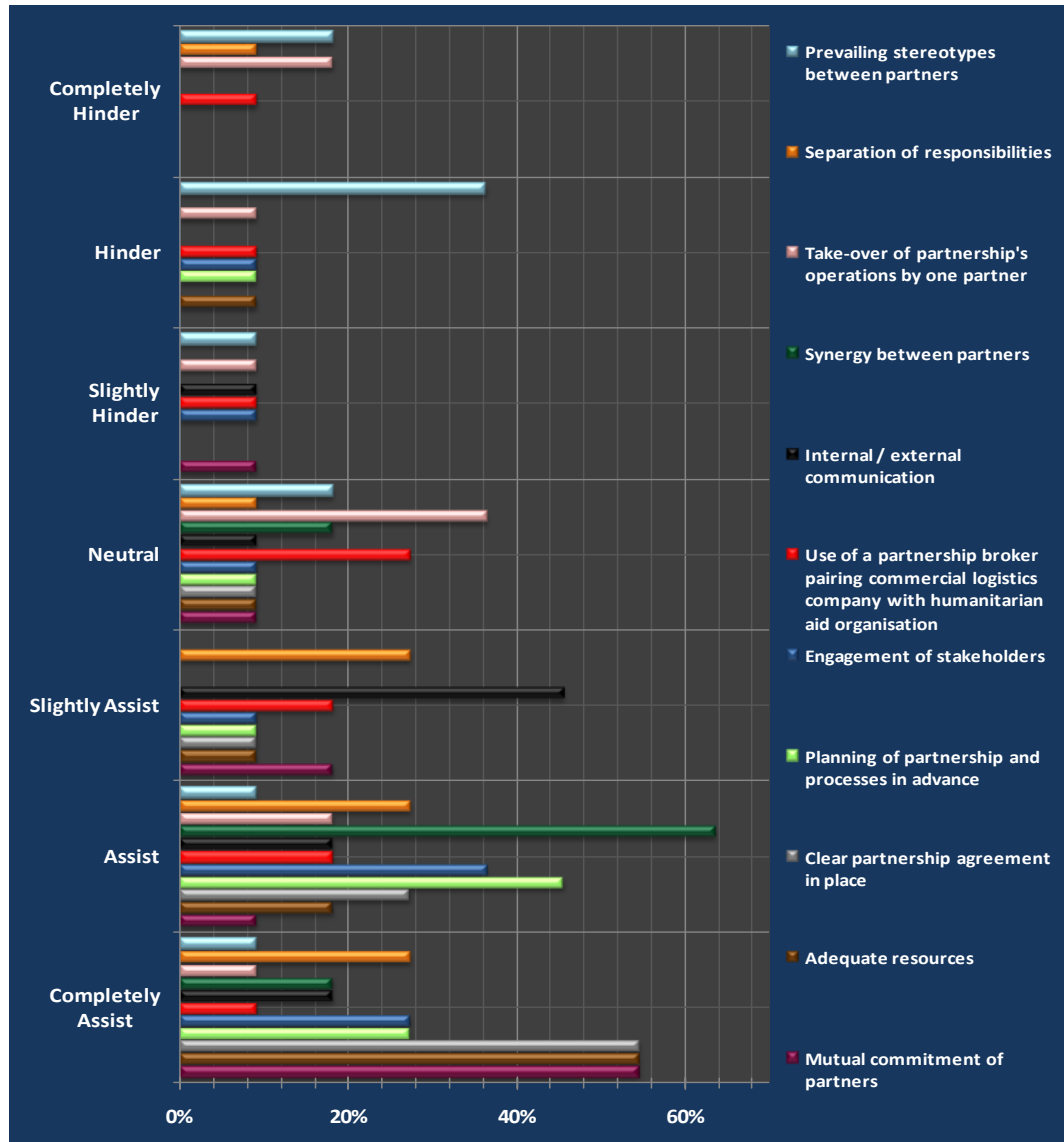


FIGURE 4.17: RESPONDENTS' RATING OF THE LEVEL OF ASSISTANCE OF CHARACTERISTICS FOR CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS (HUMANITARIAN AID SECTOR)

Considering the results of the respondents from the humanitarian aid sector, Figure 4.17 illustrates that the characteristics “Mutual commitment of partners” (55%), “Adequate resources” (55%), and “Clear partnership agreement in place” (55%) were rated by the majority of respondents as “completely assisting” cross-sector collaborations. Additionally, humanitarian aid workers rated “Synergy between partners”, “Planning of partnership and processes in advance”, “Engagement of stakeholders”, as well as “Separation of responsibilities” as supporting factors for partnership development. Considering the previous findings, it can be stated that respondents confirmed their point of view with regard to considering the availability of resources and a clear partnership agreement as being essential elements that assist partners when

engaging in a collaboration. The results also highlight that commitment on both sides is believed to be necessary for successful cooperation. “Interests and motivation for collaboration”, however, was ranked as the second to least important characteristic by relief personnel when choosing a business partner. The findings also reveal that the humanitarian sector is considered as being an independent partner with separate responsibilities rather than taking-over or releasing complete power or processes.

36% of respondents believe that “Prevailing stereotypes between partners” may hinder the development of corporate-humanitarian partnerships. Furthermore, the “Take-over of partnership’s operations by one partner” is seen as a characteristic that might not contribute to the success of a collaboration. This is also the case with the factor “Internal/external communication”, which the majority believes only slightly supports the cooperation.

Comparing the results of both sectors, it is clearly identifiable that collaborations need to be based on a partnership agreement that is supported by the availability of sufficient resources to manage the cooperation as well as mutual commitment to the partnership. It can also be stated that synergies between the partners involved in a collaboration and the preplanning of procedures enhances the effectiveness of the engagement. The business sector additionally argues that the satisfaction and motivation of employees contributes to successful operations whereas humanitarian aid workers note that the separation of responsibilities and the appropriate engagement of stakeholders are assisting factors that need to be taken into consideration.

Finally, both sectors agree that the independence of partners and their operations is important for the success of a collaboration and they also believe that stereotypes between partners complicate partnership activities.

Based on these outcomes the major factors commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations require to build successful partnerships will be delineated in the following section.

4.3 Concluding critical success factors (CSF) for cross-sector collaborations

The previously analysed findings of the questionnaire highlight the respondents’ attitudes toward various characteristics that may be essential when engaging in a corporate-humanitarian collaboration. Consequently, it is now

appropriate to identify the main critical success factors that commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid organisations should fulfil when partnering in the field of humanitarian aid and disaster relief.

First, the features that humanitarian aid organisations require in order to be considered by commercial logistics companies to be a viable business partner are highlighted. Based on the findings, logistics providers put emphasis on the partner's geographic scope of operation, the public awareness that can be achieved, and finally the reputation of the partnering organisation in their selection process.

According to businesses, humanitarian aid agencies, require first of all sufficient resources, including highly motivated and satisfied employees who show dedication to the collaboration and are open to changes in their organisational culture and their daily activities. Additionally, a certain level of process transparency, honesty, and trust towards the partnering business are of importance. Also of importance is the possession of similar core competencies with regards to logistics, as the crucial area of the humanitarian aid organisation that requires support from the commercial company.

In order to determine the scope, area, and timeframe of business assistance, clear engagement rules which preferably are long-term, need to be negotiated before finally engaging in a collaboration. Formulation of the overall vision of the cooperation, and agreement on this vision by both sides, seems to be a further assisting feature for corporate-business collaborations. Shared vision may also support the achievement of mutual goals and expectations, so that both partners can equally benefit from the cooperation. The process of transferring best practices and know-how, as well as striving to efficiently solve problems and to accomplish necessary activities in a timely manner, may further contribute to successful relations.

The commercial logistics sector further believes that synergies between partners which may be related to similar values that drive the search for a partnering organisation as well as the beforehand planning of procedures and communication channels between partners assist in collaborations.

Finally, logistics providers find it important that despite their cooperating with a humanitarian aid organisation by supporting and improving their logistics processes, responsibility for the collaboration should be shared by both partners: rather than the commercial company taking-over complete coordination of the partnership's operations.

Considering the humanitarian aid organisation's point of view with regard to the success factors their business partner needs to fulfil, the following can be said. First, the partner's geographic scope in terms of operations and network, the availability of material and financial resources, as well as the company's public image are regarded as the most important considerations when searching for a potential partner in a logistics company.

According to relief workers, businesses require a high level of flexibility with regard to their ability to adapt to sudden changes in demand and in the working environment, as well as their willingness to conform to the cultural values of the humanitarian aid organisation. Additionally, firms should have a clear understanding of the constraints humanitarian field personnel has to face when providing disaster relief.

Rapid access to the partner's provided resources and services paired with adequate and competitive pricing are features that humanitarian aid workers place value on. When engaging in a partnership with a commercial logistics company, relief workers acknowledge that an honest approach with transparent and efficient processes of all aspects involved should be developed in order to enhance the success of the collaboration. Moreover, the resources and services provided by the logistics provider need to be determined in a partnership agreement: preferably on a long-term basis. Also, mutual goals and a clear vision of the cooperation, which both partners agree on, need to be formulated in advance.

For the purpose of achieving mutual benefit, aid workers assume that the sharing of knowledge with regard to best practices, logistics expertise, and overall process efficiency, as well as mutual trust, are crucial prerequisites that partner firms need to fulfil. Nevertheless, a certain level of independence between partners should be maintained during the cooperation, which can be supported by the separation of responsibilities. In order to achieve a common communication platform, the deployment of a partnership broker that facilitates the pairing of the humanitarian aid organisation and the commercial logistics provider is a strategy preferred by humanitarian aid agencies. Taking advantage of the expertise of a professional broker (e.g. internal employee or external broker) who promotes the partnership may also enhance the collaboration's internal and public profile.

Another quality the humanitarian aid agency's partner requires is the appropriate and effective management of stakeholders involved in the

collaboration. Considering the vast numbers of individuals involved in disaster relief operations, the adequate coordination of these individuals may contribute to the efficient accomplishment of relief operations.

Finally, determining and planning of partnership processes in advance, paired with staff committed to the collaboration and possible synergies between partners, are each believed to be supporting critical success factors.

In summary, the critical success factors both commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations agree to be important in corporate-humanitarian collaborations are illustrated in Figure 4.18 below:

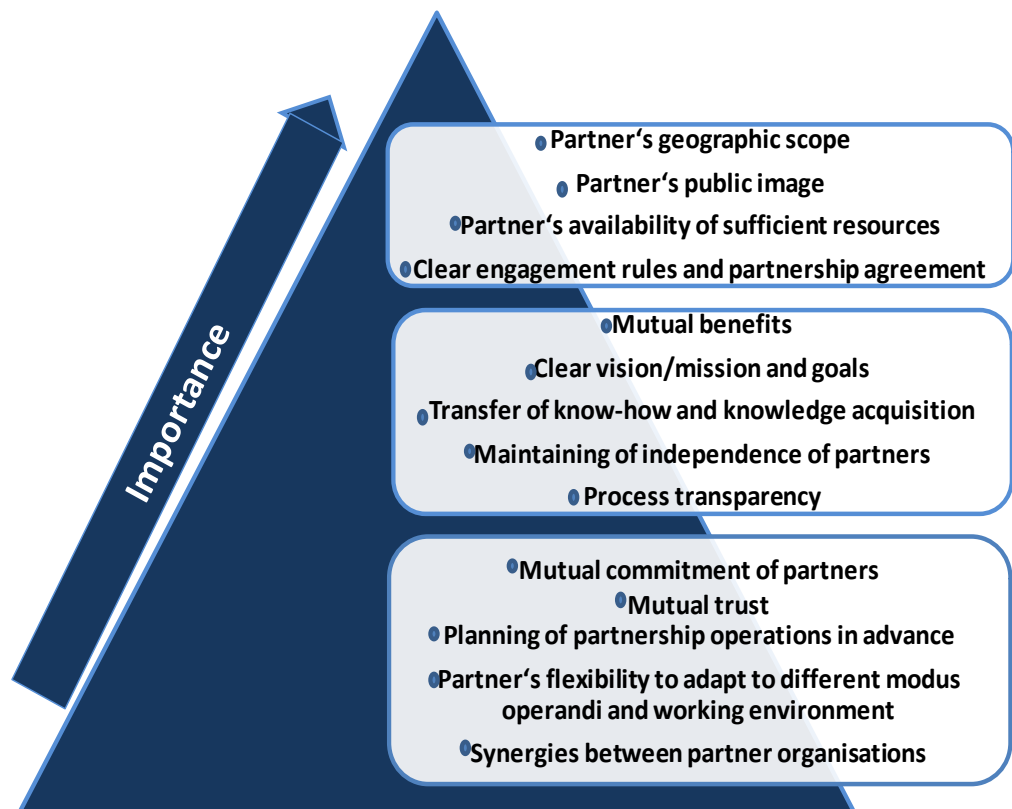


FIGURE 4.18: CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS FOR CORPORATE-HUMANITARIAN COLLABORATIONS

To conclude, it can be stated that the above listed critical success factors that both sectors rated as being important represent a reliable framework upon which corporate-humanitarian collaborations can be built. Besides these characteristics, businesses and humanitarian aid agencies need to find the most appropriate way of dealing with the partner's different organisation cultural

principles and constraints according to their unique partnership in order to be able to obtain the maximum benefit from the partnership.

The findings also confirm to the greatest extent the most important success factors for cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid and disaster relief that are emphasised in current academic literature. Especially, mutual trust and transparency as stated by Tennyson (2003) are characteristics most of the respondents rated as being crucial in partnerships. Transparency is often regarded as an essential requirement in order to build trust between partners to which Bryson, Crosby, and Stone (2006) refer to as being the lubricant and glue in the cooperation. Accompanying this factor is the commitment of individuals involved in the cooperation to further enhance the partnership's outcome.

The majority of respondents agree that sufficient resources, such as financial assets, technologies and expertise, as well as services and their assessment in advance, contribute to effective partnership processes. This is confirmed by Simo and Bies (2007) who state that sufficient organisational capacity is crucial to achieving mutual goals. Closely related to this observation is the importance of each partner's agreement on engagement rules and expectations for the purpose of increasing the focus of the collaboration.

The findings clearly show that the independence of the partners is an important criterion for both the logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector. This finding, however, could not be drawn from recent academic literature emphasised as a critical success factor for corporate-humanitarian collaborations. Additionally, the partner's geographic scope of operation and presence as well as its flexibility are further characteristics in the findings of this report that are not explicitly mentioned by academics as being crucial for successful partnerships.

Overall, commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid organisations need to be aware of the potential risks that are involved in corporate-humanitarian collaborations and must discuss openly an exit strategy for both partners before a partnership is entered into. Additionally, key performance indicators used to evaluate the performance of the partnership operations need to be in place, so that the strengths and weaknesses of partnership practices can be made visible to the partners and to the public and effectively remediated.

Chapter five follows, which looks at existing collaborations between commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations.

5. CHAPTER FIVE: MODEL PARTNERSHIPS IN HUMANITARIAN AID OPERATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter five provides insights into the learning opportunities that corporate-humanitarian collaborations offer. Despite various differences between the commercial logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector, collaborations based on a CSR (corporate social responsibility) programme, for example, can provide benefits for both partners. In the following section, the partnership between TNT (Thomas Nationwide Transport) and the WFP (World Food Programme) established in 2002, and the collaboration between DHL (Dalsey, Hillblom, Lynn) and the UN (United Nations) launched in 2005 are chosen as practical models for cross-sector collaborations. Based on these existing collaborations, the chapter first provides a profile of each company and organisation. Second, the processes involved in the establishment of partnerships, including the motivation for cooperating, their development, as well as requirements for success, are highlighted. Finally, the benefits, challenges, and lessons learned from these cases are pointed out.

5.2 The collaboration between TNT and the WFP

5.2.1 Company overview: TNT

TNT is a Netherlands-based international express and mail delivery services company that is focused on the global transfer of goods and documents tailored to specific customer demands (Datamonitor, 2009a; Datamonitor, 2008). TNT provides a broad variety of services, including collection, sorting, transportation, and distribution of various goods within pre-determined time periods (same day, next day, specified day). With its company headquarters in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, TNT mainly operates in Europe and North America and has a total of 26,310 vehicles and 48 aircrafts available, and employs around 160,000 people in 200 countries worldwide (TNT, 2010). The organisation recorded revenues of EUR10,172 million (TNT, 2010) during the financial year

ending December 2009. Moreover, the operating income amounts to EUR665 million (TNT, 2010) for the financial year 2009.

TNT's services are divided into two different departments: Express and Mail (Table 5.1). The *Express division* encompasses door-to-door deliveries of documents, parcels, and freight to worldwide destinations. Furthermore, solutions for business-to-business customers, such as the regional, national, and global delivery of goods, are also included in the Express business division. The transportation of goods is facilitated by air, road or sea freight, or a combination thereof. Special handling requirements are also available for the medical or high-tech industry sector, for example, as well as transport solutions for dangerous goods (TNT, 2009). The Express services are conducted in 34 European countries through the Europe Express business division and a further 200 countries worldwide, which are managed by the Express "rest of world" business department (Datamonitor, 2008). The total number of depots and road and air hubs amounts to 2,331 (Datamonitor, 2008).

TNT's sales channels can be grouped into field sales, major accounts, global accounts, and postal alliances with the majority of sales employees in the field sales channel. Alliances are established with postal organisations that provide TNT's services to their customers (Datamonitor, 2008).

The main operations at the delivery depot are the sorting of incoming and outgoing goods and the consolidation of shipments, which are then loaded onto the appropriate vehicles. TNT provides the customer with up-to-date information about the current status of his/her shipment(s) through the use of modern track-and-trace systems, such as Global Link. Hence, a rapid proof-of-delivery service can be supplied.

The *Mail division* includes services, such as collecting, sorting, transporting, and distribution of domestic and international mail (parcels, letters) and, finally, addressed direct mail (mail articles that contain a specific name or address) and unaddressed mail (mail articles that do not contain a specific name or address, e.g. street and/or post office box addresses) (Datamonitor, 2008). Data management services, such as direct marketing, and other services including the management of physical and electronic data flows are also provided.

The Mail sector is further grouped into mail Netherlands, cross-border mail, European mail networks, and data and document management.

Indicator	Express	Mail
Revenue	€5,956 million	€4,216 million
Operating Income	€193 million	€472 million
Employees	78,030	79,912
Operational Performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Consignments:</i> 230.6 million • <i>Kilos:</i> 7,696 ktonnes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Single mail items:</i> 1,008 million • <i>Bulk mail:</i> 3,465 million

TABLE 5.1: TNT COMPANY OVERVIEW: “EXPRESS” AND “MAIL” DIVISION (ADAPTED FROM TNT ANNUAL REPORT 2009)

Mail Netherlands is responsible for the collection, sorting, transportation, and delivery of mail items (letters, magazines, advertising mail, parcels) and bulk printed matter within the Netherlands. These services are conducted through the TNT subsidiary TPG Post (Datamonitor, 2008). Further services are the renting of mailboxes, pick-up of postal items for businesses, change of address service, as well as re-routing and safekeeping of mail (Datamonitor, 2008).

The *Cross-border Mail division* (joint venture with Spring Global Mail) is responsible for the handling of exported, imported or mail items passing through the Netherlands with the origin of private and public postal carriers. These services are provided to business and private customers alike.

The *European Mail Networks* (TNT Post) operates in Benelux, Germany, the United Kingdom, Italy, Austria, and Eastern Europe (TNT, 2010).

Finally, the *Data and Management unit* focuses on direct marketing and document handling. The department refers to services, such as data collection, database management, and data mining. Document handling activities encompass, among other things, mailroom management and workflow efficiency consultation. Customers in this business segment are operating in the energy, telecommunications, or insurance industry.

TNT has a strong brand image [the Fortune magazine’s 2010 survey of the “World’s Most Admired” companies in the area of “Delivery” ranked TNT third place (Fortune, 2010)] which helps the company to establish and launch new products and to penetrate into new markets, and provides the company with a competitive advantage. Additionally, TNT’s market share in the European express market amounts to 18% (2008) which is higher than its core competitors,

such as DHL (16%), United Parcel Service (9%), LaPoste (7%), Royal Mail (5%), and FedEx (2%) (Datamonitor, 2009a).

5.2.2 Organisation overview: The WFP

The World Food Programme (WFP) is the food aid division of the United Nations (UN) (Ingram, 1983) and constitutes the world's largest humanitarian organisation fighting against global hunger (WFP, 1996). It provides food to approximately 90 million people p.a, 56 million of whom are hungry children, in over 80 different countries (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009) (see Table 5.2 for an overview of the WFP's performance in 2008). In 2010, the WFP aims at delivering food assistance to over 90 million people in need in 73 countries (WFP, 2010).

People reached in 2008: 102.1 million people in 78 countries	Food delivered in 2008: 3.9 million metric tonnes	Expenditures 2008: US\$3.72 billion
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 62.3 million people in emergency and relief operations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1.1 million tonnes came through in-kind donations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some 93 percent of WFP funding goes either to cover food costs or to pay for its transport
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 17.6 million people in development projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2.8 million tonnes was purchased with cash 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WFP employed 10,200 people in 2008 (91 percent of staff serve in the field)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 62.2 million children (including 20.5 million children through school meals projects) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • US\$1.4 billion was spent buying food 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 9.5 million internally displaced persons (IDPs) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • US\$1.1 billion was spent buying food in 73 developing countries 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1.9 million refugees 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 75.6 percent of food was purchased in developing countries 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2.4 million people affected by HIV/Aids 		

TABLE 5.2: OVERVIEW OF THE WORLD FOOD PROGRAMME'S PERFORMANCE IN 2008
(ADAPTED FROM WFP, 2009)

The WFP is headquartered in Rome and was first established in 1961 (WFP, 2010), by parallel resolutions of the United Nations General Assembly and the Conference of the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) (Ingram, 1983), for a four-year-period only. However, operations did not start before January 1963 due to a three-year experimental period (WFP, 2010). Since 1963, the WFP has been able to provide food to more than 1.4 billion people in need and spent over US\$30 billion for development and emergency relief operations (WFP, 2010). In addition, the WFP deploys an average of 60 aircrafts, 40 ships, and 5,000 trucks on any given day (WFP, 2010).

The WFP is led by an Executive Board encompassing representatives of 36 member states. The Executive Director is Josette Sheeran who was appointed by the UN Secretary General and the Director-General of the FAO for a period of five years.

The organisation's vision is "a world in which every man, woman and child has access at all times to the food needed for an active and healthy life. Without food, there can be no sustainable peace, no democracy and no development" (WFP, 2010a, p. 1).

The WFP cooperates with other organisations, especially the Rome-based United Nations food and agriculture entities, such as the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, mainly providing technical and policy support) and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD, mainly developing food aid programmes) and other partners in order to achieve their vision. In addition, the WFP collaborates closely with the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and receives support from the World Bank as well as the International Monetary Fund (WFP, 2010). Overall, the organisation collaborates with approximately 3,000 (WFP, 2010) national and international NGOs in order to transport food to the needy.

The WFP's operations are based on five objectives (WFP, 2010):

- *Save lives and protect livelihood in emergencies*
- *Prepare for emergencies*
- *Restore and rebuild lives after emergencies*
- *Reduce chronic hunger and malnutrition everywhere*
- *Strengthen the capacity of countries to reduce hunger*

The organisation focuses on assisting governments in the establishment of their own food assistance programmes for economic and social development; the feeding of children, students, pregnant and nursing women; assistance with rural works; the provision of food and logistics support for victims of disasters or political crises, including refugees; and promoting the independence of poor people through the provision of assets and the implementation of labour-intensive work programmes (Ingram, 1983; WFP, 2010).

The WFP divides its operations into four groups, namely Emergency Operations (EMOPs), Protracted Relief and Recovery operations (PRROs), Development Operations (DOs), and Special Operations (SOs).

EMOPs refer to the immediate help in disaster-struck regions through the provision of cash, food aid or development projects, such as the reconstruction of houses, up to 24 months after a disaster has occurred.

If, within this period of time, the disaster-struck communities are not able to guarantee livelihood and food security, PRROs will be drawn up. This may include the provision of food for education and training purposes, food for recovery, extended relief, or relief for refugees.

DOs focus on the provision of food in order to help people in need to invest in long-term assets, such as houses, schools, agricultural skills, and technology, with the aim of ensuring access to important resources that help build food security.

Finally, SOs refer to activities that intend to speed up relief operations, such as the construction or repair of streets, bridges and railways, and the provision of logistics services and communications initiatives.

In the event of a disaster or humanitarian emergency, the WFP may provide support and advice to the local government and organisations involved in the relief efforts in order to assess, as accurately as possible, the needs for relief supplies, and to plan and coordinate food aid interventions (Barton, 2000). The organisation also monitors the utilization, handling and transportation/distribution of aid supplies to the people in need.

The aid operations are completely funded through voluntary donations, including cash, food, or services. The governments of donor countries constitute the largest sources of funding. Every year approximately two million metric tons of food is purchased, with about three quarters of this produced in developing countries. Nevertheless, as much food as possible is sourced within the country

where it is actually needed, so that transport costs can be reduced and the local economy stimulated.

The WFP aims at achieving food security worldwide, which is defined as the “access of all people at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life” (FAO, 2002, p. 1) ultimately resulting in the total eradication of hunger. In addition, the use of WFP food aid is designed for the poorest people who are involved in emergencies or crises and are dependent on donated food due to the fact that they may either be unable to produce a sufficient amount of food or do not own the resources to procure food from other sources that they and their households need to survive (WFP, 2010).

The organisation aims at coordinating their food aid operations alongside disaster relief support from other humanitarian aid agencies as far as possible for the purpose of using the available resources as efficiently as possible with regard to both cost and need considerations. In addition, priority is given to the support of “disaster prevention, preparedness and mitigation and post-disaster rehabilitation activities as part of development programmes” (WFP, 2010a, p. 1) for the ultimate goal of building self-reliance.

During their operations, including advice, logistics support and information (WFP, 2010), the WFP maintains a neutral point of view regardless of the political agendas of governments in order to provide food aid to the neediest people and countries in the world.

The WFP distributes its food to the affected countries, often “some of the world’s most inhospitable places” (WFP, 2010b, p. 1), through land, air, and sea transport.

Four main stages in food relief operations can be identified (Barton, 2000):

- *Internal procedures*
- *Procurement and delivery to donor ports*
- *Delivery to the recipient country*
- *Internal distribution*

This procedure provides a framework that assists the WFP in coordinating and monitoring most of the stages of food relief operations and helps them to

identify greater problems in the chain rapidly before they may cause major disruptions in the supply network.

In the provision of aid by the WFP, 90% (WFP, 2010) of the food is transported by ship to the closest harbour of the emergency regions. Often, local infrastructure is underdeveloped; therefore, there is a need to construct new streets and bridges, and to rebuild ports and railways, as well as to build offices and warehouses (Scott-Bowden, 2003) in order to stock relief supplies and transport them to the people. Hence, the WFP might be forced to create a supply chain across deserts, rivers, and mountains to serve people in need. This poses a huge challenge to the logistics capacities of the organisation. Once the supply line is established, resources, such as trucks, trains, helicopters, ships, barges, canoes, elephants, and donkeys, may be used to transport the food to refugee camps, therapeutic feeding centres, and further food aid camps (WFP, 2010).

In order to guarantee a rapid response, the WFP coordinates a network of UN Humanitarian Response Depots, located close to disaster-prone regions around the world, where readily accessible emergency supplies are stocked.

The WFP further provides logistical assistance, including transportation assets and purchasing services, to other UN organisations and NGOs as well as to additional actors involved.

The logistics of food aid can be summarised as follows: “If getting the right people at the right time is the essence of a successful relief intervention, logistical support can spell the difference between success and failure” (WFP, 1996, p. 9).

5.2.3 The collaboration between TNT and the WFP: A model partnership

Regardless of fundamental differences between humanitarian aid organisations and commercial logistics companies, the partnership between TNT (a Netherlands based express, logistics, and international mail delivery services company) and the United Nations World Food Programme (WFP: the largest food aid organisation worldwide) proves the possibility of a mutual beneficial collaboration.

The five year partnership was formally established in 2002 (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009; Binder & Witte, 2007), supported by a Memorandum of Understanding and soon came to be known as the “Moving the World”

partnership (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). TNT has committed a service and cash contribution of EUR5 million per year (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004), whereas the company invested EUR8.5 million (EUR1.5 million cash donations and EUR7 million in-kind services and knowledge transfer projects) in the collaboration in 2004 alone (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). In 2005, TNT further increased their donations to EUR10 million including knowledge transfer, active involvement in operations, and funding and partnership awareness activities (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

5.2.3.1 Deciding on a motive

When, in early 2002, James Morrison accepted the position of Executive Director at the UN's WFP he emphasised two major objectives: namely, the enhancement of the WFP's campaign providing food in schools and the involvement of commercial companies in food aid operations for the purpose of broadening the donor base. At nearly the same time, TNT made the decision to move from small and disparate philanthropic projects, such as community-based programmes, to strategic programmes that focus on the company's core competencies and support the brand image through the development of a corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiative. As Ludo Oelrich, programme director for Moving the World, puts it: "these initiatives had met their objectives, and in 2001 it was time to initiate programs in line with TNT's global presence" (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 147).

TNT's CEO, Peter Bakker, initially founded the idea of such a CSR programme when he realised at the end of 2001 that hunger in the world was, to a great extent, a logistics issue (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009) and that TNT, with its global operations and resource capabilities, was able to contribute to the improvement of this situation, but only in cooperation with an expert agency (Maitland, 2004). He came across this problem: "while on a flight to Singapore in November 2001, I read a Business Week article about September 11th and its causes and implications. The writer was pointing out the gulf between the rich and the poor. She had worked out that every seven seconds a child dies from hunger. Since then this horrifying statistic has in fact become closer to every five seconds. The writer's last question was: 'What are you doing for the world after September 11th?' So I began to ask myself that question" (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2004, p. 1).

TNT then faced the challenge of whether to focus on internal and external environmental or social- and humanitarian-oriented activities. Due to its nature as a service provider, the organisation's executives decided to concentrate on humanitarian-oriented issues: this seemed to be more compatible with the company's overall brand image (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2004) as, "a people-focused company capable of making a difference in society" (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008, p. 27). Bakker reinforced this decision through his statement: "it's not enough to be socially responsible within our company. We should strive for social leadership outside our business. If through our business we can help improve people's living conditions, it is our responsibility to do so" (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 147-148).

Focusing on external humanitarian projects enables the company to enhance its relationships with stakeholders that may influence TNT's business operations: such as NGOs, advocacy groups, government, society, and media. In addition, the organisation's management board believed that their employees may develop an intensified sense of belonging and pride when contributing to the wellbeing of society through their daily work (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008).

The next challenge TNT had to face was the search for a potential partner, which needed to be a neutral organisation with global operations possessing an organisational culture that matched TNT's own culture, as well as their core competency in logistics (Maitland, 2004). However, not-for-profit organisations often have different organisational structures, funding mechanisms, ideologies, and modus operandi compared to commercial enterprises (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008). After having selected several humanitarian aid organisations that could have been suitable partners, TNT realised that it would hardly be possible to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of these agencies using standard business indicators.

Hence, a new set of indicators was developed through a number of steps designed specifically for TNT's goal and context. Firstly, the organisations were filtered according to their reputation and neutrality. Candidates with highly important missions, but with a debatable image in regions where TNT was operating, were separated out. In order to strengthen business performance in

China, TNT considered the impact of cooperating with an agency that focused on the enforcement of human rights, which might have had an involuntary impact on the organisation's business license there (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). In order to establish a successful corporate-humanitarian collaboration that would be accepted in each of TNT's operating countries, agencies needed to fulfil both qualities of having a good reputation and being politically neutral in their operations.

After this initial process of filtering the potential partners, TNT then narrowed down their selection criteria to four main factors, with their varying importance represented as percentage values: Organisational fit (40%), PR-value/interest and attitude (30%), effectiveness and overhead costs (20%), and geographical scope (10%) (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2004; Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Organisational fit can be regarded as the most important criterion since TNT intended to focus on knowledge transfer and the provision of resources with regard to their core competency, i.e. the company would provide logistical support rather than just donating cash. Thus, the partner's need for improved logistics processes was of utmost importance.

Second, the potential business partner's interests and attitudes had to match with TNT's and with their stakeholders' vision in order that the parties could add value to each other. Additionally, humanitarian aid organisations that do not have cost effective operations, such as those with highly bureaucratic procedures, would not have fit with TNT's action-driven culture. Finally, the potential partner's geographical scope, with regard to their international missions and presence, was chosen as a final evaluation criterion in order to ensure global impact in the outcomes of the partnership.

The selection process resulted in five potential candidates: namely, International Federation of Blue Shield (IFBS), Help the Kids (HtK), United for the Children's Future (UCF), Medical Aid (MA), and the World Food Programme (WFP).

The final step included the comparison of the five candidates in a way that provided them the opportunity to "voice their needs and check how they matched TNT's capabilities, rather than just selling how TNT could help them" (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009, p. 150). However, this contributed a challenge to all

parties due to language barriers and the lack of knowledge TNT had about the humanitarian sector and vice versa.

In order to assess the appropriateness of the potential partners, an information template had to be completed, consisting of the criteria “organisational fit” (e.g. partner’s structure, size, services, potential) “image/interest and attitude” (e.g. image and political engagement), “marketing and communications” (e.g. potential for shared marketing in a future collaboration), “logistics” (e.g. current processes, skills, types of goods handled, and types of transport and destinations), and “opportunities” (e.g. envisioned future opportunities with regard to their logistical needs) (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009).

After having spent around four months on the evaluation process, two more months were invested in confirming each potential partners’ emotional fit (e.g. values, vision, enthusiasm) and organisational readiness (e.g. commitment to engage in a long-term collaboration) (Tomasini, Van Wassenhove & Stapleton, 2008) before finally the UN WFP was chosen as a partner organisation.

Nevertheless, Bakker and Oelrich had to convince TNT’s board members of the collaboration with the WFP by highlighting the possibility of improving the company’s long-term competitiveness in the logistics industry.

5.2.3.2 Establishing the collaboration

The organisational and emotional fit of TNT and the WFP was confirmed during the first meeting between Bakker, Oelrich and former WFP Executive Director Jim Morris. “Morris showed strong signs of commitment and motivation, pointing out the many areas in which the WFP could benefit from TNT’s expertise. Most important, we recognized in him the same driving values and vision that guided us in our partner search process” (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2004, p. 5). Bakker further stated: “he not only spoke our corporate language but brought to the table WFP’s logistics agenda; something which made it easier for us to picture our partnership” (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2004, p. 4).

In the next step, both organisations had to agree to tangible and realistic projects with explicit goals. This was done during a field visit of a WFP relief mission in Tanzania, together with a team of members of TNT's senior management (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004).

Both organisations brainstormed possible areas of cooperation and finally agreed on four core domains (Moving the World, 2010):

- *Private Sector Fundraising and Awareness*
- *Hands-on Support*
- *Knowledge Transfer*
- *Transport for Good*

5.2.3.3 The four initiatives

The “Private Sector Fundraising and Awareness” initiative aims at increasing public awareness of the WFP’s operations and encouraging donations from the private sector through several activities. So far TNT employees have raised more than EUR11 million in funds, which is mainly used to support the WFP’s Global School Feeding Campaign. TNT’s support consists of three main elements: cash donation to the WFP’s Global School Feeding Campaign, a cash contribution from TNT staff through the accomplishment of donation collecting activities, and finally the active involvement of TNT staff in the WFP’s school nutrition projects in Africa, Asia, and Latin America (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). This initiative further implies the WFP’s need to broaden their donor base from mainly governmental contributions to donations from private sector companies. Therefore, TNT supports the WFP’s efforts through assisting with the development of fundraising strategies with regard to corporations and consumers, and the creation of business plans. These measures aim at increasing the WFP’s stakeholder network, especially with commercial organisations and brand awareness in the Netherlands and Italy. In the following, Table 5.3 provides an overview of the major projects of the initiative “Private Sector Fundraising and Awareness”.

Project	Description
Cause Related Marketing (CRM)	CRM utilizes marketing techniques and other strategies to join corporate interests to the objectives of not-for-profit organisations. TNT, therefore, markets the collaboration with the WFP through their customer networks in order to encourage donations and raise awareness for the WFP. Over the past five years, CRM activities raised €1.7 million for the WFP.
Employee Fundraising	Employee Fundraising refers to a cash contribution from TNT staff through the accomplishment of donation collecting activities in order to support the WFP's Global School Feeding Campaign in the countries Cambodia, The Gambia, Malawi, Nicaragua, and Tanzania. Over the past six years, TNT employees have raised more than €12 million to support the WFP.
School Feeding Support	The initiative aims at creating a stable and beneficial learning environment through the provision of food at schools in order to help children learn and study and to promote long-term development goals and approach short-term hunger problems (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2004).
World Economic Forum	The World Economic Forum (WEF) is an annual meeting held in Davos, Switzerland that TNT and the WFP attend in order to increase awareness of public-private partnerships: and of the WFP in general.

TABLE 5.3: PROJECT OVERVIEW "PRIVATE SECTOR FUNDRAISING AND AWARENESS"
(ADAPTED FROM MOVING THE WORLD OFFICIAL HOMEPAGE, 2010)

Further initiatives are "Colour the World", "Kids Moving the World", "Student Internships", "The Twinning Model", and "Walk the World" (please refer to appendix 7.1 "Project overview 'Private Sector Fundraising and Awareness'" for further information on these initiatives).

Second, “Hands-on Support” refers to the support provided mainly for the WFP’s logistics needs, and to efforts involved with rationalising and improving logistics competencies in specific regions in terms of warehousing, fleet management, and joint procurement (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2004). In this area, TNT provides the WFP with its specialised skills, and resources, such as warehousing, aircraft, and vehicles. Table 5.4 provides a short project overview.

Project	Description
Emergency Response Team & Emergency Response	TNT arranged an Emergency Response Team which is on stand-by to assist the WFP in any emergency situation. The trained stand-by team provides hands-on assistance in technical areas in the field as well as training for WFP staff. Furthermore, an aviation training programme for the WFP’s international cadre of air transport and movement officers was put in place by TNT in 2003 (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). TNT is usually able to respond to requests from the WFP within 48 hours to support them in the areas of aviation, warehousing, transportation, reporting and communications.
Humanitarian Response Network (HRN)	The HRN supports the building of a global network of efficient and strategically located warehousing facilities for the WFP and other UN aid agencies for the purpose of pre-positioning important relief supplies.
Logistics Emergency Teams (LETs)	The LETs refer to the pooling of logistics expertise (e.g. airport coordination), human resources (e.g. warehouse managers, airport managers), and in-kind services (warehouses, trucks) from TNT, UPS, and Agility to be made available to the humanitarian community in the case of a disaster.

TABLE 5.4: PROJECT OVERVIEW “ON-HAND SUPPORT” (ADAPTED FROM MOVING THE WORLD OFFICIAL HOMEPAGE, 2010)

The third initiative “Knowledge Transfer” aims at sharing best practices and specialised knowledge through the active involvement of TNT staff in the WFP’s missions around the world, especially in the areas of transportation, logistics, IT, and project management (see Table 5.5).

Project	Description
Aviation Global Framework	WFP Aviation transports relief supplies and personnel to remote and disaster-struck areas quickly for the WFP and for the wider humanitarian community. The focus of this project is on the improvement of practices in three primary categories: air transport service operations management, aviation safety, and professional development training.
Commodity Tracking	Within the Commodity Tracking project, TNT and its IT partner Ordina improved the WFP’s COMPAS system (Commodity Movement Processing and Analysis System) which allows for efficient tracking and tracing of food shipments from their arrival at WFP hubs to the distribution points for those in need.
Fleet Management	Fleet Management aims at improving the efficiency of usage of the WFP’s vehicles. Fleet Management toolkits were developed and inter-agency cooperation and communication is encouraged through various smaller specialised TNT-WFP projects.
Specialist Programme and Transport Optimisation	Since the launch of the partnership, has TNT sent more than 70 specialists to all parts of the world to help the WFP to build capacity and to exchange skills and knowledge in various projects. TNT employees provide intrinsic transfer of the knowledge they have gained through their professional studies, their career-paths and their experience in TNT’s commercial business environment. TNT especially provides assistance with analysing transport systems for the purpose of improving the flow of food supplies to areas where they are needed, and simultaneously decreases overall expenditures.

TABLE 5.5: PROJECT OVERVIEW “KNOWLEDGE TRANSFER” (ADAPTED FROM MOVING THE WORLD OFFICIAL HOMEPAGE, 2010)

The fourth initiative “Transport for Good” refers to the close cooperation of TNT and the WFP in specific projects that aim at contributing to food aid operations and assistance. The “Fleet Forum” can be named as a major project in this category and refers to the cooperation between the International Federation of the Red Cross, the World Food Programme, World Vision International, and TNT with the aim of gathering the knowledge of technical experts involved in vehicle fleet management activities of humanitarian aid organisations. Mainly subjects such as road safety, employee training, and fleet management systems are covered.

Further projects are the “North Star Foundation (NSF)” and the “Jatropha Project” (please refer to appendix 7.2 “Project overview ‘Transport for Good’” for further information on these initiatives).

5.2.3.4 Benefits

The collaboration between TNT and the WFP has created several benefits for the partners. With regard to TNT the main advantages include an enhanced reputation, positive publicity, higher brand awareness, higher employee satisfaction and pride, as well as expanded knowledge and experience. The latter relates to the involvement of TNT staff in WFP missions and other activities either in disaster preparedness or disaster response and their enhancement of skills and expertise. Hence, TNT can use this knowledge in order to ensure a rapid recovery of their supply chain operations in the event of an emergency (Binder & Witte, 2007).

TNT’s improved public image was confirmed by a reputation quotient survey conducted by the American Reputation Institute in cooperation with the Rotterdam Erasmus University and Harris Interactive in 2005. TNT was ranked third in the Netherlands with regard to their corporate reputation, whereas the organisation ranked 26 in 2001 before the establishment of the partnership with the WFP (Tomasini, Van Wassenhove & Stapleton, 2008).

Despite TNT’s agreement with the WFP neither to release any independent news items nor to use the collaboration for advertising purposes, the organisation achieved a relatively high level of attention from the media.

According to the results of a TNT employee satisfaction survey conducted in 2005, 68 per cent of the total number of staff confirmed the attractiveness of TNT as an employer (Tomasini, Van Wassenhove & Stapleton, 2008).

Due to the collaboration with TNT, the WFP was able to broaden their network of corporations as business partners. In 2003 the Boston Consulting Group (BCG) followed the lead of TNT and engaged in a partnership with the WFP in order to develop fund raising strategies and identify the organisation's operational and administrative needs (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). Moreover, TNT provides assistance and training to WFP staff in the area of human resources focusing on recruitment, career development, and performance management frameworks. TNT's management training courses were also offered to selected employees of the WFP and the organisation gained insights into its partner's graduate recruitment programme and management assessment centre (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004).

TNT also supported the WFP in improving its inter-agency logistics activities through the restructuring of the Fleet Forum coordinated by the WFP, World Vision, and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC). Processes were redesigned in order to enhance efficiency and reduce overall expenditures as well as to enable inter-agency knowledge sharing. Luke Disney, TNT's communications director for the initiative "Moving the world", stated that the organisation would be the perfect fit for the WFP in order to manage its "thousands and thousands of vehicles with spare-parts and refuelling needs" (Spring, 2006, p. 2). In addition, outsourcing versus in-house vehicle management strategies were discussed, with the aim of further increasing fleet management performance.

A further improvement has been made to the WFP's humanitarian warehouse in Italy. TNT staff provided assistance in the remodelling process to design and implement the warehouse's optimal layout for the purpose of decreasing operating costs (Maitland, 2004) and increasing process efficiency.

TNT also created an emergency response catalogue naming worldwide accessible internal assets and logistics resources available to the WFP in case of a disaster. In addition, the data warehousing system has been optimised towards

a better inventory overview and tracking and tracing of moving goods (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004).

Another result of the partnership is the computer system developed by TNT staff for the region of southern Sudan. The computer programme is able to “compare the cost and capacity of delivering relief via rail, road, water and air, and identify the best routes, adjusting for changing local conditions” (Spring, 2006, p. 2). Hence, the use of this programme in planning further rebuilding of infrastructure in southern Sudan helped the WFP to save US\$ 500,000 per year (Spring, 2006).

Overall, Martin Bettelley (Logistics Officer at WFP) summarised the benefits of the collaboration as follows: “compared to the beginning, we have become more precise in terms of articulating our goal, work plans and the type of expertise and skills we require to tackle our challenges” (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004, p. 9). Thus, it can be stated that from their partnership with TNT the WFP gained a better understanding of their actual needs and the issues that needed to be approached to deal with these.

5.2.3.5 Lessons learned

Several lessons can be drawn from the example of this partnership as represented in the experience of each organisation. First, it is necessary to establish the collaboration through a strong commitment from the top of the organisation, as was the case with Peter Bakker (TNT) and James Morris (WFP). Hence, common values and beliefs can be shared and a mutual vision created.

The choice of partner is of utmost importance to the success of the partnership. The willingness to invest a vast amount of time and the development of appropriate evaluation criteria are necessary requirements to make the search process work. Additionally, mutual trust, understanding, and confidence can be regarded as critical success factors for a corporate-humanitarian partnership.

TNT recommends that the collaboration be coordinated as “a separate business unit with its own metrics and responsibilities to avoid possible conflicts of interest with commercial products and services” (Tomasini, Van Wassenhove & Stapleton, 2008, p. 28). Furthermore, TNT experienced that it is important for a

rapid disaster response to have readily accessible resources available on a global scale as well as contact persons in the field in order to be able to monitor and manage the operations. TNT further emphasizes that the main success factors for effective disaster response are: thorough preparedness, quick and clear decision making, and availability of staff and assets (Tomasini, Van Wassenhove & Stapleton, 2008).

Finally, TNT recommends that commercial logistics companies need to work together with humanitarian aid organisations for the purpose of transferring best practices, knowledge and skills, and providing readily accessible resources to help improve disaster response and disaster mitigation rather than competing with aid organisations to save lives. Peter Bakker emphasised the importance of remembering that “businesses are not humanitarian organizations but they can make a difference” (Tomasini, Van Wassenhove & Stapleton, 2008, p. 28).

A major change that WFP staff have experienced is based on the way in which reporting is conducted as to the effectiveness of their missions. Employees, either from headquarters or the field, have to report on their time invested in the conduct of processes, costs, and the number of people involved (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). Hence, a change in organisational culture from an organisation characterised by complex bureaucratic processes and short-term planning strategies, to a more performance and efficiency-driven culture, took place within the WFP. This ultimately has had a positive impact on the WFP’s financial resources, overall performance and effectiveness, and on employee morale in the short- as well as long-term (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004).

Because neither partner was experienced in corporate-humanitarian partnerships, both the WFP and TNT had to adapt to their different operating principles and decision-making processes. Whereas decisions in the humanitarian sector may have political effects, corporate decisions in contrast are usually driven by business rationale (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). Hence, TNT demanded fast decisions due to their business rationale: not fully considering possible political sensitivities (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). Also, the lack of a common language resulted in decision making delays and misunderstandings due to the use of specific humanitarian or business jargon.

Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) highlight this by stating “two partners need to dance at the same pace, to the same tune, without stepping on each other’s toes; above all to be able to enjoy it while the crowd is watching” (p. 154).

The WFP had to experience a lack of required resources, especially with regard to the number of employees, for establishing the partnership in the beginning. In contrast to TNT which assigned full-time employees to the coordination of the collaboration, WFP staff had to manage the additional tasks on top of their daily workload. Hence, the WFP was forced to invest in additional employees for the purpose of supporting the development of the partnership and in order to successfully benefit from the contributions of TNT.

Another challenge for TNT was to adapt to the new type of handled materials, i.e. the organisation usually focuses on the transportation of smaller, non-food items whereas the WFP deals principally with bulk quantities of food (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004). Thus, both organisations had to surmise what TNT could contribute to the WFP’s logistics processes with regard to the preparation and response stage.

Both partners had to cope with critics inside and outside the organisation who increased the pressure to succeed through closely watching the development of the collaboration (Tomasini & Van Wassenhove, 2009). Especially shareholders, whose principle reason for investing in a company is not the social value, demand monetary figures such as return on investment and other quantifiable results besides the public relations value. Thus, it is important to maintain a strong commitment to the partnership and to enable a certain degree of flexibility in the actions of each partner in order to adapt to unforeseen situations.

Finally, communicating the outcomes of the collaboration within and outside the organisation contributes to coping with the scepticism of those expecting immediate achievements.

Indicator	Specification
Partners	TNT (Dutch international express and mail delivery services company) and the WFP (World Food Programme, the food aid division of the United Nations).
Established	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • December 2002
Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Private Sector Fundraising and Awareness • Hands-on Support • Knowledge Transfer • Transport for Good
Benefits for TNT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strengthens the components of corporate social responsibility. • Enhances public image, employee morale and loyalty. • Provides insights into establishing and managing supply chains in emergency situations.
Benefits for the WFP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides access to a wide range of readily accessible resources and know-how. • Provides the opportunity for building capacity between disasters and for enhancing the effectiveness of relief efforts. • Broadens network of possible business partners and donors.

TABLE 5.6: PARTNERSHIP OVERVIEW OF TNT AND THE WFP

5.3 The collaboration between DHL and the UN

5.3.1 Company overview: DHL

DHL, named after its founders Dalsey, Hillblom, and Lynn, is a fully owned subsidiary of Deutsche Post World Net (DPWN) and is headquartered in Bonn, Germany. The company provides expertise in the areas of freight forwarding (road, air, and sea freight), international mail and supply chain management services, and is a market leader in contract logistics solutions. DHL primarily operates in Europe, the United States, and Asia and employs approximately

300,000 people worldwide (DHL, 2010a). DHL, as part of the DPWN, generated revenues of over EUR46 billion in 2009 (DHL, 2010a).

The company's global network links about 120,000 destinations in over 220 countries and offers its services from nearly 6,500 offices: deploying about 76,200 vehicles and roughly 420 aircrafts (Datamonitor, 2009c). DHL divides its services into four business divisions: namely "DHL Express", "DHL Freight and DHL Global Forwarding", "DHL Supply Chain", and "DHL Global Mail".

DHL Express refers to the provision of international courier, express, and parcel (CEP) services (same day, day definite, time definite) based on road, air, and rail for private and business clients. The primary operating regions include Europe, the Americas, and the Asia Pacific regions. In addition, door-to-door delivery of goods is provided to over 220 countries and territories worldwide (Datamonitor, 2009c) (Table 5.7). As a global leader, DHL Express offers its customers specialised services, such as custom-tailored pick-up and delivery services, information services, customs clearance services, transport of dangerous goods, payment/billing, and insurance and packaging services (Datamonitor, 2009c).

Products	Regions	Network
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DHL Time Definite • DHL Day Definite • DHL Same Day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Europe • Americas • Asia Pacific • EEMEA (Eastern Europe, the Middle East, and Africa) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 220 countries and territories • 6 main hubs • 22,400 Service Points • 8.2 million customers • 62,000 vehicles

TABLE 5.7: DHL "EXPRESS" DIVISION (ADAPTED FROM DHL ANNUAL REPORT 2009)

The *DHL Freight and DHL Global Forwarding* division's portfolio includes international air and ocean transport operations and overland transportation services within Europe. DHL Global Forwarding [the international market leader in the sector of air and ocean freight (DHL, 2010a)] provides custom-tailored solutions for logistics projects; logistics services, such as warehousing and distribution of goods; as well as freight forwarding services, including customs clearance among others (Datamonitor, 2009c). In 2007, more than 4.4 million

tonnes of air freight volume and about 2.8 million TEU of ocean freight volume were handled [Twenty-Foot Equivalent Unit (TEU) refers to a measurement parameter to measure the capacity of container ships. One TEU equals the capacity of a standard 20 foot intermodal container] (Datamonitor, 2009b).

DHL Freight operates in more than 30 countries (Datamonitor, 2009c) and provides European overland freight services, including full-truckload, less-than-truckload, and part-truckload services, as well as customs clearance of products (Table 5.8).

Division	Regions	Locations	Products
DHL Global Forwarding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Europe, the Americas, Asia Pacific, the Middle East and Africa • >150 countries and territories 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • >810 branches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Air freight • Ocean freight • Industrial projects • Transport management
DHL Freight	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Europe, the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), Middle East, Northern Africa • >53 countries 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • >160 branches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full truckload • Part truckload • Less than truckload • Intermodal transport

TABLE 5.8: DHL “FREIGHT” AND DHL “GLOBAL FORWARDING” DIVISION (ADAPTED FROM DHL ANNUAL REPORT 2009)

The third division, *DHL Supply Chain*, focuses on the provision of corporate information services through its sub-division *Williams Lea* and contract logistics operations. The main services provided include warehousing and warehouse transportation of goods as well as value added services. The division deploys approximately 23 million square metres comprised in over 2,500 distribution centres for its operations (Datamonitor, 2009b). In addition, DHL Supply Chain operates complete supply chains of clients, primarily operating in the automotive, life sciences, technology, fast moving consumer goods, and retail fashion industries (Datamonitor, 2009c). Furthermore, supply chain analysis and design,

IT solutions, industry specific distribution, and consulting are also provided (Datamonitor, 2009b).

The service portfolio of the subsidiary *Williams Lea* includes document-based outsourcing solutions, i.e. the digitalisation, printing, storing, addressing, enveloping, dispatching, and archiving of documents (DHL, 2010a). Electronic invoicing and marketing services are also provided (Table 5.9).

Supply Chain Logistics Solutions	Supply Chain Sectors	Williams Lea Services
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Warehousing • Distribution • Managed transport services • Value added services (e.g. packaging, technical services, procurement) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consumer • Retail • Technology • Life Science and Healthcare • Automotive • Energy • Airline Business Solutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Office Document Solutions • Customer Correspondence Management • Marketing Solutions

TABLE 5.9: DHL “SUPPLY CHAIN” DIVISION (ADAPTED FROM DHL ANNUAL REPORT 2009)

Finally, the *Global Mail* division provides mail and communication services to over 200 countries worldwide (DHL, 2010a). Besides the transport and delivery of mail items, the Global Mail division can be regarded as an end-to-end service provider offering custom-tailored services, which include cash-on-delivery and registered mail (Datamonitor, 2009c) (Tables 5.10 & 5.11).

Customers in Germany	Network in Germany
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 39 million households • 3 million business customers • 2-3 million retail outlet customers per working day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 82 mail centres • 33 parcel centres • Approx. 2,500 Packstations • Approx. 1,500 Paketboxes • Approx. 17,000 retail outlets and points of sale • 70 million letters per working day • 2.5 million parcels per working day

TABLE 5.10: DHL “MAIL” DIVISION (ADAPTED FROM DHL ANNUAL REPORT 2009)

Business units and products	
<p><i>Mail communication:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mail products • Special Services • Franking • Philately 	<p><i>Parcel Germany:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parcel Products • Special Services • Packstations
<p><i>Dialogue Marketing:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advertising Mail • Tailored end-to-end solutions • Special services 	<p><i>Global Mail:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mail import and export • Cross-border mail • Domestic mail services in countries other than Germany • Special Services
<p><i>Press Services:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Press Distribution Services • Special Services 	<p><i>Pension Service:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Database Administration • Payments

TABLE 5.11: DHL “MAIL” DIVISION: BUSINESS UNITS AND PRODUCTS (ADAPTED FROM DHL ANNUAL REPORT 2009)

5.3.2 Organisation overview: The UN

The United Nations (UN) is an international organisation which was established in 1945 after World War II by 51 countries in order to maintain peace and security through international cooperation, to develop amicable relationships between nations and to encourage social progress, better living standards and the adherence to human rights, as well as to provide a platform for dialogue (UN, 2010). Today, the UN counts 192 member countries: which constitutes nearly every nation in the world.

The main purposes and principles of the UN are determined in the UN Charter each country has to agree to when engaging in a membership with the UN.

The four primary purposes are (UN, 2010):

- *to maintain international peace and security*
- *to develop friendly relations among nations*
- *to cooperate in solving international problems and in promoting respect for human rights*
- *to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations.*

The UN is primarily composed of six organs, of which five are located at the UN headquarters in New York, the United States of America, and one in The Hague, the Netherlands (see Table 5.12).

Organ	Responsibilities
General Assembly	The General Assembly (a parliament of nations) is composed of all member states and meets in regular sessions in order to discuss the world's most exigent issues. Topics may include climate change and accompanied humanitarian dangers, recommendations on peace and security, budgetary matters, and the admission or suspension of members.
Security Council	The Security Council is responsible for the preservation of international peace and security and may meet whenever peace is threatened. In the case of a conflict, measures such as mediation, peacekeeping forces, or economic sanctions may be undertaken.
Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC)	The ECOSOC supports the General Assembly in the decision making process with regard to economic, social, and humanitarian issues and provides advice to member nations and policy recommendations.

Organ	Responsibilities
Trusteeship Council	This organ is responsible for the supervision of 11 Trust Territories administered by seven member nations in order for the Territories to achieve independence or autonomy.
Secretariat	The Secretariat is responsible for the coordination and completion of the administrative work of the UN bodies, such as the provision of studies, information, and facilities.
International Court of Justice (ICJ) (Located in The Hague)	The ICJ is the primary judicial organ of the UN responsible for adjudicating conflicts between countries and provides recommendations to the UN's specialised agencies (e.g. World Health Organisation and World Food Programme).

TABLE 5.12: THE SIX ORGANS OF THE UNITED NATIONS (ADAPTED FROM UN OFFICIAL HOMEPAGE, 2010)

The operations of the UN are financed from voluntary donations and assessments from their member countries. In order to maintain peace in the world, the UN has four core missions, namely “Disarmament” (elimination of mass destruction weapons), “Peacemaking” (restoration of peace through diplomatic measures), “Peacebuilding” (development of long-term peacebuilding strategies for specific countries) and “Peacekeeping” (peacekeeping operations, such as military observation of ceasefire) (UN, 2010). In addition, the UN develops operations in order to promote justice, human rights, and international law. In case of a disaster or emergency the UN also provides emergency and humanitarian assistance.

Finally, the organisation and its agencies hold immunity with regard to the laws of the countries they operate in. This makes it possible to determine human resources policies even though they may impinge rules and regulations of member nations.

5.3.3 The collaboration between DHL and the UN: A model partnership

5.3.3.1 Motivation for the partnership

The impact of devastating natural disasters of the past, such as the 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami or Hurricane Katrina in 2005, left deep impressions on individuals. In order to cope with the aftermath of such emergencies, international humanitarian aid organisations and communities have increased their efforts in order to improve disaster preparedness and response.

When Gujarat, India was affected by an earthquake in 2001, DHL wanted to support relief operations with resources it had at its disposal. However, the company was not able to help because of a lack of established contacts with humanitarian aid organisations. DHL used this situation as an opportunity to actively improve the process of disaster relief by joining the Disaster Resource Network (DRN), which is an initiative of the World Economic Forum (Perupu & Gupta, 2008).

Since the fast provision of relief supplies is primarily a logistics issue, DHL first came across this challenge in 2003 during their assistance with transporting aid supplies to beneficiaries of the earthquake in Bam, Iran (N. Batkin, personal communication, March 19, 2010). With the arrival of great amounts of relief supplies in a short time period, airport authorities were not entirely able to manage the coordination of these supplies due to a lack of resources. As a result, arriving aeroplanes were unable to land because of a blocked runway and apron and the airports at Bam and Kerman had to be closed down (Perupu & Gupta, 2008).

Chris Weeks (DHL's Humanitarian Affairs Director) described the situation as follows: "the airport was totally jammed in no time at all, relief supplies lay around unsorted, there were considerable losses due to improper handling. That was when the idea dawned that private sector expertise might be useful in such situations" (Perupu & Gupta, 2008, p. 7).

To conclude, airports in disaster-struck regions may become significant bottlenecks in disaster response operations. Thus, the DRN Airport Emergency Team (AET) was launched. Several companies, including DHL, TNT, and Emirates contributed their resources for the purpose of coordinating the flow of relief goods at airports involved in relief operations.

In order to contribute to the process of confronting this particular problem, DHL later made the decision to engage in a collaboration with the United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (UN OCHA) and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (Chong, 2009) by developing the DHL Disaster Response Teams supporting the UN's disaster-preparedness and disaster-response activities. The partnership is based on a memorandum of understanding signed by Kemal Davis (Administrator of UNDP), Jan Egeland (UN Emergency Relief Coordinator), and Monika Wulf-Mathies (Managing Director of Corporate Public Policy and Sustainability at Deutsche Post World Net), in December 2005 (DHL, 2005).

DPWN (Deutsche Post World Net, see 5.3.1) and its subsidiary DHL chose the UN as a partner due to the organisation's credibility, legitimacy, and the scope of operation reaching individuals worldwide (Binder & Witte, 2007).

Kemal Davis points out "this year [2005] we have seen enormous devastation from natural catastrophes (...)", so "it is vital that international organizations delivering aid have the capacity to do so quickly and effectively to ensure a smoother road to long-term recovery" (DHL, 2005, p. 1). Jan Egeland further supports this by saying "logistics is often the linchpin in disaster response, the make or break. Getting help to people in need is critical and for this we need a smooth supply chain. Agreements with the private sector can help make this happen" (DHL, 2005, p. 1).

DHL with its well established expertise in logistics, its presence in over 220 countries and territories, and readily accessible logistics assets is an ideal partner to the UN. DHL's business continuity plan, which refers to a set of processes and checklists aimed at protecting resources, business processes, internal and external communication, buildings, client resources and products in emergency situations caused by natural or man-made disasters (Perupu & Gupta, 2008), can be regarded as a useful base of knowledge for supporting relief operations. Hence, disaster response and prevention can be improved through DHL's corporate social responsibility (CSR) programme, which will be further elaborated in the following section.

5.3.3.2 DHL Disaster Response Teams

DHL, a global leader in express logistics, launched Disaster Response Teams (DRTs) in order to assist humanitarian operations with logistics expertise, assets, and qualified staff.

The DRTs consist of DHL’s specially trained employee volunteers who are appointed to strategic airports involved in humanitarian relief operations in order to provide logistical expertise. This includes warehousing and inventory control, customs clearance, road operations, communications, safety, and security (“DHL prepared”, 2006; Perupu & Gupta, 2008) of incoming freight to accelerate the delivery of relief supplies (e.g. food, medicine, hygiene kits) to the disaster-struck regions (Hoffman, 2006; DHL, 2010b).

DHL established three DRTs of as many as 200 DHL volunteers covering primary areas around the world regularly hit by natural catastrophes. These include: DRT Americas in Panama, DRT Middle East/Africa in Dubai, and DRT Asia Pacific in Singapore (Figure 5.1) (DHL, 2010b). Hence, about 80% of the regions at high risk of being struck by a natural disaster are included in DHL’s disaster preparedness programme (DHL, n.d.).

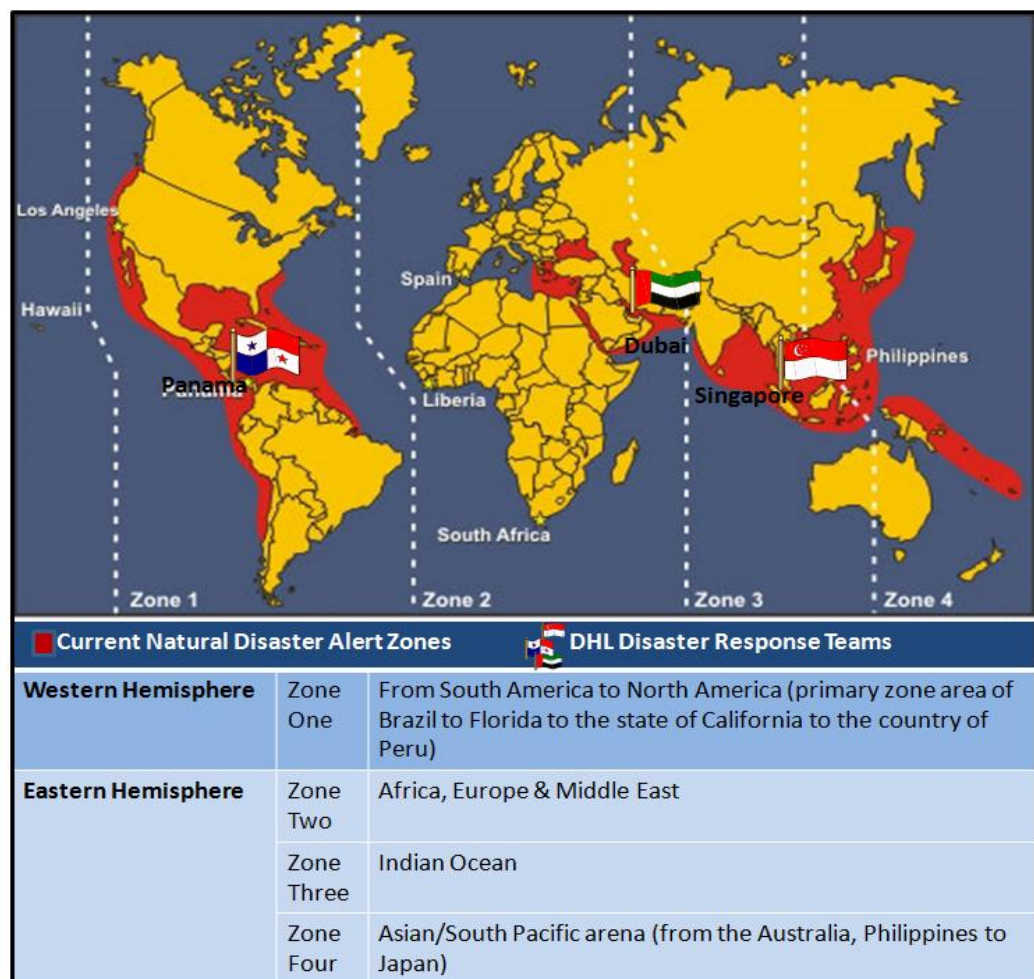


FIGURE 5.1: THE GLOBAL NETWORK OF DHL DISASTER RESPONSE TEAMS (ADAPTED FROM WLG, 2008)

DHL DRT Asia Pacific was launched in April 2006 and was the first DRT set up by DHL. Its location in Singapore provides a well developed telecommunications and logistics infrastructure and is central to all Asian regions that may be affected by calamities (United Nations Information Service, Vienna, 2007).

The launch of the DHL DRT Americas in Panama in June 2006 guarantees the coverage of the U.S., Caribbean, Central America, and South America in case of an emergency. The DRTs focus on supporting governments with the handling, warehousing, and loading of relief supplies in order to enhance the flow of goods and accelerate their distribution to victims.

Finally, the third team, DHL DRT Middle East/Africa, was set up in November 2007 in Dubai. “Thanks to the third Disaster Response Team, which will be stationed in Dubai, the company can now provide skilled support to humanitarian relief operations around the world. A total of 200 employees are now on call 24 hours a day around the world, ready to quickly create a logistics infrastructure at airports” said Monika Wulf-Mathies (Perupu & Gupta, 2008, p. 10).

The teams are in the line of duty for up to three weeks in the aftermath of a disaster in order to coordinate airport logistics (Binder & Witte, 2007) and are usually ready for operation within 72 hours after being called to service by the UN OCHA (DHL, 2010b).

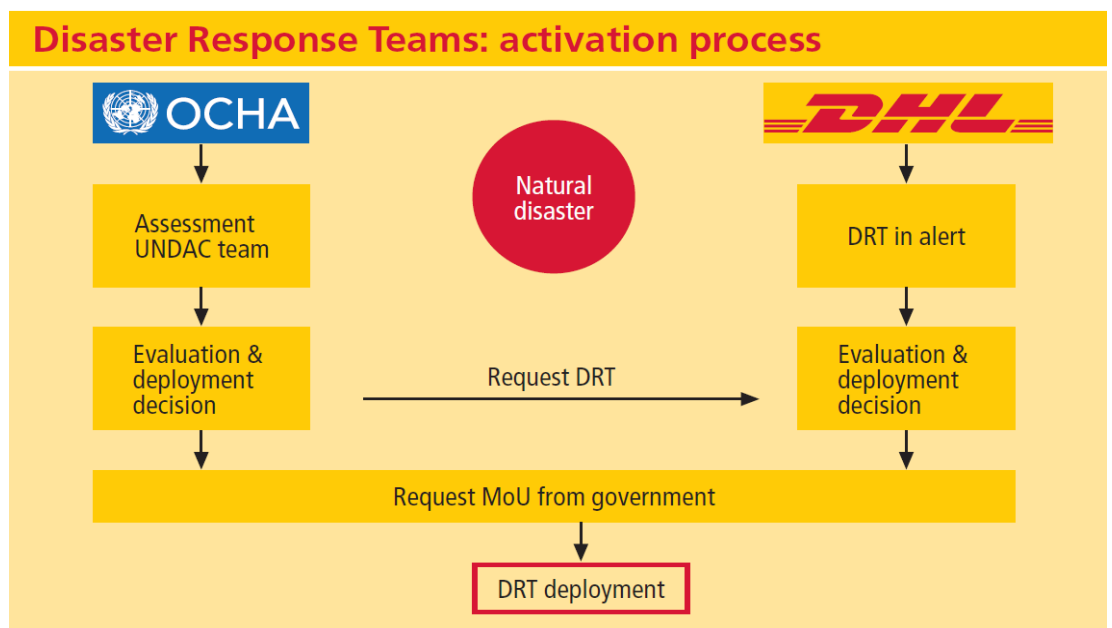


FIGURE 5.2: DISASTER RESPONSE TEAMS: ACTIVATION PROCESS (DHL, N.D.)

In the case of an emergency the UN OCHA will request support from DHL DRTs for the handling of relief operations. In order to that the team can benefit from local staff, a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) has to be signed by local authorities prior to the deployment of the DRT which guarantees unlimited access to the airfield (Figure 5.2).

The three main tasks of the DHL DRTs are:

- *Organizing the transfer of incoming relief goods from aircraft pallets to standard wooden pallets*
- *Setting up and managing a professional warehouse at the airport, including the sorting and inventorying of goods*
- *Organizing the loading of relief goods onto vehicles for onward transportation*
(N. Batkin, personal communication, March 19, 2010)



FIGURE 5.3: DHL DISASTER RESPONSE TEAM: SCOPE OF ACTIVITIES (DHL, 2010B)

Figure 5.3 provides an overview of the DRTs' scope of operations, including the handling and warehousing of incoming relief supplies and the loading of goods onto vehicles for delivery to the areas where the supplies are

needed. In the aftermath of the Haiti earthquake in January 2010, the DRT administered a 3,000sq meter warehouse for storing relief goods of aid organisations other than the UN. Additionally, forklifts for unloading and loading goods onto vehicles, as well as trucks of gasoline, and food were provided (business.un.org, 2010).

The teams encompass approximately 80 DHL employees who voluntarily take part in relief operations besides their regular jobs at the organisation. Once the DRTs are deployed at an affected airport, about 18 members are constantly present throughout the operations in twelve-hour shifts. Additionally, they cooperate with local DHL staff whose participation needs to be agreed on in advance (N. Batkin, personal communication, March 19, 2010).

The basic equipment, such as information and communications technology (ICT), workwear, office supplies, and operational supplies necessary to establish the relief operations are on hand. Nevertheless, for the successful coordination of airport logistics, office and warehouse space needs to be provided as well as basic transportation assets, such as forklifts for moving goods.

In the development phase of the DHL DRTs, attention is paid to improving stakeholder relationships, especially with regard to governments and NGOs since they are essential when it comes to providing fast and effective relief support. Standard processes for the accurate deployment of the teams are also developed. Finally, the team building process aims at providing the team members the necessary skills (first aid, airport ramp safety, operational processes, etc.) through training sessions and “developing them into a cohesive unit” (Perupu & Gupta, 2008, p. 9).

Since the establishment of the partnership with the UN OCHA in 2006, and previous involvement of DHL staff in humanitarian aid missions, the organisation has contributed to the management of various disaster response missions. Table 5.13 provides an overview of the active involvement of DHL in the aftermath of natural disasters.

2010

- *March:* Earthquake, Chile (Santiago de Chile and Concepción), 8 DRT members
- *January-February:* Haiti (Airports of Port-au-Prince and Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic) 36 DRT members handled more than 2,000 tonnes of relief supplies (business.un.org, 2010)

2009

- *October:* Earthquake, Indonesia (Padang), 10 DRT Members
- *October:* Tsunami, Samoa, 2 (plus 10 in Padang) DRT Members
- *October:* Typhoon Ketsana, Phillipines (Manila), 15 DRT Members

2008

- *May - June:* Typhoon Nargis, Myanmar, 11 DRT Members

2007

- *August:* Earthquake, Peru (Pisco), 14 DRT Members handled 2,700 tonnes of relief supplies (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008)

2006

- *December:* Typhoon Durian, Phillipines (Bicol Region), 5 DRT Members
- *June:* Earthquake, Indonesia (Java), 14 DRT Members handled over 160 tonnes of relief supplies (Perupu & Gupta, 2008)

2005

- *October:* Earthquake, South Asia (Chakala Air Base, Pakistan), 30 DRT Members handled 9,000 tonnes of relief supplies (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008)

2005 <ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>September</i>: Hurricane Katrina, USA (Little Rock, AR), 21 DRT Members handled 2,000 tonnes of relief supplies (Van Wassenhove, Tomasini & Stapleton, 2008)
2004 <ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>December - January 2005</i>: Tsunami, Indian Ocean (Colombo, Sri Lanka), 35 DRT Members handled about 9000 tonnes of relief supplies (DHL, 2009, Podcast)
2003 <ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>December - January 2004</i>: Earthquake, Iran (Bam)

TABLE 5.13: LISTING OF MAJOR DEPLOYMENTS OF THE DRTs (ADAPTED FROM N. BATKIN, PERSONAL COMMUNICATION, MARCH 19, 2010)

Regarding the 2006 earthquake in Java, the DHL DRTs were actively involved in relief operations. The volunteers handled over 160 tonnes of relief supplies, working together with army officials and the local air force (Perupu & Gupta, 2008). Their main tasks can be summarised as checking, recording, and allocating incoming relief items by air transport and repacking these for onward distribution to the locations of people in need. In addition, local staff were trained by DHL volunteers with regard to main logistics processes, such as the coordination and handling of cargo, so that a smooth flow of goods could be guaranteed after the DHL DRTs had left the disaster-struck region (Perupu & Gupta, 2008).

DHL DRT Americas provided support in relief operations in the aftermath of the earthquake in Peru in August 2007. The team operated out of the Pisco Airbase, where temporary warehouses for stocking incoming relief supplies were built. Moreover, goods were sorted and loaded onto trucks or helicopters for transport to the affected locations.

5.3.3.3 The partnership as a corporate social responsibility (CSR) project

DHL's corporate culture is characterised by employee engagement through their participation in local, regional, and global projects addressing community needs. Disaster Management, as one part of DHL's CSR programme (alongside Health, Education, and Environment), is expressed in the establishment of the partnership with the UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) and the UN OCHA (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs). DHL, therefore, implemented a three-pillar initiative in the area of disaster management, including "Disaster Preparedness", "Disaster Response", and "Post-Disaster Reconstruction" (Chong, 2009).

The *Disaster Preparedness* approach focuses on the exchange of DHL's logistics knowledge with governments and non-governmental organisations in order to assist with emergency logistics preparedness planning and public education and awareness. The GARD (Get Airports Ready for Disasters) project, launched in 2009 by DHL and the UNDP for preparing airports for future disasters, is an exemplar innovation for the disaster preparedness initiative.

The second pillar *Disaster Response* refers to the DHL DRTs practice of supporting local airport staff with the handling of relief supplies in emergency situations.

Finally, the *Post-Disaster Reconstruction* initiative consists of long-term projects in the aftermath of a disaster for the purpose of supporting the recovery process of local communities (Chong, 2009).

In 2006, the Institute of Public Relations in Singapore bestowed the Public Relations in the Service of Mankind (PRISM) award for DHL's Best Corporate Social Responsibility programme. The award is related to DHL's relief operations in the aftermath of the South East Asian tsunami in 2004 (Perupu & Gupta, 2008).

DHL employees who are involved in disaster response actively live the company's identity as a "socially corporate citizen first hand" (Chong, 2009, p. 113). Hence, DHL is able to reinforce the employee's loyalty to the company and its mission and values. In addition, their actual participation in CSR programmes,

their pride in working for the organisation, and their intrinsic employee satisfaction may be enhanced as well.

According to Susan Meier (Director of CSR Strategy and Policy for Deutsche Post AG) “clients increasingly pay attention to our approach to sustainability – humanitarian commitment underpins enterprise value” (Perupu & Gupta, 2008, p. 11). She further states that employee motivation could be enhanced through DHL’s DRTs since many employees volunteer to become part of the DRT’s operations.

5.3.3.4 Partnership goals and benefits

The UN OCHA benefits from the partnership by way of drawing on DHL expertise with regard to the management of airport logistics processes, which the UN would otherwise not be able to maintain all year round (DHL, 2009, Podcast).

The partnership provides the UN with benefits in the way of generating additional resources, such as capital, technical expertise, innovative styles of management, ideas, and new perspectives, as well as business networks for broadening the stakeholder base and improving operational efficiency (Fall, 2009). The UN might also profit from an enhanced public awareness, simultaneously reaching a wider population through press releases from DHL “speaking out in favour of the United Nations, its values, goals and activities (Fall, 2009, p. 9).

According to Monika Wulf-Mathies of DPWN (Deutsche Post World Net) the partnership improved DHL’s productivity and reduced staff turnover and enabled the organisation to broaden their brand visibility around the world (Binder & Witte, 2007). This in turn assists DHL in strengthening its relationships with stakeholders, extending their network, and helping build relationships with employees and local communities. Thus, the reinforcement of DHL’s position in the communities that DRTs are deployed to, can be named as a further goal of the partnership that is achieved through their support of humanitarian relief operations (Murphy, 2006).

DHL aims at improving the reliability of its emergency management processes among the different business divisions and to develop, as well as

strengthen, worldwide alignment across countries and territories (Murphy, 2006). Furthermore, through the transfer of knowledge and the handling of logistics activities in emergency situations, the company strives after enhancing its readiness to manage all types of catastrophes (from hurricanes to earthquakes to pandemic influenza and terrorist attacks) in order to secure DHL's business processes in emergency situations (Perupu & Gupta, 2008).

According to Dan Ludwig, senior vice president of DHL, a further goal is "to develop an emergency management capability within DHL that is recognized as industry leading and then maturing that into a marketable service that will enable a logistical link between government and private industry partners for efficient disaster response" (Murphy, 2006, p. 1). Hence, DHL may be able to generate profit through the partnership by marketing their disaster management competencies.

Ludwig further states that the management of large and widespread disasters contributes a further challenge to the provision of relief support. Developing the competency to increase resources according to the emergency situation without accomplishing complex changes is an issue that needs to be tackled.

It can be argued that DHL might benefit from the UN as a partner through the provision of access to contacts in various public institutions, such as governments, and through obtaining statistics and data from sources which would not have been available to the company otherwise.

It is important to note that no independent assessment of the partnership between DHL and the UN was available, so the lessons learned as well as benefits and challenges can only be rudimentarily highlighted. This is due to the fact that the partnership between DHL and the UN is relatively new and therefore benefits, especially in the long term, can hardly be determined yet. Moreover, it can only be conjectured that similar challenges as those which occurred in the collaboration between TNT and the WFP needed to be overcome by DHL and the UN OCHA, in their partnership.

Indicator	Specification
Partners	DHL (subsidiary of Deutsch Post World Net the international mail delivery and supply chain management services company) and the UN (the United Nations, the international peace organisation).
Established	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> December 2005
Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> DHL Disaster Response Teams (DRT): Deployed at strategic airports and involved in humanitarian relief operations for the provision of logistical expertise.
Benefits for DHL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthens the components of corporate social responsibility. Enhances public image, employee satisfaction, and loyalty. Provides the opportunity for developing an emergency management capability as a leading industry standard.
Benefits for the UN	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides access to a wide range of readily accessible resources, ideas, and know-how. Opportunity for building capacity between disasters and enhancing the effectiveness of relief efforts. Broadens the network of possible business partners and donors and improves operational efficiency.

TABLE 5.14: PARTNERSHIP OVERVIEW OF DHL AND THE UN

5.4 Conclusion

The operating environment in emergency relief is characterised by a high degree of variability and uncertainty with regard to funding constraints, which is in contrast to the relative consistency of commercial supply chains. Usually, environments in the commercial logistics sector are less restricted and an often accurate flow of information ensures a relatively high transparency of processes and their control.

Although significant differences can be identified, cross-sector collaborations between commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid organisations may be regarded as a concept that can successfully improve relief operations and benefit both partners. Since an increase in disasters and in the complexity of their effects can be observed over recent years, the quality of relief

processes and necessary resources needs to be secured. This chapter has highlighted two successful partnerships: the partnership between TNT and the WFP and between DHL and the UN, both of which aim at solving exactly these issues.

The establishment of the partnership between TNT and the WFP was based on the fact that hunger in the world is, to a great extent, a logistics issue, which TNT, with its global operations and resources may be able to improve. Similarly, in 2001, DHL realised that the fast provision of relief supplies is primarily a logistics issue when the company came across this problem through their assistance with transporting relief goods to beneficiaries in a disaster-struck area. Nevertheless, both companies understood the necessity of cooperating with humanitarian aid organisations specialised in relief operations in order to deploy their capabilities and resources as efficiently as possible.

TNT and DHL, therefore, invested time and money in order to choose a partner which in each case was as good a match as they can find to enable the collaboration to achieve its objectives. Moreover, the company's core competency, which in both cases is in the field of logistics, needed to be of importance to the possible partner. After in-depth research and selection processes TNT found the WFP as an appropriate partner based on various criteria, such as organisational fit, marketing and communications, as well as logistics; whereas DHL considered the UN to be a good match for achieving common objectives. DHL's decision was based on the UN's international scope of operation and network, as well as their credibility and legitimacy.

Both partnerships are based on a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU), in order to elucidate essential expectations as well as objectives, and the collaborations are part of each company's corporate social responsibility programme. While DHL, with its *Disaster Response Teams (DRTs)*, focuses on the provision of assistance with the management of activities related to incoming relief supplies at airports in disaster struck regions, TNT agreed on four core initiatives: *Private Sector Fundraising and Awareness*, *Hands-on Support*, *Knowledge Transfer*, and *Transport for Good*.

Nevertheless, it can be argued that both partnerships contribute to the improvement of relief operations. On one hand, DHL's DRTs help the UN to maintain a pool of readily accessible resources for the management of airport logistics processes in disaster-struck regions. Hence, it can be argued that DHL

contributes to the enhancement of both direct relief operations and disaster preparedness due to their three DRTs located in Panama, Dubai, and Singapore.

On the other hand, TNT's expertise in the development of specialised logistics software supports the WFP's operations, for example in southern Sudan, and has helped the WFP to save US\$500,000 per year. Hence, the oft-mentioned challenge of assessing accurate information about available resources and demands, as well as monitoring processes in disaster relief, has been faced successfully through the development of appropriate technology and software.

Overall, the ability of the WFP and the UN to provide relief supplies in a timely manner has been enhanced through the support of TNT and DHL respectively. Both companies benefit from an improved public image and awareness, a possibly higher employee satisfaction, as well as knowledge transfer, especially with regard to their ability to adapt their business processes to changes in the operating environment, particularly in emergency situations.

It is, however, important to note that corporate-humanitarian collaborations may only be successful if both partners show strong commitment to the partnership and are willing to invest resources to create mutual benefits. In addition, the collaborating partners, in particular the WFP, have experienced a change in organisational culture that can be challenging to overcome: as is the development of a common language in order to avoid major misunderstandings and decision-making delays.

Nevertheless, the cross-sector collaborations between TNT and the WFP and between DHL and the UN OCHA can be regarded as model partnerships, which demonstrate that two fundamentally different organisations (with regard to their values and beliefs) are able to engage in a partnership and create mutual benefits.

The final chapter of this thesis follows, which seeks to summarise the main findings, provides recommendations, and identifies areas for further research.

6. CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This final chapter provides closing remarks on cross-sector collaborations in the field of humanitarian aid and disaster relief. The main findings are pointed out and compared to the initial goals of the thesis. This chapter also highlights how the findings are related to aspects in the greater world beyond the limitations of this work and provides recommendations on how this research can contribute to the improvement of disaster relief practices worldwide. Finally, areas for further research are suggested.

6.2 Summary of the thesis

6.2.1 Background and motivation for this study

The increasing number of natural catastrophes worldwide requires the fast and efficient management of disaster relief operations. Since logistics plays an essential role in providing effective disaster relief it is necessary to develop robust, efficient, and innovative ways to improve humanitarian aid organisations' supply chain activities. In recent years, a trend towards collaborations between commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid agencies could be observed. Such partnerships are still in their infancy, but proof of success has already been achieved by organisations such as TNT collaborating with the WFP, or DHL collaborating with the UN.

This thesis aimed, firstly, at providing an overview of the concept of corporate-humanitarian partnerships, and secondly at exploring the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and risks such collaborations imply. The final goal was to investigate what the major critical success factors are that logistics service providers and humanitarian aid organisations require to successfully cooperate.

6.2.2 Research objectives and research approach

The study was based on the following two objectives.

Objective One: “To investigate the major benefits, challenges, and risks of corporate-humanitarian collaborations for both the commercial logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector”.

Objective Two: “To reveal and evaluate key qualities and critical success factors that commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations require in order to establish successful collaborations for the purpose of improving disaster relief logistics”.

This thesis was based on an in depth literature review highlighting the current state of research in the field of corporate-humanitarian collaborations. Due to the relative newness of this phenomenon only a limited range of academic articles could be found, meaning that additional information from various newspapers and corporate articles, which mainly describe rather than analyse such partnerships, were included. Primary data was gained through the conducting of a questionnaire investigating the respondents’ points of view about the strengths, opportunities, and risks of cross-sector collaborations, as well as their views on the requirements for successful partnerships. In order to achieve a broad scope of opinions a large and diverse set of commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid organisations were included in the study.

6.2.3 Research findings

This thesis has demonstrated that corporate-humanitarian collaborations provide their partners with mutual benefits in form of knowledge transfer (best practices), sharing of resources, and the broadening of each partner’s network. On top of the mutual benefits, a specific avenue of profit for commercial logistics providers is the enhancement of their public image and public awareness of their company in a positive light; whereas humanitarians take advantage of the building of capacity between disasters, including staff training and the readily accessible resources of their partners.

The findings of the questionnaire further showed that respondents, both from the logistics industry and from the humanitarian aid sector, agree that a moderate development of such collaborations will take place in the future. Partnerships, however, will only be successful if all parties involved are aware of each other's strengths and weaknesses. In accordance with academic literature findings, partnerships need to be built on a clear agreement that determines the scope of involvement and each partner's capabilities as well as their aims and objectives.

In consequence of the relatively small experience value of such partnerships, high importance needs to be placed on the conducting of extensive planning of processes before the collaboration is carried out, including the type of internal and external communication to be entered into, and ultimately on the appropriate performance measures. Responses showed that all parties involved need to make sure sufficient resources are available that contribute to the positive development of the partnership and allow a certain degree of flexibility to adapt to changes in demand or organisational culture. Also, before engaging in a collaboration, partners should agree on the resources that will later be contributed to support relief processes. These preparatory steps help to ensure that no inadequate aids and appliances will hinder the efficient accomplishment of tasks.

Before and during the collaboration, it is necessary to clearly assign responsibilities and to assign a person in charge who ensures the power balance within the partnership. This position may be filled by a partnership broker, who may either be an internal employee or an external expert especially hired by the company or organisation. When cooperating, both partners must keep in mind their different backgrounds and principles, as well as constraints, so that misunderstandings can be avoided and effective relationships developed.

Companies must be aware that cooperating with a humanitarian aid agency involves a great amount of time and substantial investment, as well as risks, and is therefore not manageable for every firm. As Tomasini and Van Wassenhove (2009) put it briefly: "for some companies, and in some circumstances, less engagement is, in fact, more, and thus organizations should not rule out the alternative option of simply making a cash donation" (p. 164).

6.3 Recommendations for practice

After having summarised the research findings this section makes recommendations, on the basis of the conducted research, on how companies and organisations can address the challenge of entering into and managing cross-sector collaborations. The principle issues of these ten key recommendations provide a qualified framework as a basis from which to guide corporate-humanitarian partnerships.

Recommendation One: “Principles, values, and rules”

Humanitarian aid organisations work according to the principles of “humanity”, “impartiality”, and “neutrality”. The study shows that companies usually do not have sufficient knowledge about humanitarian principles and constraints to expect a corporate-humanitarian collaboration to initiate seamlessly; the converse applies to humanitarians who have limited knowledge about business values and beliefs. Therefore, it is recommended that both firms and aid agencies provide specialised training courses in the beginning of the collaboration to inform their partners about the key organisational principles and limitations of the partnership. Additionally, clear engagement rules need to be determined and agreed to by all parties involved. This ensures adherence to each partner’s principles and contributes to the development of trust in the partnership. Finally, firms ought to send volunteering employees to humanitarian aid missions, so that field-level experience can be gained. These field missions contribute to the definition of the possible activities of a collaboration. “The multitude of opportunities to see, touch, feel, smell and listen to the realities of the deprived and marginalized populations” (Samii & Van Wassenhove, 2004, p. 1) is an effective way to convince sceptics of the necessity to cooperate.

Recommendation Two: “Building of logistics capacity”

The United Nations (2007) recommend that companies and organisations should focus on building local skills and resources within the limits of their collaboration. Research, however, has shown that the building of global capacity between disasters, especially in the riskiest areas, is of importance. Logistics providers can contribute to capacity building through staff training and the creation of a worldwide catalogue listing of readily accessible resources for

disaster relief. Additionally, the pooling and rapid access to these resources helps in responding to emergencies in a timely manner.

Recommendation Three: “Exploiting of similar core competencies”

Collaborations between commercial logistics providers and humanitarian aid organisations should be based on similar core competencies. The study revealed that a great number of respondents from the logistics industry believe that matching core competencies, such as logistics, support the successful establishment of relationships. Perspectives from the majority of both sectors further agree that synergies between partners help build collaborations and promote cross-learning possibilities with regard to sharing of know-how and best practices, as well as taking advantage of each other’s global network and resources. However, both partners need to keep in mind that although similar core competencies exist, both organisations may have different expectations and objectives for the cooperation that can ultimately result in misunderstandings and inefficient relationship operations. Hence, organisational fit needs to also be considered when establishing collaborations.

Recommendation Four: “Collaborating with national and local authorities”

The provision of disaster relief includes cooperation with national and local governments. The collaboration between DHL and the UN shows that local authorities needed to agree on the deployment of the Disaster Response Teams (DRTs) at the outset in order to guarantee unlimited access to the airfield. Firms should make sure that the independence of all actors involved is maintained and that they adhere to the humanitarian policies when collaborating with authorities.

Recommendation Five: “Aiming at fulfilling the beneficiaries’ needs”

The ultimate aim of corporate-humanitarian collaborations should be the delivery of efficient disaster relief in emergency areas, while keeping in mind the local customs and structures. It is important that partners work together in order to avoid drifting from the intended goals of the mission and in order that the collaboration is able to adapt to sudden changes in working environment and demand. Recent literature shows that companies intend to increase their public awareness and thus tend only to support relief missions in publicly well-known

areas. Nevertheless, no evidence could be found that corporate decisions are made without considering the needs of the people.

Recommendation Six: “Managing communication between the partners and its public”

The public relations-value of the partnership is especially important to businesses since they aim to increase public awareness and enhance their public image. Nevertheless, it is recommended that both partners agree on communication rules before entering a partnership, with consideration of each other’s communication necessities and organisational principles. If the partners adhere to these strategies, press releases about the collaboration activities can create advantages for both sides.

Recommendation Seven: “Coverage of additional expenses caused by donations”

The provision of in-kind donations from corporations may raise additional costs for humanitarian aid organisations. Companies should make sure that only those resources are donated that actually contribute to relief operations. Past events have shown that inappropriate donations, such as expired medication or inadequately packaged food donations, can result in further costs incurred in the handling or destruction of these items.

Recommendation Eight: “Performance measurement and assessment”

Appropriate key performance indicators (KPIs) can be regarded as essential performance measurement techniques in cross-sector collaborations. They enable both partners to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of their partnership and allow them to make any necessary changes in favour of the cooperating parties. Additionally, future work can be improved through the reviewing of lessons learned: this, however, requires accurate and consistent reporting regulations. The application of KPIs also supports process transparency, which can be named as a prerequisite of a successful corporate-humanitarian collaboration.

Recommendation Nine: “*Separation of partners’ responsibilities and operations*”

This study clearly reveals that both commercial logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies emphasise the importance of separating their partners’ responsibilities and activities, as well as maintaining a power balance between the partners. It is recommended that a neutral communication platform is created by deploying a partnership broker who pairs the logistics firm with the aid organisation. The segregation of partnership activities, however, should imply some degree of flexibility and should not preclude individuals from assisting in their partner’s operations if needed.

Recommendation Ten: “*Calculable risk*”

Finally, the findings showed that both, the commercial logistics industry and the humanitarian aid sector prefer long-term relationships. Ideally, future processes are concisely planned, with a clear mission and goals for the collaboration, as well as clarity in each partner’s expectations and responsibilities, which are determined beforehand. Lastly, all parties should be aware of the risks involved when engaging in a partnership. Addressing of risks might be best supported through the development of a comprehensive risk-management concept.

6.4 Discussion and further research

Further research is needed to substantiate the validity of the findings due to a scarcity of previous studies; in particular, qualitative research is necessary in order to inform further work.

In view of recommendation ten: “Calculable risk”, the development of an appropriate risk assessment and risk management framework can be considered a future research area. The private sector industry, especially the insurance sector, already has well-developed risk management systems, which may serve as role models for the humanitarian sector. Risk assessment may be used in order to identify the major risks involved in a corporate-humanitarian collaboration as it evaluates in percentage terms the probability and the intensity of a possible impact on the company or organisation. Risks may be classified into categories: such as economic damages, including image damage or financial losses. Risk management, on the other side, may provide strategies and policies for reacting

to previously identified threats. Costs involved in the partnership activities and the effectiveness of solutions should be illustrated for the purpose of effective decision making.

Another area that requires further research is the degree to which the involvement of companies in disaster relief missions influences the motivation and performance of their employees. The literature review and the model partnerships examined demonstrate that companies claim their employees to have developed higher motivation, satisfaction, and loyalty towards the firm after engaging in a corporate-humanitarian collaboration. However, no independent study that proves this phenomenon could be found. It is also often mentioned that cross-sector collaborations have an impact on the logistics employees' morale. Further research should be carried out in order to explore the extent that partnerships in humanitarian aid and disaster relief may positively or even negatively influence the commercial partner employees' ethics.

Universal key performance indicators that accurately evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of partnerships need to be developed. This would simplify the comparison of existing partnerships and may support other companies and humanitarian aid agencies in their decision making processes for or against collaborations. In relation to this, worldwide guidelines for cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid and disaster relief also need to be developed. These guidelines may be based on the presented recommendations and could be complemented by additional factors. Guidelines dealing with management options (e.g. centralised or de-centralised management) of the partnership should also be included since the optimal management of a partnership could mean the difference between success or failure of its operations in disaster relief.

Future research may also focus on the development of an appropriate planning framework for such collaborations. Factors such as key players (e.g. partners, stakeholders, beneficiaries), aims of the partnership (e.g. needs assessment, mission/vision, individual objectives), outline of the programme and tasks (e.g. responsibilities, resource requirements, schedule), as well as appropriate review strategies (e.g. KPIs, auditing, exit strategy) should all be considered.

It is also necessary to apply a broader investigation into whether the identified critical success factors may apply only to the population regarded in this thesis and whether collaborations between companies from other industries and other humanitarian aid organisations require the same or additional qualities to

be successful. Also, the role of trust in a partnership needs to be further researched since the findings showed that this criterion was only barely mentioned by respondents as being a crucial requirement each partner needs to fulfil, while recent literature clearly highlights its importance.

Finally, it is worth drawing attention to modern social media tools that can help assist the improvement of disaster response. Social networks such as facebook, twitter, and youtube became popular instruments over the last few years which, if used successfully, can positively influence disaster relief efforts. With regard to cross-sector collaborations social media can be used to publicize the partnership and its activities in order to appeal the public directly by bypassing traditional media, including TV and radio. Therefore, information can be spread close to real-time, which is important to effective disaster relief. Although, not directly discussed in this thesis, the impact that social media has (and will have) on humanitarian aid issues constitutes an important area that further research should be focused on.

“Response to any disaster situation is complex with many vital ingredients involved. Some parts often are taken for granted, yet are essential to a satisfactory conclusion of the response” (*Global Institute of Logistics, n.d., p. 1*). It can be confidently stated on the basis of this study and the accompanying review of literature that cross-sector collaborations, if managed successfully, contribute to the improvement of disaster relief operations. In the future, it is a realistic aim of corporate-humanitarian collaborations that the drastic consequences of delayed or suboptimal logistics in scenarios such as Hurricane Mitch can be considered an issue of the past.

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7. APPENDIX

7.1 Project overview “Private Sector Fundraising and Awareness” (Adapted from Moving the World Official Homepage, 2010)

Project	Description
Colour the World	Colour the World is an annual children's colouring competition starting on World Food Day, 16 th October and is designed to promote awareness of world hunger among students aged 6 to 14. The competition was first held in 2004 and is open to the children of TNT employees around the world and their friends. In 2007, more than 3,500 children competed in national competitions in 24 countries.
Kids Moving the World	Kids Moving the World is an educational game for children in primary schools in the Netherlands which addresses hunger issues. It includes lessons about hunger and poverty among children in developing countries and an interactive group game.
Student Internships	TNT established a partnership with the international student association AIESEC and the WFP, called the TNT Global Experience Programme (TNT GEP). It is a special partnership that sends students from various Dutch universities to complete a six-months humanitarian development internship in a developing country .
The Twinning Model	Since 2005, TNT countries have been clustered and twinned with one of five countries where theWFP operates a School Feeding Programme so that raised funds are used to support school feeding in the twinned country only (e. g. Cambodia with TNT subsidiaries in NE, SE Asia, China, and Australia).
Walk the World	Walk the World is a 24 hour relay with participants in each of the world's time zones running five kilometres. The run starts in Auckland, New Zealand and finishes in Samoa. It was first established by TNT in 2003 and had 250,000 people participating around the world in 2008.

7.2 Project overview “Transport for Good” (Adapted from Moving the World Official Homepage, 2010)

Project	Description
North Star Foundation (NSF)	The NSF is a public-private partnership that is establishing and coordinating a network of roadside health clinics at major truck stops and border crossings in Africa, India, and Asia in order to provide truck drivers information on the dangers of HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases.
The Jatropha Project	The Jatropha Project refers to the cooperation between TNT, the WFP and the local Malawian partner BERL (Bio Energy Resources Ltd) for building a sustainable Jatropha (physic nut) business in Malawi that will give local smallholder farmers a new cash crop to grow and harvest that will create a reliable source of income.

7.3 Questionnaire



Cross-sector collaborations in disaster relief: What makes a commercial logistics company a successful partner?

Research focusing on cross-sector collaborations (i.e. collaborations between [not-for-profit] humanitarian aid organisations and commercial/private-sector logistics companies) in humanitarian aid and disaster relief logistics has experienced a significant increase in importance over the last few years. Relief operations in disaster-struck areas demand a great deal of reactivity, adaptability, and competences from humanitarian aid workers. The unpredictability of demand, the rapid change of circumstances, and suddenness of events exacerbate the operations and put staff under enormous stress. Private sector logistics companies may be able to assist aid organisations during catastrophes by providing readily accessible resources, such as transport assets, warehouse space or personnel. Thus, private logistics organisations might be able to contribute to the process of improving relief operations with regard to efficiency, speed, and cost.

This survey is being carried out in order to learn about your opinion and/or experience with regard to cross-sector collaborations in relief operations. The questionnaire focuses on the factors that commercial logistics companies require in order to build successful partnerships with aid agencies.

The questionnaire is part of a research project conducted by Jan Maether as part of his Masters Research Thesis at Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand. The project is supervised by Jersey Seipel, Lecturer – Logistics and Supply Chain Management. Please answer the questions freely. **You cannot be identified from the information you provide. All data will be treated in the strictest confidence.** Under no circumstances will your individual replies be made available to anyone except the researcher.

The questionnaire should take you about 10 minutes to complete. Please try to answer the questions in a time when you are unlikely to be disturbed. **Your answers are essential to build an accurate picture of the issues that are important for the research project and will contribute to the process of improving relief operations.**

Please return the completed questionnaire by 24.05.2010.

Thank you for your interest and participation in the study and assistance through completion of the questionnaire.

1) What is your perception of cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid / disaster relief? (Please tick one box only)

- Favourable
- Unfavourable
- Not sure
- No opinion

2) Are you involved in private/humanitarian aid partnership activities?

- Yes
- No

If yes, do you feel the collaboration is...? (Please tick one box only)

- Very successful
- Fairly successful
- Not very successful

3) If you answered yes to question 2, what advantages do you provide your partner(s)? Otherwise, please go to question 4.

4) If you are employed at a *humanitarian aid organisation*, please rank the following items in terms of the importance to you in choosing a commercial logistics company. Otherwise, please go to question 5.

Rank them 1 for the most important to 7 for the least important.

Item	Rank
Partner's geographic scope (presence & operations)	1
Reputation	1
Resource capability (includes matching core competencies)	1
Pro-bono or cost implications	1
Organisational fit	1
Public Relations-Value	1
Interests and motivation for collaboration	1

5) If you are employed at a *commercial / private-sector logistics organisation*, please rank the following items in terms of the importance to you in choosing a humanitarian aid organisation. Rank them 1 for the most important to 7 for the least important.

Item	Rank
Partner's geographic scope (presence & operations)	1
Reputation	1
Resource capability (includes matching core competencies)	1
Ability to be rewarded	1
Organisational fit	1
Public Relations-Value	1
Interests and motivation for collaboration	1

6) What do you think a *commercial logistics company* requires in order to establish successful partnerships with a humanitarian aid organisation?

7) What do you think a *humanitarian aid organisation* requires in order to establish successful partnerships with a commercial logistics company?

8) Please read the statements below and indicate your *level of agreement or disagreement* with them by ticking the appropriate box.

Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies must be of long-term to be beneficial								
strongly agree	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	strongly disagree
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	



Cross-sector collaboration decisions are based on the mood of executives

strongly agree	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	strongly disagree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies undermine humanitarian principles

strongly agree	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	strongly disagree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies are equally beneficial for both sectors

strongly agree	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	strongly disagree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Short-term collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies are not beneficial

strongly agree	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	strongly disagree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

9) How *important* do you believe each of the following items is for a successful cross-sector collaboration? (Please choose the one most appropriate answer, by placing a tick in the appropriate box)

Transfer of know-how and knowledge acquisition

very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Rapid access to partner's resources and services

very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Pooling of partner's material resources

very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Access to new networks and competitive advantage through collaboration

very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Persisting independence of partners

very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Partner's problem-solving competence								
very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Partner's effectiveness and overhead costs								
very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Use of a partnership broker (i.e. internal, e.g. specialised department or external, e.g. service organisation) pairing commercial logistics company with humanitarian aid organisation								
very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Mutual trust								
very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Experience in collaborations in general								
very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Experience in cross-sector collaborations								
very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Willingness to transfer decisive power to partner								
very important	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	not at all important
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

10) Please, list the requirements your *optimal* partner would have to fulfil.

11) Please rate the following *key barriers* for cross-sector collaborations from very strong to very weak. (Please choose the one most appropriate answer, by placing a tick in the appropriate box)

Difference in expectations / commitment between partners								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Power imbalance between partners								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Problems with internal / external communication								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Lack of resources								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Inadequate or poorly managed stakeholders (e.g. employees, donors, local government) engagement								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Differences in organisation culture								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Inadequate planning or management								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Unclear vision / mission or goals								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Lack of appropriate performance measures								
very strong	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	very weak
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

12) To what degree do you think the following factors might *assist* or *hinder* cross-sector collaborations? (Please choose the one most appropriate answer, by placing a tick in the appropriate box)

Mutual commitment of partners								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Adequate resources								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Clear partnership agreement in place								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Planning of partnership and processes in advance								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Engagement of stakeholders (e.g. employees, donors, local government)								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Use of a partnership broker (i.e. internal, e.g. specialised department or external, e.g. service organisation) pairing commercial logistics company with humanitarian aid organisation								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Internal / external communication								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Synergy between partners								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Exploitation of competitive advantage (e.g. competition for donors or enhanced company image)								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Take-over of partnership's operations by one partner								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Separation of responsibilities								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Commitment of employees								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Staff satisfaction and motivation								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Prevailing stereotypes between partners (e.g. bureaucratic, slow/fast moving, profit oriented)								
completely assist	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3	completely hinder
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

13) To what extent do you believe cross-sector collaborations in humanitarian aid / disaster relief will develop further? (Please tick one box only)

Strong development

Moderate development

Slight development

No development

14) Are you...?

Male

Female

15) How old are you?

Less than 30 years

30 to less than 40 years

40 to less than 50 years

50 to less than 60 years

60 years or over



16) Are you employed at a...?

- Humanitarian aid organisation (not-for-profit)
 Commercial / Private-sector logistics company

17) What position do you hold in the organisation? (Please tick one box only)

<i>Humanitarian aid organisation</i>	<i>Commercial / Private-sector logistics company</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> Head of Mission	<input type="checkbox"/> Managing Director
<input type="checkbox"/> Logistics Coordinator	<input type="checkbox"/> Manager
<input type="checkbox"/> Logistician	<input type="checkbox"/> Supervisor
<input type="checkbox"/> Logistics Assistant	<input type="checkbox"/> Assistant
<input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____	<input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire and making the study possible. I hope you found completing the questionnaire enjoyable. If you have any queries please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor Jersey Seipel.

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7.4 Findings question 8: “Please read the statements below and indicate your level of ‘agreement’ or ‘disagreement’ with them”

7.4.1 Mean and Median values

<i>Item</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Median</i>	
Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies must be of long-term to be beneficial	2.79	2.61	2.00	2.00
Cross-sector collaboration decisions are based on the mood of executive	3.58	3.52	3.00	3.00
Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies undermine humanitarian principles	4.67	4.70	5.00	5.00
Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies are equally beneficial for both sectors	2.25	2.26	2.00	2.00
Short-term collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies are not beneficial	4.04	4.17	5.00	5.00
Humanitarian Aid Organisation				
Commercial Logistics Company				

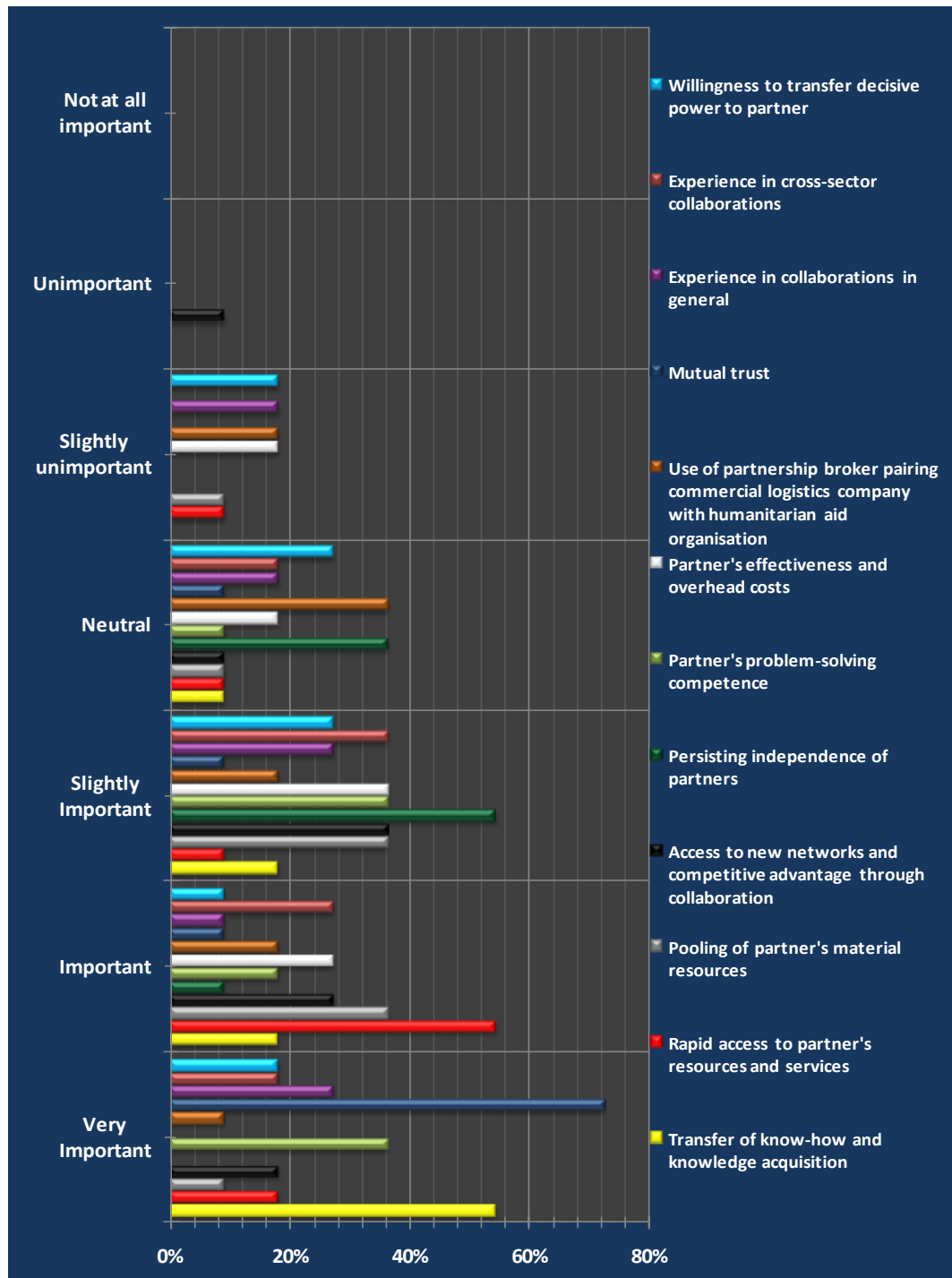
- **Mean:** Average value (sum of observations divided by total number of observations).
- **Median:** Numeric value separating higher half of a sample from lower half.
- **Interpretation of values:** 1 \triangleq Strongly Agree; 2 \triangleq Agree; 3 \triangleq Slightly Agree; 4 \triangleq Neither Agree nor Disagree; 5 \triangleq Slightly Disagree, 6 \triangleq Disagree, 7 \triangleq Strongly Disagree.

7.4.2 Rating overview in percentage terms

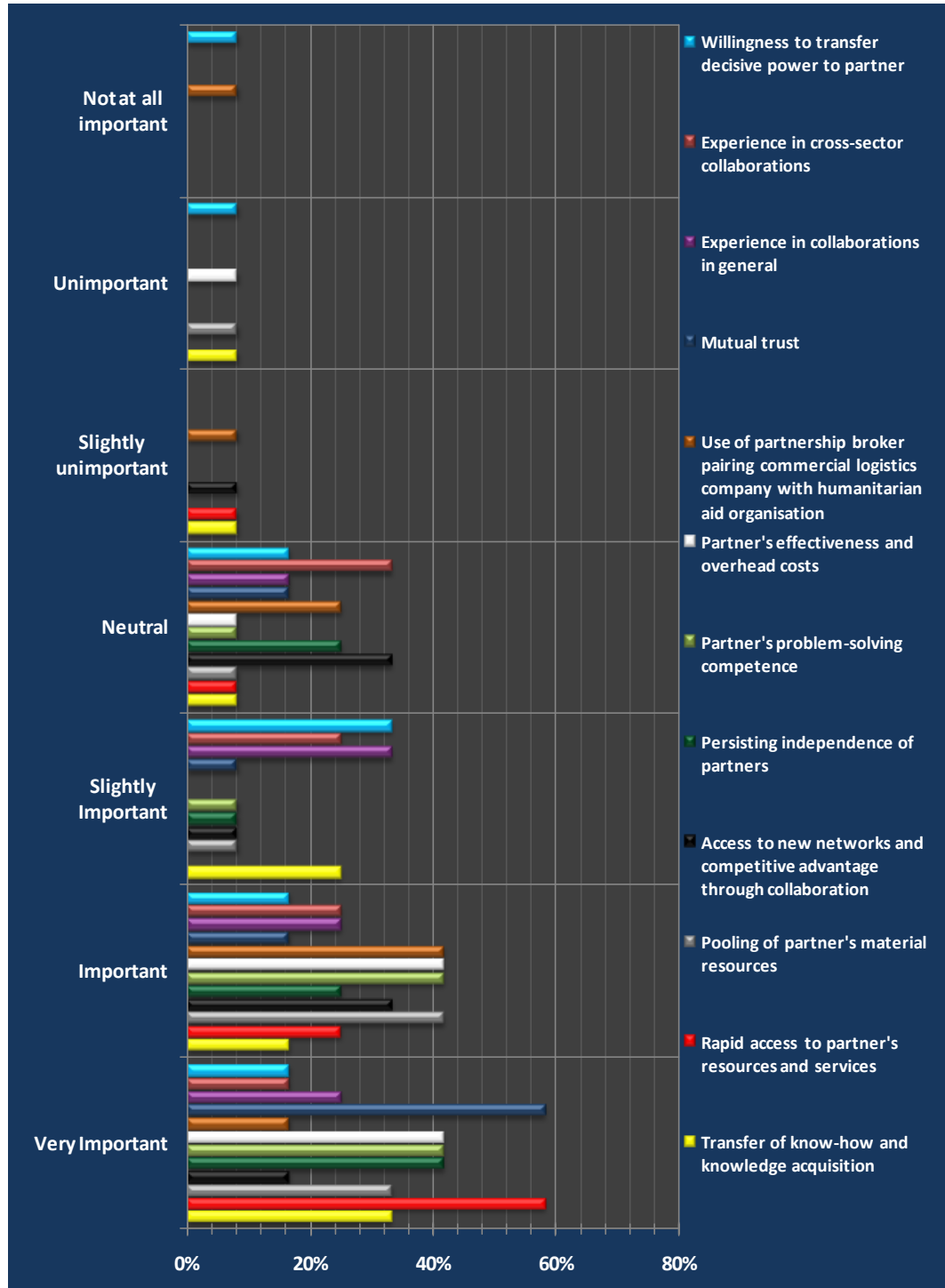
<i>Item</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>		<i>Agree</i>		<i>Slightly Agree</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Slightly Disagree</i>		<i>Disagree</i>		<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	
Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies must be of long-term to be beneficial	00.00%	<u>72.70%</u>	<u>33.30%</u>	00.00%	16.70%	27.30%	00.00%	00.00%	16.70%	00.00%	8.30%	00.00%	25.0%	00.00%
Cross-sector collaboration decisions are based on the mood of executive	00.00%	9.10%	16.70%	9.10%	<u>33.30%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>	16.70%	9.10%	16.70%	27.30%	00.00%	00.00%	16.70%	9.10%
Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies undermine humanitarian principles	8.30%	00.00%	8.30%	00.00%	16.70%	9.10%	8.30%	18.20%	16.70%	9.10%	16.70%	27.30%	<u>25.00%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>
Collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies are equally beneficial for both sectors	<u>33.30%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>	25.00%	<u>36.40%</u>	8.30%	00.00%	16.70%	27.30%	8.30%	00.00%	8.30%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Short-term collaborations between private logistics companies and humanitarian aid agencies are not beneficial	16.70%	18.20%	8.30%	00.00%	8.30%	9.10%	8.30%	9.10%	<u>25.00%</u>	9.10%	8.30%	<u>45.50%</u>	<u>25.00%</u>	9.10%
Humanitarian Aid Organisation	Commercial Logistics Company													

7.5 Findings question 9: “How ‘important’ do you believe each of the following items is for a successful cross-sector collaboration?”

7.5.1 Complete overview of rating of characteristics important to corporate-humanitarian collaborations (commercial logistics industry)



7.5.2 Complete overview of rating of characteristics important to corporate-humanitarian collaborations (humanitarian aid sector)



7.5.3 Mean and Median values

<i>Item</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Median</i>	
Transfer of know-how and knowledge acquisition	2.13	2.09	2.00	2.00
Rapid access to partner's resources and services	1.96	1.96	2.00	2.00
Pooling of partner's material resources	2.25	2.35	2.00	2.00
Access to new networks and competitive advantage through collaboration	2.58	2.39	2.50	2.00
Persisting independence of partners	2.46	2.48	3.00	3.00
Partner's problem-solving competence	1.88	1.87	2.00	2.00
Partner's effectiveness and overhead costs	2.46	2.52	2.00	2.00
Use of partnership broker pairing commercial logistics company with humanitarian aid organisation	2.83	3.00	2.50	3.00
Mutual trust	1.58	1.61	1.00	1.00
Experience in collaborations in general	2.46	2.39	3.00	3.00
Experience in cross-sector collaborations	2.46	2.39	3.00	3.00
Willingness to transfer decisive power to partner	3.00	3.04	3.00	3.00
Humanitarian Aid Organisation				
Commercial Logistics Company				

- **Mean:** Average value (sum of observations divided by total number of observations).
- **Median:** Numeric value separating higher half of a sample from lower half.
- **Interpretation of values:** 1 \triangleq Very Important; 2 \triangleq Important; 3 \triangleq Slightly Important; 4 \triangleq Neither Important nor Unimportant; 5 \triangleq Slightly Unimportant, 6 \triangleq Unimportant, 7 \triangleq Not at all Important.

7.5.4 Rating overview in percentage terms

Item	Very Important		Important		Slightly Important		Neutral		Slightly unimportant		Unimportant		Not at all important	
Transfer of know-how and knowledge acquisition	<u>33.30%</u>	<u>54.50%</u>	16.70%	18.20%	25.00%	18.20%	8.30%	9.10%	8.30%	00.00%	8.30%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Rapid access to partner's resources and services	<u>58.30%</u>	18.20%	25.00%	<u>54.50%</u>	0.00%	9.10%	8.30%	9.10%	8.30%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Pooling of partner's material resources	33.30%	9.10%	<u>41.70%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>	8.30%	<u>36.40%</u>	8.30%	9.10%	00.00%	9.10%	8.30%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Access to new networks and competitive advantage through collaboration	16.70%	18.20%	<u>33.30%</u>	27.30%	8.30%	<u>36.40%</u>	33.30%	9.10%	8.30%	00.00%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%
Persisting independence of partners	<u>41.70%</u>	00.00%	25.00%	9.10%	8.30%	<u>54.50%</u>	25.00%	36.40%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Partner's problem-solving competence	<u>41.70%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>	<u>41.70%</u>	18.20%	8.30%	<u>36.40%</u>	8.30%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Partner's effectiveness and overhead costs	<u>41.70%</u>	00.00%	<u>41.70%</u>	27.30%	00.00%	<u>36.40%</u>	8.30%	18.20%	00.00%	18.20%	8.30%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Use of partnership broker pairing commercial logistics company with humanitarian aid organisation	16.70%	9.10%	<u>41.70%</u>	18.20%	00.00%	18.20%	25.00%	<u>36.40%</u>	8.30%	18.20%	00.00%	00.00%	8.30%	00.00%
Mutual trust	<u>58.30%</u>	<u>72.70%</u>	16.70%	9.10%	8.30%	9.10%	16.70%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Experience in collaborations in general	25.00%	<u>27.30%</u>	25.00%	9.10%	<u>33.30%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	16.70%	18.20%	00.00%	18.20%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Experience in cross-sector collaborations	16.70%	18.20%	25.00%	27.30%	25.00%	<u>36.40%</u>	<u>33.30%</u>	18.20%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Willingness to transfer decisive power to partner	16.70%	18.20%	16.70%	9.10%	<u>33.30%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	16.70%	<u>27.30%</u>	00.00%	18.20%	8.30%	00.00%	8.30%	00.00%
Humanitarian Aid Organisation	Commercial Logistics Company													

7.6 Findings question 11: “Please rate the following ‘key barriers’ for cross-sector collaborations from ‘very strong’ to ‘very weak’”

7.6.1 Mean and Median values

<i>Item</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Median</i>	
Difference in expectations / commitment between partners	2.33	2.39	2.00	2.00
Power imbalance between partners	3.25	3.17	3.00	3.00
Problems with internal / external communication	2.46	2.35	2.00	2.00
Lack of resources	2.38	2.43	2.00	2.00
Inadequate or poorly managed stakeholder engagement	3.00	2.96	3.00	3.00
Differences in organisation culture	2.67	2.61	3.00	3.00
Inadequate planning or management	2.42	2.30	2.00	2.00
Unclear vision / mission or goals	2.17	2.22	2.00	2.00
Lack of appropriate performance measures	2.75	2.78	3.00	3.00
Humanitarian Aid Organisation				
Commercial Logistics Company				

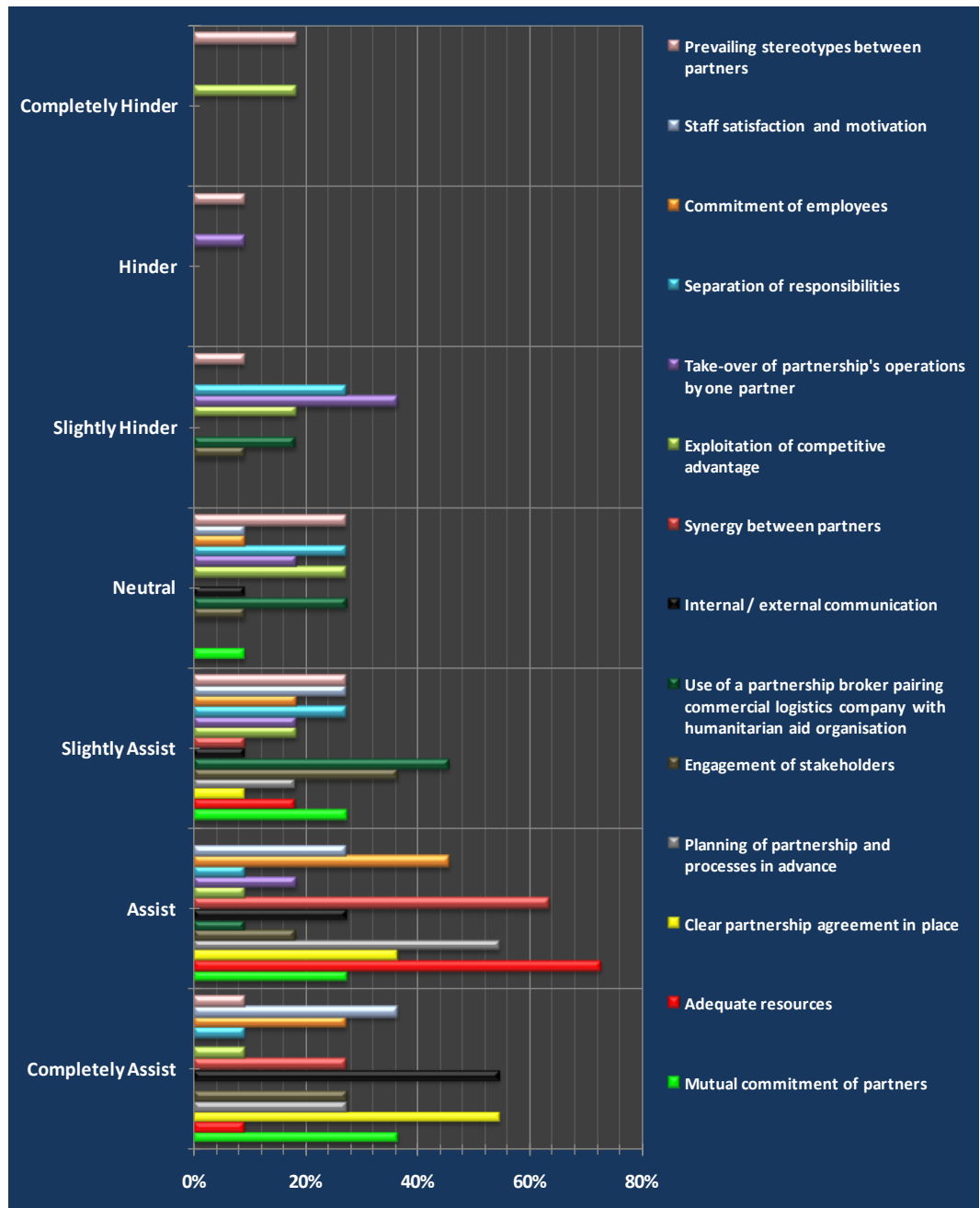
- **Mean:** Average value (sum of observations divided by total number of observations).
- **Median:** Numeric value separating higher half of a sample from lower half.
- **Interpretation of values:** 1 \triangleq Very Strong; 2 \triangleq Strong; 3 \triangleq Slightly Strong; 4 \triangleq Neither Strong nor Weak; 5 \triangleq Slightly Weak, 6 \triangleq Weak, 7 \triangleq Very Weak.

7.6.2 Rating overview in percentage terms

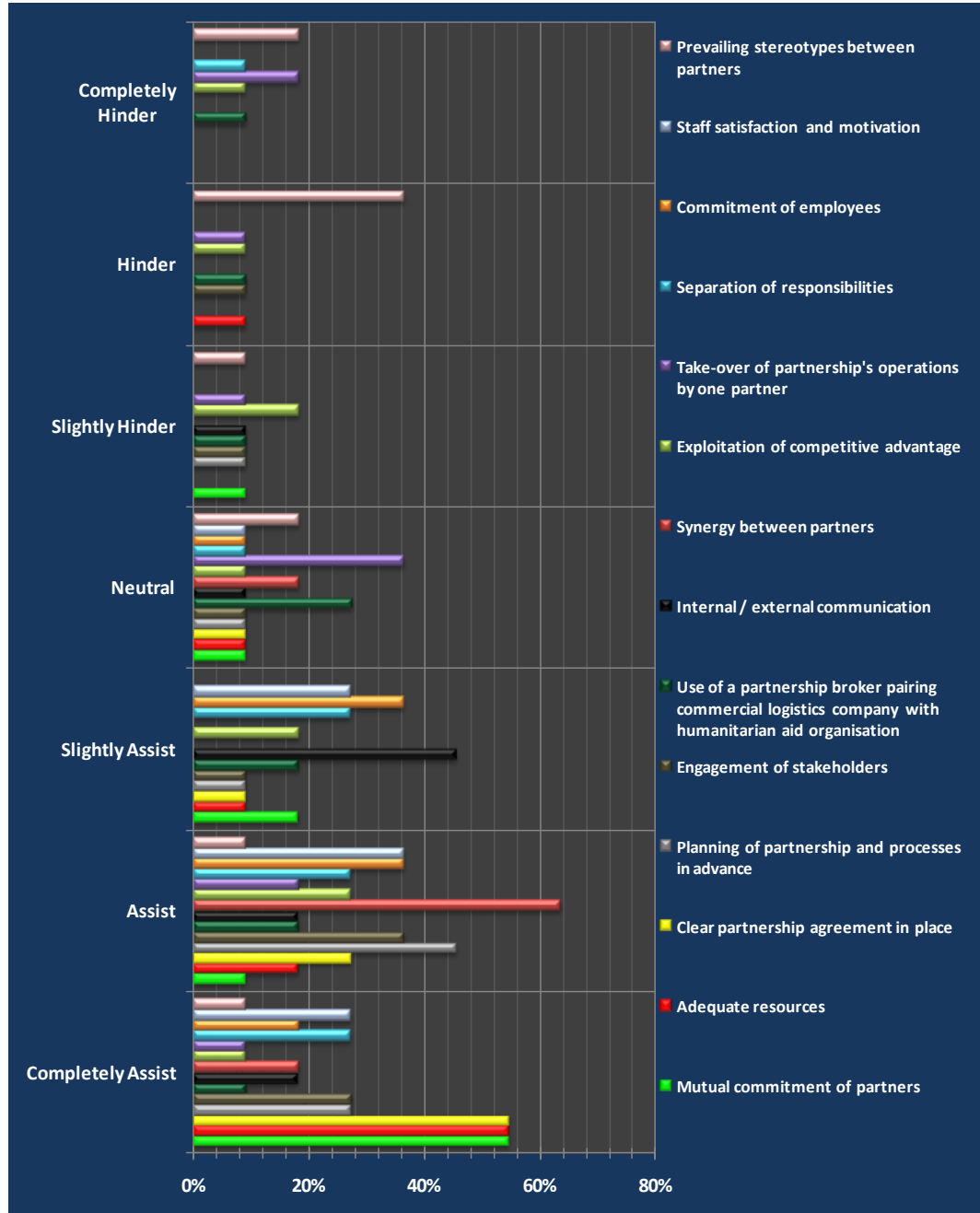
Item	Very Strong		Strong		Slightly Strong		Neutral		Slightly Weak		Weak		Very Weak	
Difference in expectations / commitment between partners	<u>27.30%</u>	00.00%	18.20%	<u>63.60%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	18.20%	9.10%	18.20%	18.20%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Power imbalance between partners	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	00.00%	18.20%	18.20%	<u>27.30%</u>	00.00%	18.20%	<u>27.30%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	18.20%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%
Problems with internal / external communication	9.10%	<u>36.40%</u>	18.20%	<u>36.40%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	18.20%	18.20%	0.00%	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Lack of resources	27.30%	18.20%	<u>36.40%</u>	<u>45.50%</u>	00.00%	27.30%	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%
Inadequate or poorly managed stakeholder engagement	18.20%	9.10%	<u>36.40%</u>	18.20%	00.00%	18.20%	18.20%	<u>27.30%</u>	18.20%	18.20%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%
Differences in organisation culture	<u>36.40%</u>	9.10%	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	<u>54.50%</u>	9.10%	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	18.20%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Inadequate planning or management	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	<u>27.30%</u>	<u>54.50%</u>	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	18.20%	18.20%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Unclear vision / mission or goals	<u>36.40%</u>	<u>45.50%</u>	9.10%	27.30%	18.20%	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Lack of appropriate performance measures	9.10%	9.10%	18.20%	18.20%	18.20%	<u>54.50%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	18.20%	<u>27.30%</u>	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Humanitarian Aid Organisation	Commercial Logistics Company													

7.7 Findings question 12: “To what degree do you think the following factors might ‘assist’ or ‘hinder’ cross-sector collaborations?”

7.7.1 Level of assistance of characteristics for corporate-humanitarian collaborations (commercial logistics industry)



7.7.2 Level of assistance of characteristics for corporate-humanitarian collaborations (humanitarian aid sector)



7.7.3 Mean and Median values

<i>Item</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Median</i>	
Mutual commitment of partners	1.88	1.91	1.50	2.00
Adequate resources	1.88	1.7	2.00	2.00
Clear partnership agreement in place	1.42	1.43	1.00	1.00
Planning of partnership and processes in advance	1.83	1.70	2.00	2.00
Engagement of stakeholders	2.33	2.30	2.00	2.00
Use of a partnership broker pairing commercial logistics company with humanitarian aid organisation	3.21	3.22	3.00	3.00
Internal / external communication	2.00	1.96	2.00	2.00
Synergy between partners	1.75	1.78	2.00	2.00
Exploitation of competitive advantage	3.25	3.13	3.00	3.00
Take-over of partnership's operations by one partner	3.50	3.52	4.00	4.00
Separation of responsibilities	2.75	2.74	3.00	3.00
Commitment of employees	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Staff satisfaction and motivation	1.92	1.91	2.00	2.00
Prevailing stereotypes between partners	3.92	3.83	4.00	4.00
Humanitarian Aid Organisation				
Commercial Logistics Company				

- **Mean:** Average value (sum of observations divided by total number of observations).
- **Median:** Numeric value separating higher half of a sample from lower half.
- **Interpretation of values:** 1 \triangleq Completely Assist; 2 \triangleq Assist; 3 \triangleq Slightly Assist; 4 \triangleq Neither Assist nor Hinder; 5 \triangleq Slightly Hinder, 6 \triangleq Hinder, 7 \triangleq Completely Hinder.

7.7.4 Rating overview in percentage terms

Item	Completely Assist		Assist		Slightly Assist		Neutral		Slightly Hinder		Hinder		Completely Hinder	
Mutual commitment of partners	<u>54.50%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>	9.10%	27.30%	18.20%	27.30%	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Adequate resources	<u>54.50%</u>	9.10%	18.20%	<u>72.70%</u>	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Clear partnership agreement in place	<u>54.50%</u>	<u>54.50%</u>	27.30%	36.40%	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Planning of partnership and processes in advance	27.30%	27.30%	<u>45.50%</u>	<u>54.50%</u>	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Engagement of stakeholders	27.30%	27.30%	<u>36.40%</u>	18.20%	9.10%	<u>36.40%</u>	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Use of a partnership broker pairing commercial logistics company with humanitarian aid organisation	9.10%	00.00%	18.20%	9.10%	18.20%	<u>45.50%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	27.30%	9.10%	18.20%	9.10%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%
Internal / external communication	18.20%	<u>54.50%</u>	18.20%	27.30%	<u>45.50%</u>	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Synergy between partners	18.20%	27.30%	<u>63.60%</u>	<u>63.60%</u>	00.00%	9.10%	18.20%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Exploitation of competitive advantage	9.10%	9.10%	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	18.20%	18.20%	9.10%	<u>27.30%</u>	18.20%	18.20%	9.10%	00.00%	9.10%	18.20%
Take-over of partnership's operations by one partner	9.10%	00.00%	18.20%	18.20%	00.00%	18.20%	<u>36.40%</u>	18.20%	9.10%	<u>36.40%</u>	9.10%	9.10%	18.20%	00.00%
Separation of responsibilities	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	<u>27.30%</u>	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	<u>27.30%</u>	00.00%	<u>27.30%</u>	00.00%	00.00%	9.10%	00.00%
Commitment of employees	18.20%	27.30%	<u>36.40%</u>	<u>45.50%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>	18.20%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Staff satisfaction and motivation	27.30%	<u>36.40%</u>	<u>36.40%</u>	27.30%	27.30%	27.30%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Prevailing stereotypes between partners	9.10%	9.10%	9.10%	00.00%	00.00%	<u>27.30%</u>	18.20%	<u>27.30%</u>	9.10%	9.10%	<u>36.40%</u>	9.10%	18.20%	18.20%
Humanitarian Aid Organisation	Commercial Logistics Company													

