## List of abbreviations

| | |
|---|---|
| ACF | Action Against Hunger (*Action Contre la Faim*) |
| CIDA | Canadian International Development Agency |
| CIMIC | Civil Military Cooperation |
| DDR | Disarmament Demobilization and Reintegration |
| DHL | (Dalsey, Hillblom and Lynn). International logistics provider |
| DRSSG | Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary General |
| FEDEX | Shipping - Logistics Management - Supply Chain Management |
| ICC | International Criminal Court |
| ICRC | International Committee of the Red Cross |
| IFRCCS | International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies |
| IMO | International Maritime Organization |
| INGO | International Non Governmental Organization |
| ISS | Integrated Service Support |
| JLOC | Joint Logistic Operation Centre |
| MDM | Médecins du Monde |
| MoU | Memorandum of Understanding |
| MSF | Médecins Sans Frontières |
| NA | Needs Assessment |
| NATO | North Atlantic Treaty Organization |
| NGO | Non Governmental Organization |
| NORDEFCO | Nordic Defense Cooperation |
| OCHA | The UN Organization for the Coordination of Humanitarian Assistance |
| QIP | Quick Impact Projects |
| SCF | Save the Children |
| SCHR | Southern Center for Human Rights |
| SIDA | Swedish international development cooperation agency |
| SRSG | Special Representative of the Secretary-General |
| TNT | Thomas Nationwide Transport express & mail delivery service company |
| UN | United Nations |

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|---|---|
| UNDP | United Nations Development Program |
| UNHCR | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development *(*USAID*)* |
| WFP | World Food Program |
| WHO | World Health Organization |

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# 1 Introduction

*This chapter begins with a background study which compares and contrasts business and humanitarian logistics, formulate a problem, derive the purpose of our work, provide a perspective, delimit the scope of research and conclude by spelling out the dissertation outline.*

## 1.1 Background

In 2008, 321 disasters claimed the lives of 235,816 people worldwide and affected 211 million others (Whiting, 2009). While citing a United Nations (UN) statistic, Whiting (2009) states further that the resulting cost of this to the global economy stood at $181 billion.

Logistics has been identified as the 'most important factor and the biggest obstacle facing a massive international aid operation' (Cassidy, 2010, p. 1) during disasters and relief operations like the Haiti earthquake of January 12, 2010. While research interest over the years has largely been centered on business logistics, many business logistics principles and practices can be applied to humanitarian logistics (Kovács & Spens, 2007) and some have already been co-opted and integrated into the humanitarian discipline and could be key to improving humanitarian supply chain or relief chain performance (Chandes & Paché, 2010). Therefore, in a way, business logistics and humanitarian logistics are closely related in a network of mutuality, having much in common.

However, as Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b) in their article point out, business and humanitarian logistics differ in many ways including the supply chain fundamentals of flows, design and management quality. In terms of flows (as we can see in Figure 1.1 below), business supply chains mainly constitute the Three Bs of Boxes (material), Bytes (information) and Bucks (money) while humanitarians add Bodies (people) and Brains (knowledge and skills) to this list.

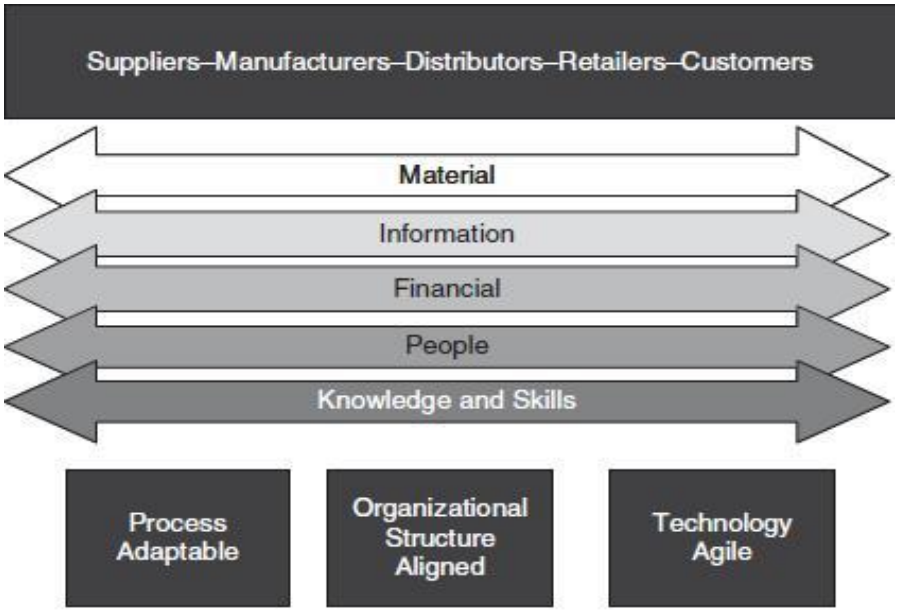


*Figure 1.1 Supply chain flows (Tomasini & Wassenhove, 2009b, page 5 )*

McLachlin, Larson and Khan (2009) also make a distinction between these two disciplines by stating that while business logistics is primarily focused on profit making and runs in a stable and uninterrupted environment, humanitarian logistics on the other hand are not driven by profits and also operate in very unstable and interrupted environments.

On the level of supply chain design, as Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b) note in their write-up, while businesses are driven by the demand of customers, humanitarian organizations like NGOs act based on the action of donors or supply. Under such circumstances, it becomes difficult to map out the parameters upon which one can measure the success of a humanitarian intervention.

McLachlin et al (2009) also pinpoint the fact that while business logisticians deal with predetermined actors and demand, humanitarians are challenged with unknown actors and demand. As further pointed out, while 'time is money' for the business logistician, time is life for the humanitarian.

Furthermore, as revealed by supply chain management quality analysis, differences persist between these two branches as can be seen from the characteristics of a humanitarian supply chain which reveals ambiguous objectives, limited resources, high uncertainty, politicized environment and equally drivers like speed, cost, operational models (Kovács & Tatham, 2009) and right type (Tomasini & Wassenhove, 2009a).

With an increasingly keen interest of recent about how closely logistics is intertwined with humanitarian catastrophes and crisis situations like the Haiti earthquakes, Kenya post-election violence, tsunami in South-East Asia and hurricanes in Bangladesh, research is growing in this field. As Whiting (2009) notes, the number and complexity of disasters is on the rise, thus the need for efficient and effective humanitarian relief has become greater than before.

The case for cross-learning between business logistics and humanitarianism is taken up by Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b) in their book, in which they call on humanitarians to move beyond basic logistics and embrace end-to-end supply chain management (an approach which recognizes the role of different supply chain players in satisfying the final consumer) as a means of coordinating different players in a relief operation.

With the huge scale of destruction and carnage witnessed during humanitarian disasters which paralyzes activities and operations in the affected region, the number of actors and stakeholders on the ground (governmental and non-governmental, civil and military, profit and philanthropic institutions) are equally found in great numbers (Chandes & Paché, 2010).
It was against this background of how different humanitarian logistics players *interact* with one another, coordinate their operations, collaborate with and compete against each other that the authors of this thesis on November 24, 2009, attended a Humanitarian Logistics workshop at the *Jonkoping International Business School* (JIBS) on the theme *Private and NGO/GO collaborations in emergency situations and development*, organized by the *Centre of Logistics and Supply Chain Management* (CeLS).
At the end of this symposium which witnessed the participation of company representatives from Saab Aerotech and Clip-Lok SimPak Scandinavia Ltd, *Médecins Sans Frontières* (representing NGOs), personnel from the Norwegian Defence Command and Staff College (representing the military) as well as academicians and students in attendance, we were struck by some of the obstacles encountered to forge cooperation among

the different players. After the brainstorming session, we started nurturing interest in looking further into this area and conceiving ideas about how best these actors on the ground can act in harmony.

This level of coordination among stakeholders is highlighted in the Disaster Management Cycle (Tomasini & Wassenhove, 2009b) from Mitigation, through Preparedness, Response and Rehabilitation phases.
Worthy of note is the fact that, while these stakeholders often step into the humanitarian arena with different mission statements, models, objectives, organizational structures of command and methods of how to execute their operations, at the end of the day the primary goal in each of their supply chains is satisfying the downstream end users, who happen to be disaster victims in this case. This stands as the prioritized objective of setting up a relief chain in the first place.

## 1.2 Problem formulation

A disaster or crisis of catastrophic proportion often attracts a number of independent actors, each of whom seeks to address it and may end up doing so on the basis of a different theory or line of action (Stephenson & Schnitzer, 2009).

The issue at stake is that whenever actors from different backgrounds come in from their respective quarters, their different mandates do not always blend with each other and sometimes can instead be antagonistic towards each other with the end result being a conflict of interest.

Traditionally, the mandate of the military is to secure the environment, ensure law and order and provide space in which humanitarian aid can flow and workers can deliver the badly needed aid to victims in distress. But with the military's overwhelming number of personnel, superior equipment and other logistic capability, the tendency is to divert some of their resources towards engaging in humanitarian practices like 'food drops by military forces' (Stockton, 2002, p. 465) and provision of basic amenities to affected and displaced populations (IASC Reference Paper, 2004, Kovács & Tatham, 2009). This area of operation, on the other hand, is what humanitarian actors consider their traditional turf or humanitarian space (Barry & Jefferys, 2002) and therefore regard such practices by the military, as an intrusion into their field of operation. The authors note the increasing intervention of military peacekeeping forces since the early 1990s and with massive loss of lives (Harris & Dombrowski, 2002). OCHA terms this an 'evolution of military thinking in regard to the provision of humanitarian aid and services'.

Also, with the doctrine of civil-military operations where military forces are used for support and delivery of humanitarian aid, and even direct provision of aid (OCHA, 2001), this has sown seeds of discord and stands out as an area of misunderstanding. This has sometimes degenerated into outright conflict as it sometimes leads to direct competition between these two actors. Closely associated to this, ensuring proper coordination among parties engaged in humanitarian relief is an 'issue of enduring concern' (Stephenson, 2006, p. 41).

In addition, since humanitarian and philanthropic organizations need security from the military during search and rescue missions and the military's superior logistic capability in the delivery of basic necessities to afflicted victims (George, 2002), it is a tricky task

for them to cooperate with the military, especially if it is belligerent, without going against one of the humanitarian principles of *Neutrality*, which could put it at odds with other belligerent forces and the public. Also, as Chandes & Paché (2010) reveal, only a collective coordination strategy will be able to improve humanitarian supply chain performance while a lack of it will have grave ramifications for the affected people.

To shed more light on the relationship between humanitarian organizations and the military, our study will employ a theoretical framework which uses models to compare the organizational structures in both humanitarian and military. In addition, an empirical study will also be employed in which interviews are conducted with three humanitarian organization workers and a military officer military from a peacekeeping operation. This will be carried out in conjunction with review of literature related to this area.

## 1.3 Purpose

This work aims to examine civil-military relations during the preparedness and response phase of humanitarian crises.

## 1.4 Perspective

This dissertation exercise is the product of two Humanitarian Logistics enthusiasts who are keen on following up an idea of civil-military cooperation from a course and seminar on Humanitarian Logistics which they attended. Based on a theoretical framework and empirical studies, the aim is to fulfill the purpose of the study, provide answers to the research questions, suggest ideas on possible areas of further research to other students and make knowledge contribution to this discipline.

## 1.5 Research questions

Closely related to the research purpose, this paper sets out to analyze the civil-military relations in the light of their overlapping roles during the humanitarian relief operations, and exploring the possibility of attaining a strategic fit among the actors. Therefore, it is reasonable to investigate different aspects involved in civil-military relations, for example; Do they follow the same organizational structure? Can civil-military cooperation and collaboration exist in some way? Are there areas of conflict or common understanding? These discussions are leading us to the research questions we formulated for our thesis:

RQ1: What role is played by NGOs and military forces during a humanitarian crisis?

RQ2: Does a cooperation framework exist between both parties?

RQ3: Can a strategic fit be attained among stakeholders?

## 1.6 Delimiting the scope of research

This study, as can be deduced from the purpose of our thesis, shall be limited, but not wholly confined, to the relationship between NGOs vis-à-vis military.
By extension, our study on humanitarian and philanthropic groups s*hall not* encompass philanthropic GOs like USAID, SIDA, CIDA and faith based humanitarian organizations. On the other hand, definition of the military will include *only* legally constituted forces of law and order both at the state or national level, international forces like multinational forces, UN peacekeepers, international military observers, occupying forces and other officially organized troops.
By default, our study of military does not include non-state armed groups, private military, security companies and mercenaries. This is to avoid certain complexities that may arise from dealing with such groups.

On cooperation, we shall limit ourselves only to those initiatives between NGOs and the military. Coordination, and the associated challenges, will also be examined at the level of these two players.

Talking about disasters, our primary focus will be natural disasters like earthquakes, tsunamis, volcanic eruptions and hurricanes. Man-made disasters like wars shall only be examined from the peacekeeping missions' perspective.

And when we talk about humanitarian crisis or disaster, our study shall be limited to the preparedness and response phase.

On the other hand, the role of business logistic firms, transporters and trucking firms like DHL, TNT, FedEx etc., providers of warehousing facilities and their relationship with NGOs and the military, shall be left out of our study.

## 1.7 Disposition

Our dissertation is split into seven chapters (Figure 1.2) with the structure fashioned in line with JIBS writing guidelines. Each of these chapters begins with an overview which spells out what the reader can expect to find in each chapter. Also included at the end of work are figures and tables which have been added for better understanding and illustration.

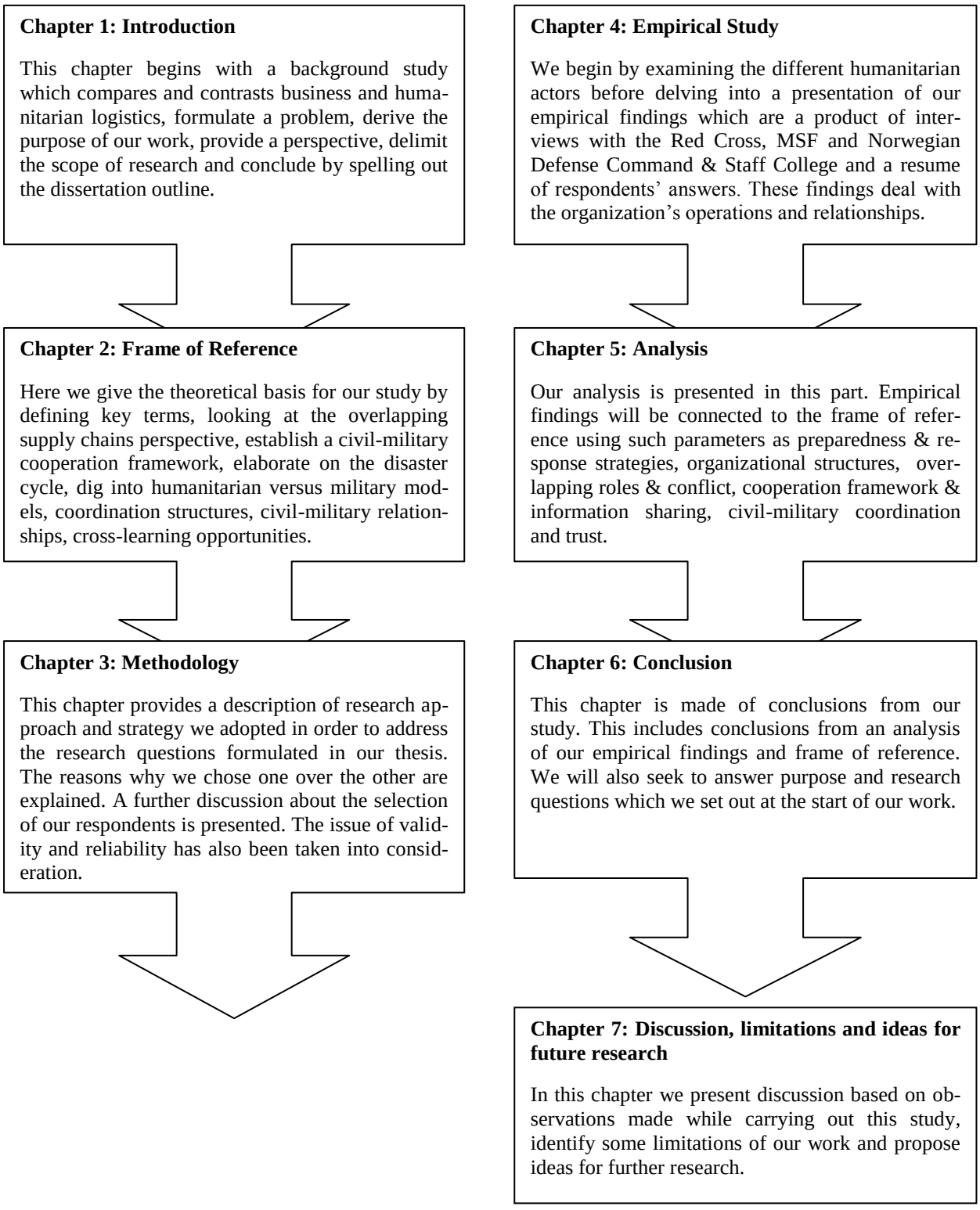


*Figure 1.2 Structure of thesis*

# 2 Frame of reference

*Here we give the theoretical basis for our study by defining key terms, looking at the overlapping supply chains perspective, establish a civil-military cooperation framework, elaborate on the disaster cycle, dig into humanitarian versus military models, coordination structures, civil-military relationships, cross-learning opportunities.*

## 2.1 Theoretical and operational definitions

*Humanitarian logistics* refers to 'that range of activities which include preparedness, planning, procurement, transport, warehousing, tracking and tracing, and customs clearance' (Whiting & Ayala-Öström, 2009, p. 1083). Wassenhove (2006, p. 476) narrows it down to the 'process and systems involved in mobilizing people, resources, skills and knowledge to help vulnerable people affected by disaster'. On the other hand, Kovács (2009, p. 1) gives an extended definition on the discipline;
*Humanitarian logistics can be 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.*
Noteworthy is the fact that, 'the function encompasses a range of activities, including preparedness, planning, procurement, transport, warehousing, tracking and tracing, and customs clearance' (Chandes & Paché, 2010, p. 321, McLachlin et al, 2009, p. 1053).

*Humanitarian space*, according to Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b, p. 26) exists both in the physical and virtual sense. Physically, it 'represents a zone where civilians, non-combatants and aid workers are protected from violence and attack and can move and operate freely'. Meanwhile, by 'virtual' the authors mean 'it represents the interaction between the different members of the humanitarian ecosystem, and how they create an environment where their mandates can be executed'. This space is best explained in the pyramidal structure below (Figure 2.1), bordered by three humanitarian principles.

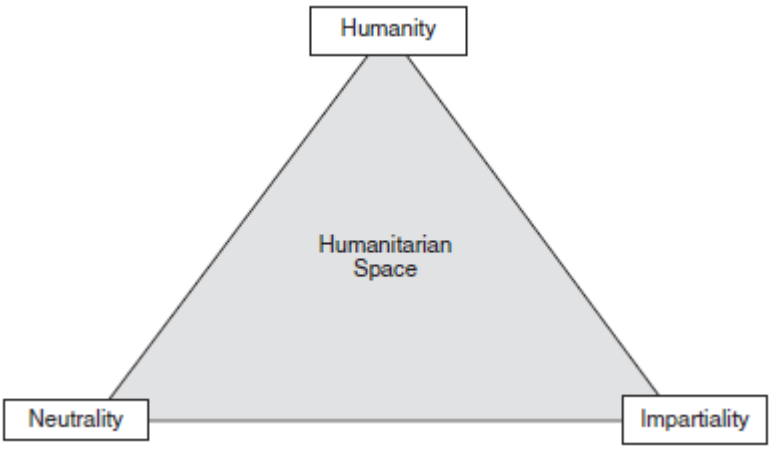


*Figure 2.1 Humanitarian space and principles (Tomasini & Wassenhove, 2009b, p. 27).*

*Humanitarian principles*, represented in the triangle above, constitute the basis of what is otherwise known as the *Humanitarian Doctrine.* This is a set of three laid down prin-

ciples which are universally accepted by all humanitarians (Carnegy, 2010) as the foundation upon which to act. This includes humanity, impartiality and neutrality (IASC Reference Paper, 2004).

Writing on neo-humanitarianism, Mills (2005) contradicts the whole concept of humanitarian principles proposed by Henri Dunant and derides it as a myth which is inapplicable due to the conditions of today's conflicts, which usually pits states against non-state actors, has no clear battle lines and where the logic of these principles have been rejected by some combatants. Humanitarianism, this article notes, has significantly 'lost its core principles' (Mills, 2005, p. 166) making relief aid a political tool and humanitarians targets in the conflict. While not directly criticizing NGOs for this contradiction in principles, the author notes that NGOs are usually victims because of the hypocritical manner in which funding of humanitarian operations take place given that donors always give aid with 'strings attached'.

*Coordination* can be defined as the integration of different parts of an organization to accomplish a collective set of tasks (Lechner & Kreutzer, 2010). This acknowledges the presence of heterogeneous interests and objectives among different participants in a humanitarian mission and seeks for ways to channel the different interests and procedures towards satisfying the needs of the end user.

*Cooperation* is about creating a unity of understanding of the overall goal of the supply chain and through this common understanding; everyone will strive towards this goal (Fridriksson & Hertz, 2000).

*Overlapping roles* in the context of our study refers to a scenario where the lines of job description between two or more players get blurry as a consequence of an integrated supply chain and each party ends up over-stepping their boundary. Carnegy (2010) cites such an instance where NGOs are used by the military as 'force multipliers' to deliver developmental projects during humanitarian missions alongside military forces, a move which makes them targets for attacks.

*Strategic fit* is a term employed in this thesis to mean a situation where the actions, functions, tasks and roles of NGOs and the military blend with each other when they are able to work amicably side by side on the ground in a way that will contribute to competitive advantage for the beneficiary.

*Actors, stakeholders* and *players* are terms which we will use interchangeably in our work to refer to all the different participants in the humanitarian space.

*Humanitarian organization* is a blanket term for GOs, NGOs, religious humanitarian groups and any other philanthropic organization. But for the sake of this study, we will use this general term only for NGOs bar GOs and faith based humanitarian organizations.

## 2.2 Overlapping supply chains

In a research study based on firms in the transportation, automotive and construction sectors, Hertz (2006) analyzes how an overlap of supply chains can bring about integration changes within a supply chain. Provan and Sebastian (1998) go further, in another study on health agencies, to explore network effectiveness as a consequence of integra-

tion between networks. Several terms are used in the research by Hertz (2006) which need to be defined further so as to make understanding more simplistic.

*Supply chain network* can be defined from two different perspectives. 'Networks are structures of interdependence involving multiple organizations or parts thereof, where one unit is not merely the formal subordinate of the other in some larger hierarchical arrangement' (Stephenson, 2006, p. 44). Meanwhile, a supply chain network refers to 'a group of actors coordinating and controlling the resources and activities of technologically interdependent production systems with the purpose of delivering certain products and services to a special group of customers' (Hertz, 2006, p. 209). This perspective is best illustrated diagrammatically below (Figure 2.2) by Pravon & Sebastian (1998, p. 460).

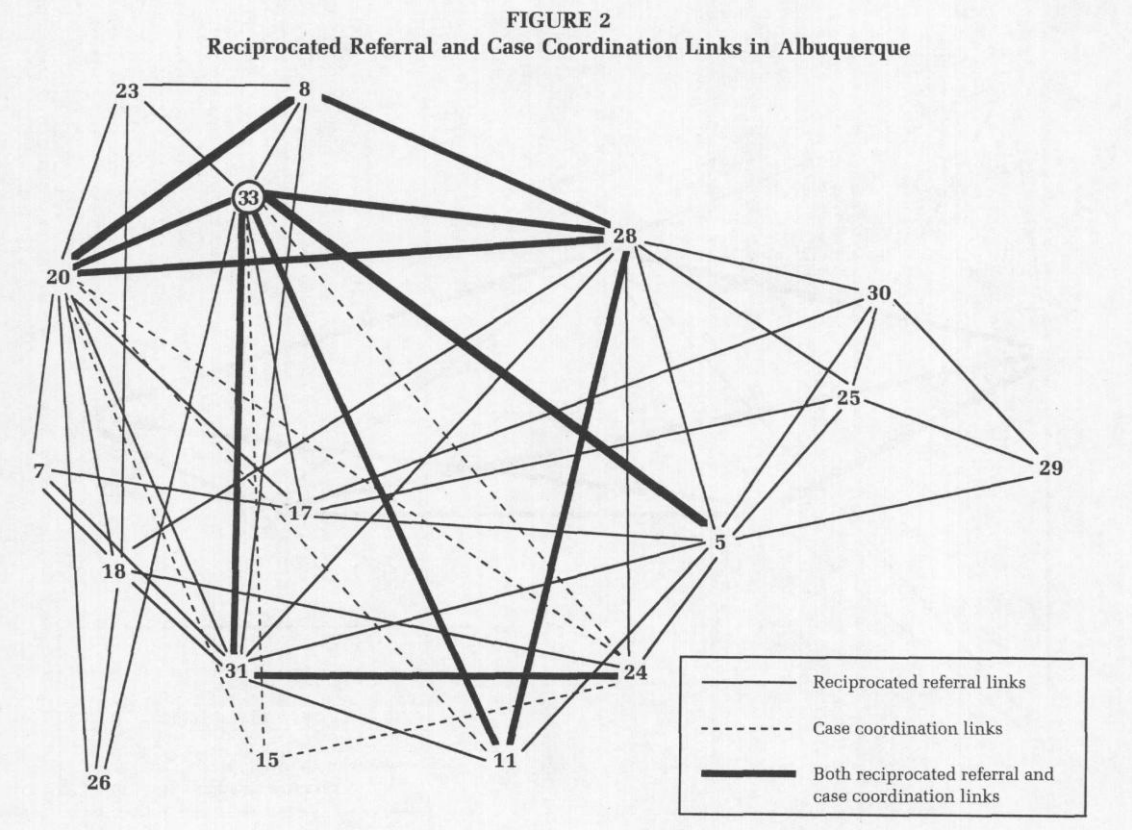


*Figure 2.2 Supply Chain Network (Pravon & Sebastian, 1998, p. 460).*

*Overlap* in this case takes into consideration the fact that supply chains are all part of a network where actors, activities and resources are interacting, interlinked and interconnected. Based on this, Hertz (2006) further notes that an *overlap of actors* may exist when the same actor is part of two supply chain networks. A cited example occurs when a firm sells its products through the same wholesaler or retailer or uses the same third-party logistics provider. In addition, an *overlap of resources* occurs when two different supply chain networks make use of the same resources, or the resources are very closely related between two supply chains. Furthermore, a similar definition of *overlap in activities* can be taken to mean 'creating or following the same routines or rules, creating new common activities, common co-ordination and control of resources' (Hertz, 2006, p. 210).

But as the studies of Provan and Sebastian (1998) reveal, 'overlap' also occurs at the level of small networks in the form of overlapping cliques among member firms or human service organizations within a network, through 'intensive integration', as opposed to just loosely trying to integrate entire networks; especially when these links in these cliques are useful to clients.

***Integration,*** an important change process in supply chain networks, is described as the degree of 'information sharing and involvement across functional areas' (Chen, Daugherty & Roath, 2009, p. 80). Hertz (2006) sees it as a transformation from loose co-operation to a higher level of internal fit involving a higher degree of synchronization between the partners in a supply chain.

Using a perspective which focuses on 'continuing processes of change in the degree of integration within and between networks', Hertz (2006, p. 208) discloses in the research findings that an overlap of actors, resources and activities between supply chains could seriously delay, hinder and increase costs to the process of integration in one chain (see Figure 2.3 below).

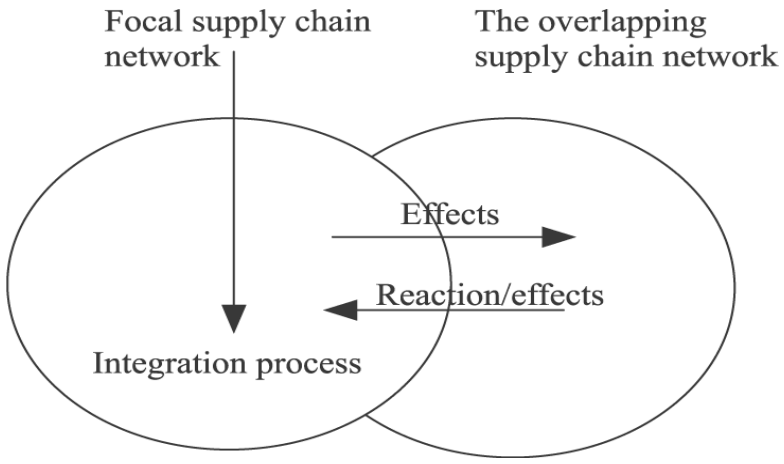


*Figure 2.3 Overlapping supply chain networks (Hertz, 2006, p. 211).*

Therefore, as the writer puts it, supply chain myopia or shortsightedness might instead result in increased total costs for a firm. As noted further, a trade-off exists between the costs of integration in the focal chain and increasing costs arising from decreased integration in overlapping supply chains. Thus, a failure to consider the negative effects and the resistance caused by delays and dissolving relationships within overlapping supply chains can be detrimental. This overlap between chains as noted can be both positive and negative, and can be reversed over time.

One of such positive factors of overlap comes during the early stages of a new business when it is possible to co-use resources and coordinate activities with other products or services. This ability to share same resources and activities for a new product or service reduces costs and helps in knowledge transfer. But over time, Hertz (2006) notes that developing new and more specialized supply chains becomes necessary for the business thanks to changes in customer demands or technology. Such a move towards specialization often results in decreased overlap and resistance to change from the overlapping chain.

However, in spite of the relevance of this study in x-raying the concept of overlapping supply chains and roles among supply chains, the researcher does not fail to highlight shortcomings like the work being limited to interaction between two supply chains, the

fact that ramifications of change in processes could have implications for more than one other supply chain due to interdependencies between supply chains and also the small sample size of three example. This last critique is viewed as 'a common problem when the unit of analysis is an organizational network' by Provan and Sebastian (1998, p. 461).

Although this research was carried out in business logistics, there exist practical implications for humanitarian supply chains as well. This means when changing existing or developing supply chains for new organizations, humanitarian players need to be aware about the effects and reactions of other chains. Integration between two chains might facilitate the development of business but may also actually hinder its future development, Hertz (2006) notes. Figure 2.4 shows how an increased integration within a network will result in decreased integration with another network.

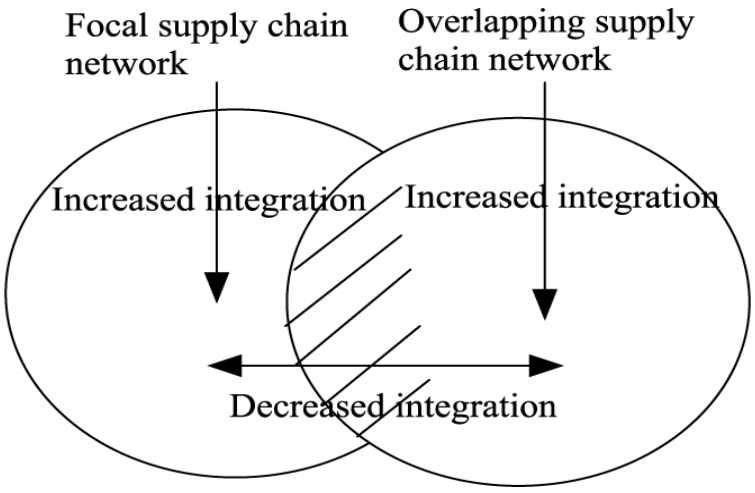


*Figure 2.4 Overlapping supply chain networks (Hertz, 2006, p. 214).*

## 2.3 Establishing a civil-military framework

In order to establish a civil-military framework, we need to identify the disagreements especially on issues of humanitarian principles.
Much of the analysis on barriers to effective civil–military cooperation has been traced to a simple 'lack of understanding' between the actors, exacerbated by cultural and organizational differences. The solution typically put forward, writes Barry and Jefferys (2002) involves more joint training and information-sharing, which is aimed at allowing the two sides to get to know each other better and acquire learning opportunities through such an alliance (Inkpen, 1998). Such an approach, in their view, casts civil–military cooperation primarily as a technical matter, putting the issues at stake as more to do with aligning their processes and working practices as a measure of improving assistance.
As George (2002) notes that in spite of the numerous instances of civil-military interaction, peace operations have witnessed fundamental points of divergence including absence of inter-organizational cooperation and proper coordination which has raised the specter of conflict.

The first of such cases concerns the principle of 'impartiality', with humanitarian agencies first and foremost committed and accountable to the people they are mandated to serve. This is a universal commitment central to all humanitarian policy decisions with the core principles of humanity, impartiality and independence (Carnegy, 2010).

Thus, the mandate of humanitarian agencies is to alleviate human suffering amongst those least able to withstand a disaster or complex emergency (Rietjens, Voordijk & De Boer, 2007). Such humanitarian activities must be clearly impartial and independent of political and military motivations, or they will run counter to the core principle of the humanitarian imperative that 'when we give humanitarian aid it is not a partisan or political act and should not be viewed as such' (Barry & Jefferys, 2002, citing Sphere, 2000). In a way, this explains why humanitarian assistance delivered by military forces can hardly be impartial because such an involvement will possibly be *in areas of political or strategic interest to the interested powers*.
However, as the paper notes, such deployments of UN and NATO peacekeeping missions are relatively few, with a presence only in less than a third of the 50 countries in conflict in the world. In contrast, aid agencies are active in a majority of countries in conflict.
The second issue on civil-military contact has to do with the questionable effectiveness of assistance as delivered by the military. The authors hold the view that there is inadequate evidence to support the argument that military involvement in humanitarian activity works; discounting the opinion that it is appropriate, cost-effective or even necessary. Such assistance from the military could be contemplated only in exceptional circumstances of humanitarian structures failing. This kind of preoccupation with humanitarian assistance issues has been criticized because it deviates from what might be regarded as the peacekeeping's primary function in a conflict zone which is to protect civilians from the effects of violence. As seen at various points in the past like Rwanda in 1994, Bosnia (Srebrenica) in July 1995, Zaire in 1996 or other cases of complex emergencies (Rietjens et al, 2007), these international forces have failed to protect civilian populations because they lacked the political will.

Given that the issue of viewing the military as a force for good in humanitarian assistance is unlikely to disappear anytime soon, Barry and Jefferys (2002) insist agencies should engage in efforts to 'define and clarify civil–military relationships in conflicts' while emphasizing certain standards and guidelines upon which the military implementation of such a humanitarian assistance would be based. The idea behind such an engagement is to disentangle humanitarian assistance from politics by reclaiming both humanitarian space and the core principles of impartiality, neutrality, independence and the humanitarian imperative.
Quick to highlight that this is not a shift towards humanitarian isolationism, Barry and Jefferys (2002) make it clear that this rather affirms a commitment to the principles and values enshrined in the Geneva Conventions and in the Red Cross Code of Conduct (IFRC, 1994).

### 2.3.1 Civil-military cooperation

Here, we will lay the groundwork for civil-military cooperation.

While there exists many questions concerning the roles of military forces and humanitarian actors in conflict situations and the relationship between them, *cooperation* has been singled out by Barry & Jefferys (2002) as a major feature of aid response. Against this *cooperation* background, a series of recommendations are put forward on creating a framework between humanitarian and the military actors.

Two of recommendations are of interest to us and include; the need to *realign the civil–military debate on people in need in a humanitarian response* and also the need to *establish a working agreement on a common language* between the humanitarian and military actors describing what they do.

Talking about *realigning the civil-military debate,* it is the responsibility of all within the international community to ensure the needs and rights of vulnerable people suffering in conflict and disaster regions are recognized and addressed. Tasks to be performed by actors will vary depending on nature of problems but will also include establishing security, delivery of assistance and development of basic institutions (George, 1998). Forces like peacekeepers usually have a mandate to implement the will of the international community, disarm rebel groups and ensure and continuity of the government (Rietjens et al, 2007).

At the heart of the debate about the role of different actors in humanitarian response and also civil–military relations should be the plight of these vulnerable people. Parties to such a debate are reminded about the primary responsibilities of humanitarian action, and also to reaffirm the key humanitarian principles. Barry and Jefferys (2002) issue a warning against classifying beneficiaries of humanitarian assistance merely as 'passive recipients of largesse' as this could go a long way towards undermining the principle of humanity.

Centered on the second recommendation is the need for an agreement on *common working language*. To begin with, Harris and Dombrowski (2002, p. 160) term the process where military forces and civilian aid agencies coming together to assist people during emergencies, 'military-civilian humanitarianism'.
As Barry and Jefferys (2002) note, 'humanitarian language quite literally defines humanitarian space'. This thus calls for clear and succinct definitions of core humanitarian concepts in the civil–military debate and without which, it will be difficult moving forward with the debate. Quoting Austen Davis, General Director of MSF Holland, the authors note that; *the word humanitarian needs to be carefully defined within this debate. Governments call political–military interventions "humanitarian". But civil agencies have a different definition of the word … even to the letter of the law* (p. 16).
In the light of this confusion, this paper further note, we must rather *agree to talk about: humanitarian intervention when referring to civilian action, military intervention when referring to military action, and to forget the fallacious slogans of military humanitarianism, and military-humanitarian interventions* (Barry & Jefferys, 2002, p. 16, citing Tanguy, 2000).
Humanitarian organizations are encouraged to go for a re-definition of the term 'humanitarian' which should be incorporated into military doctrine. The Swiss government – noted as the only government to confirm its commitment to humanitarian principles in domestic law – is used as an example to illustrate this point:

*States and military forces must avoid the use of the term humanitarian when their actions are motivated by political or military objectives, regardless of the benefits to the population. This includes the use of feeding, shelter and other services to legitimize the military mission, collect information, or enhance security* (Barry & Jefferys, 2002, p. 16, citing Lang, 2001).
Furthermore, there is need for clarity on some key concepts among civilian agencies themselves. An example is the misinterpretation of the principle of impartiality.

The political definition of impartiality contrasts sharply with that of humanitarian agencies with humanitarians defining impartiality as an obligation to deliver aid simply on the basis of need, notwithstanding the race, creed or nationality.
Common language is made easier if both organizations have a similar structure, George (2002) adds.

In addition to the two framework recommendations outlined above, the Barry and Jefferys (2002) outline the need for clear agreement between military and humanitarian organizations based on specific *principles of engagement* or *terms of engagement*. This section describes proposed guidelines that could be used to govern relations between the military and humanitarian organizations within a conflict zone. This includes three fundamental principles.
First, humanitarian organizations take the first place when it comes to humanitarian work while the role of the military is 'subsidiary' as Rietjens et al (2007) put it. Thus humanitarian work should be performed by humanitarian organizations (OCHA, 2001).
Second, civilian humanitarian agencies can never operate under military command, a rule aimed at guaranteeing the core principle of independence.
Third, according to humanitarian agencies, the primary aim of military forces should be to establish and maintain order and security, protect civilians and facilitate a comprehensive settlement of the conflict.

**Cooperation in 'general' and 'exceptional circumstances'**

As Barry and Jefferys (2002) write, it is inappropriate for the military to perform humanitarian activities in *general circumstances*, that is, in a situation where humanitarian agencies are enough present and capable of addressing humanitarian needs.
Humanitarian projects like repairs of schools and clinics, that the military might undertake, are often seen as 'hearts and minds' (Mills, 2005, p. 165) operations aimed at ensuring community goodwill, maintaining positive media coverage and sustaining staff morale. They are seen as activities intended to ensure military success and not humanitarian assistance based on community needs and priorities.
On the other hand, as Stockton (2002) points out in the case of Afghanistan, under International Humanitarian Law, the role of military personnel is recognized and equally primary responsibility is conferred on the Occupying or Protecting Power for the provision of essential relief supplies in the affected region. In act, only as a last resort would other organizations be called up to help, that is after the Red Cross.

While it is generally inappropriate for the military to directly implement humanitarian activities, as we saw above, however, there may be rare circumstances when the scale of humanitarian need overwhelms agencies thus requiring short-term military assistance.

Two principal areas are identified by Harris and Dombrowski (2002), where civil-military collaboration can occur and this includes *security* and *logistics* (which involves provision of physical protection), resources like transportation, control, evacuation support, training, and information and threat assessment support.
Barry and Jefferys (2002) notes that there are certain *exceptional circumstances* under which military or civil defense resources can be employed under a humanitarian crisis but on condition that the following criteria are met:
• the military are a means of last resort: there is no other humanitarian option, and the absence of assistance would result in unacceptable human suffering.
Barney (1999) adds to this idea by employing a transactions cost economics concept as a means of determining a firm's boundary. A firm 'can cooperate with firms that already possess the capabilities it needs' (Barney, 1999, p.140) or agencies can join networks to lower operating costs and gain competitive advantage (Provan & Sebastian, 1998).
• there is a significant level of need, as determined by civilian agencies, including the UN;
• assets and interventions must always remain under civilian control; and
• military interventions are always clearly time bound.

**Military protection and assistance in humanitarian activities**

As Harris and Dombrowski (2002) point out, not much study has been carried out to reconcile the longstanding differences on how the military and humanitarian organizations approach each other. One of such differences is in the area of providing protection for NGOs. As the article further notes, any attempt to protect aid workers by the military, during a humanitarian crisis, could prove counter-productive as it would make their jobs difficult and put the lives of the locals in jeopardy.
As a rule of thumb, humanitarian agencies do not use armed protection because it compromises their impartiality principle (Barry & Jefferys, 2002). This is made more acute, the authors note, if such a protection is not given by a 'neutral force'. However, as Harris & Dombrowski (2002) highlight, military protection can be as part of the 'military-civilian humanitarianism' and also accepted only under extreme circumstances and on condition that some guidelines (OCHA, 2001; ICRC, 1995) are fulfilled:
• The decision to request or accept military or armed escorts must be made by humanitarian organizations, and not political or military authorities, based solely on humanitarian criteria.
• Parties to the conflict –peacekeeping forces included– should not be used.
• The sovereign power or local authorities are unwilling or unable to provide a secure environment in which humanitarian organizations can operate.
• The use of such an armed or military escort does not compromise: the impartiality of humanitarian organizations; the security of the affected civilian population; and the long-term capacity of the organization to safely and effectively fulfill its mandate.

But when it comes to the use of military help as the Afghanistan example revealed (Stockton, 2002), the independence of many NGOs and other humanitarian organizations was thrown into doubt when they received food aid and funding from the US and UK governments; a move which imperiled the neutrality of these humanitarian organizations.

Harris & Dombrowski (2002) concludes the debate on providing protection for NGOs by stating that one extreme option remains the privatization of security, which is not viable. But other initiatives includes boosting the capability of the military to provide security for NGO personnel, opening up secure 'humanitarian corridors' for the delivery of aid to affected people under what it calls 'tourniquet operations', creation of a 'rapid deployment brigade' and other 'peace support operations'.

**Information sharing**

This is the last and also very crucial element of the civil-military framework because it constitutes the very basis of cooperation; information. In a measure towards enhancing integration, agencies can engage formally or informally through information exchange or sharing or resources (Pravon & Sebastian, 1998, George, 2002). Generally, certain types of information can and should be shared between humanitarian agencies and the military. But, there is a need to clearly define what piece of information should and should not be shared because during conflict situations, such information could have a military or political value. As stated in by Barry & Jefferys (2002), information-sharing could be acceptable based on the following:

- security conditions affecting the humanitarian situation;
- conditions in shared space (transport, aid movements and common-use airfields, for instance); and
- general estimates about the scope of the emergency.

As a point of caution, the Barry & Jefferys (2002) conclude the paper by stating that information should not be shared if it could, in any way, endanger communities, risk staff security or compromise the neutrality of humanitarian agencies. This echoes a IFRC/NGO pledge: *We will never knowingly – or through negligence –allow ourselves, or our employees, to be used to gather information of a political, military or economically sensitive nature for governments or other bodies that may serve purposes other than those which are strictly humanitarian, nor will we act as instruments of foreign policy of donor governments* (IFRC, 1994, Point 4).

## 2.4 Disaster cycle

Disaster management comprises four stages, according to Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b), namely Mitigation, Preparedness, Response and Rehabilitation. And the focus of their study is on the preparedness and response stages which are in a way connected in that, preparedness addresses the strategy put in place allowing for the implementation of a successful operational response. Figure 2.5 best explains this cyclical flow.

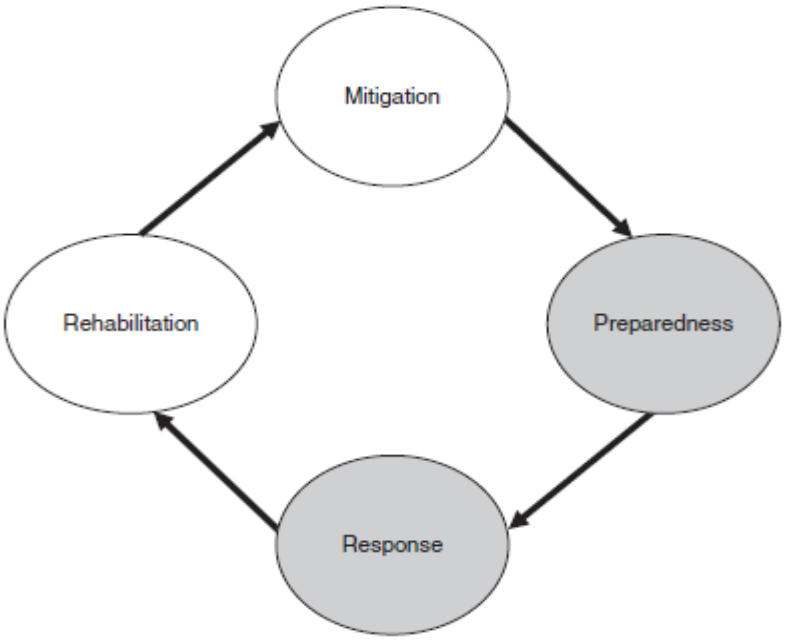


*Figure 2.5 Disaster management cycle (Tomasini & Wassenhove, 2009b, p. 45).*

Meanwhile, Tatham (2009) in a comparative case study presents one of the many models dwelling on phases of Disaster Relief which typically includes Preparation, Response and Rehabilitation (Kovács & Tatham, 2009). The author opts for a more complex model, which includes Disaster and Emergency Phases (Figure 2.6).

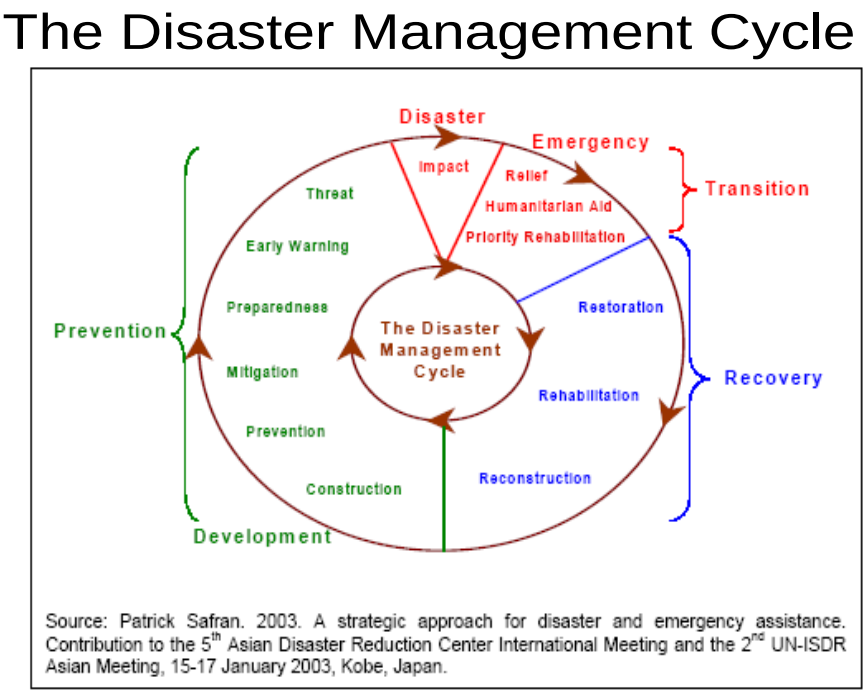


*Figure 2.6 The Disaster Management Cycle (Patrick Safran, 2003, cited in Tatham 2009, p. 8).*

*Mitigation*, which is one of the phases of the Disaster Management Cycle model, is described by McLachlin et al (2009, p. 1052) as 'recovering after the interruption has occurred'. Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b) explains that this phase tackles 'the proactive social component of emergencies' which is defined by laws and mechanisms aimed at curbing the vulnerability of the population and boosting their resilience. An illustrative example is ensuring homes are built in areas less prone to disasters while preventing them from causing disasters, by issuing building restrictions.

*Preparedness*, another phase in the process, simply means putting in place 'response mechanisms' to counter factors that society has not been able to mitigate. The explanation is that in spite of mitigation structures like codes, regulations and restrictions (Kovacs & Tatham, 2009), the prospect of disasters cannot be nullified. This thus explains why cities have a fire department which needs to be prepared and have the logistical capability at all times to respond and attend to such complex disasters wherever it happens.

*Responsiveness* is preceded by the gathering and diffusion of information (Chandes& Paché, 2010). In addition to this *response* capability, accurate data on demand and might not come handy during such a relief operation thus putting stress on people, resources and organizational capability.

*Rehabilitation* comes on the heels of *response*, and describes a phase where a society and its surviving institutions and infrastructure, tries to restore some kind of normality to the lives of victims. As explained, this will not be an issue of reclaiming the status quo, which showed its vulnerability to disasters, but an improved situation which incorporates lessons from the previous crisis. For this to happen, Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009a) propose the creation of a 'repository of data to analyze post-event learning'.

Making a point that this phase is a gradual process, Stone (2006, p. 14) cautions the media and public that this stage is going to take time and some of the changes might be 'invisible to the camera'.

**Preparedness & Response effectiveness and Triple-A strategy**

Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b) have been able to construct 'five key building blocks' necessary to generate effective results and this constitutes Human Resources, Knowledge Management, Logistics, Financial Resources and Community.

Using the IFRC as case study, a framework interconnecting all five blocks together was built, corresponding to the five flows of material, information, finance, people and knowledge (Figure 2.7). These blocks form the basis of any preparedness strategy and response.

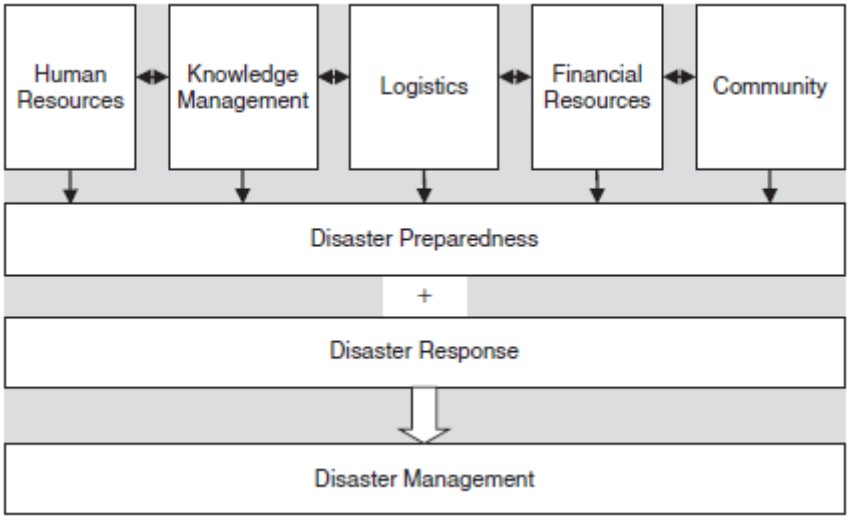


*Figure 2.7 Building blocks of replacement (Tomasini and Wassenhove, 2009b, p. 47).*

Human resources, one of the blocks, is made up of well selected and trained people. A focus on this human resource phase of preparedness ensures the best people are trained and kept when the need arises.

Also, knowledge management, another block in the preparedness process, learning from previous disasters in all its forms (capturing, codifying, transferring knowledge about logistics operations) takes place. This could be combined with human resources to boost competence and specialization of staff.

Skills in logistics are vital in operations like that of IFRC and WFP programs. This calls for new strategies and new logistics functions from procurement through warehouse management to reporting.

Adequate financial resources during the post-disaster stage and preparedness phase are vital during emergencies. Finance during humanitarian crisis is a function of donors and the more visibility the issue is given through the media, the more donors are ready to make donations (Kovacs & Tatham, 2009). In addition, donation can equally come in terms of products and materials, and not only finances.

The community block is all about ensuring effective collaboration with other stakeholders of the humanitarian ecosystem.

Lee (2004) makes a strong point that supply chains mainly concerned about boosting speed and cost will eventually fail. The article proposes an ideal Triple-A supply chain as a key to success. This Triple-A strategy advocates the creation of supply chains which are Agile, Adaptable and Aligned (Figure 2.8). It is only on the building blocks of a ‘strong preparedness strategy which drives response effectiveness’ that such a Triple-A supply chain is developed (Tomasini & Wassenhove, 2009b).

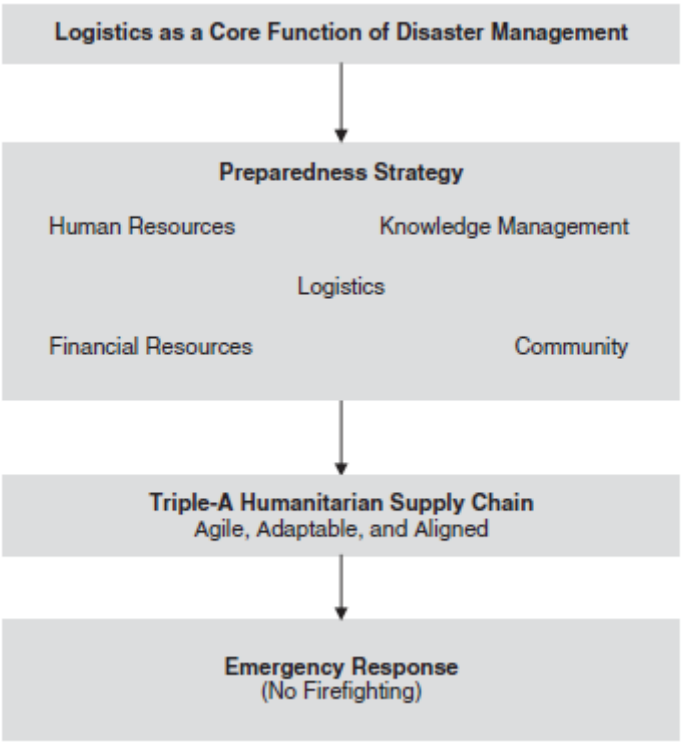


*Figure 2.8 Preparedness drives response effectiveness (Tomasini & Wassenhove, 2009b, p. 59).*

As Lee (2004) further explains, based on the three elements of the Triple-A strategy, a supply chain will be able to respond to abrupt market changes, adapt their supply networks to markets or strategic changes and align the interests of other supply chain partners with theirs. All these three components only work effectively together.

This is the strategy upon which the IFRC was able to successfully build their Triple-A humanitarian chain.

Through this, Tomasini and Wassenhove (2009b) note, an effective response can be generated through infusing tactical and cultural methods into the preparedness strategy. This helps to avoid a situation of unpreparedness otherwise referred to as 'firefighting mode'.

In spite of the good intentions of civil agencies like IFRC, Rietjens et al (2007, p. 57) cite the absence of a 'universally agreed, multilateral or interdisciplinary concept of response to complex emergencies'.

**Needs Assessment**

Before the preparedness and response phases in a humanitarian disaster is the *Needs Assessment* requirement.

Needs assessment can be defined as 'the systematic collection of information that describes the severity of a disaster and the human needs that require immediate action' (von Schreeb, 2007). This term also has several acronyms according to von Screeb

(2007) including Rapid Health Assessment, Rapid Epidemiological Assessment, Rapid Initial Assessment and Rapid Needs Assessment. As the author explains further, the emphasis on 'rapid' could mean that information collection and its interpretation is done rapidly and also that assessment is carried out rapid after the disaster event.

The essence of needs assessments, the researcher argues, is to determine whether outside help is needed and define the type of required assistance, provide information to donors that will help them allocate funds based on needs of the affected population and provide information which will serve as baseline data.

With the primary area of study being humanitarian health assistance, von Schreeb (2007) notes the crucial role that needs assessments plays on humanitarian assistance donor funding policies. While making a point to note the discrepancy that comes up between such donor funding policies and actual donor practice, the author blames it more on 'insufficiently defined policy' than bad practice as such. For a proper interpretation of the needs assessments results, there is need to understand the socio-economic context in the affected country and noteworthy is the fact that a number of middle-income countries do have considerable capacities to handle such disasters. The researcher notes that such a capacity must be taken into consideration when designing an international humanitarian assistance.

## 2.5 Organizational structure and coordination mechanisms

In this section, we will examine a case for polycentric versus monocentric organizational structures, humanitarian versus military models, coordination mechanisms and coordinating humanitarian operations theories.

### 2.5.1 Humanitarian versus military models

In their discourse on resource configurations of humanitarian and military organizations, and their ability to respond to disruptions, Kovács and Tatham (2009), point out that while the former focuses on aid delivery, the latter engages in war and peacekeeping operations. Working through the lens of Resource Based View (RBV), a comparison is made on the resource allocation of the military and humanitarian organizations.

**Military model**

As observed, the resource configuration of this model (Figure 2.9) stresses on resource investments (physical, organizational and human capital) especially assets such as equipment and training and a rigid command organizational structure. A core element noted in this model is the emphasis on training during this dormant state but during the response phase, serious challenges are witnessed in the area of coordination with other organizations, distance from crisis area and the accompanying logistical constraints in moving equipments and also knowledge of the terrain; factors which could all result in disruption of the response phase.

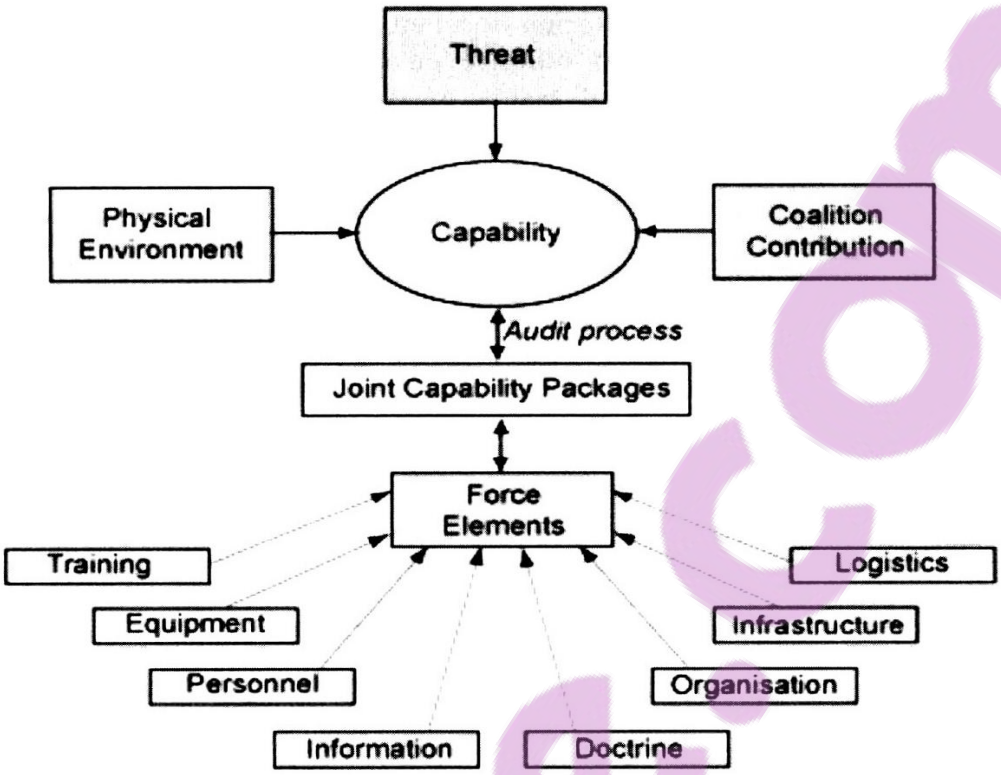


*Figure 2.9 Lines of development in a military model (Kovacs & Tatham, 2009, p. 219).*

**Humanitarian model**

On the other hand, the resource configuration of a humanitarian model dwells on a principle of 'internalizing' all resources from the humanitarian aid supply network either by pooling resources across humanitarian organizations or contracts with suppliers. As opposed to the military model, it is 'asset light' or has fewer resources and has a great ability to manage its resources externally until disaster strikes before these resources are internalized. This 'externalization' scheme works best in the management of physical capital resources with special measures and tools put in place like Vendor Managed Inventory postponement strategy, framework contracts (like that between WFP and TNT) and location of resources close to disaster prone regions. As Kovacs and Tatham (2009) explain further, under this model, the core competence lies in managing relationships with other actors and employing postponement strategies both for products and also for human resources like logisticians and specialists. In stark contrast to the military model, there is lack of emphasis on employee training here.

A comparison of these two models in their dormant states through RBV is captured in the diagram below (Table 2.1).

*Table 2.1 Humanitarian and military models: a comparison (Kovacs & Tatham, 2009)*

**AREAS OF DIFFERENCE**

| Resources | Military model | Humanitarian model |
|---|---|---|
| Physical capital resources | - Relative abundance of materials and equipment due to focus on preparation "just in case"<br>- Internal resources: importance of individual ownership<br>- Location in country of origin or at allies' site | - Lack of own materials<br>- External resources: focus on supplier relations (vendor managed inventory, capacity reservation systems), postponement of ownership<br>- Pooling of resources<br>- Location close to disaster-prone areas |
| Human capital resources | - Emphasis on own training of personnel<br>- Focus on the knowledge of the doctrine | - Mapping potentially available personnel from other organisations<br>- In-sourcing personnel from external resources<br>- Focus on local knowledge |
| Organisational capital resources | - Command and control structure<br>- Focus on hierarchy<br>- Codified internal processes (doctrine)<br>- Limited interoperability | - Case-based structure (disruption / programme based)<br>- Establishment of common standards<br>- Co-ordination with other actors |

Apart from the areas of differences highlighted above, there also exist some similarities between the two models.

Both of them are designed to manage large scale disruptions and also operate in an area with damaged infrastructure and failing organs of the state. In addition, there is a lot of media and public interest in their actions. Also, they are both classed as non-profit organizations and depend on the largesse of financial benefactors.

As George (2002) notes, similarities in organizational structure of armed forces and NGOs, like those cited above, may in fact rather facilitate cooperation by making communication much easier.

### 2.5.2 Polycentric versus monocentric coordination model

Rietjens et al (2007) note that given the numerous needs to be fulfilled during humanitarian operations and many humanitarian actors, the absence of a proper coordination mechanism will result in wastage of resources, duplication of effort and, as Chandes and Paché (2010, p. 326) explain, unnecessary competition and 'squandering of resources'. Stephenson and Schnitzer (2009) go further to argue that humanitarian relief crises at the international level have for long been shrouded in lack of proper oversight and coordination. As realized, the service delivery structure of humanitarian relief is very complex in organizational terms with no one body able to coordinate or dictate the activities of other actors. It is the absence of a single entity that administratively controls international relief efforts that there has been calls for the United Nations to institute such a

body, a move which resulted in the setting up of OCHA, which the authors of this piece describe as a *softer form of coordinating authority*.
It is against the background of this dilemma of coordination that Stephenson and Schnitzer (2009) propose a polycentric social system. According to this study, such a polycentric system must meet three principal and one other criteria which includes;

• having many autonomous units formally independent of one another;
• choosing to act in ways that take account of others; and
• using processes of cooperation, competition, conflict, and conflict resolution (p. 922).
In addition, such a system depends on a structure of mutually agreed rules.

However, as noted, many of these groups are split on what rules will guide their behavior with an example being the split between US NGOs and their European partners who subscribe to the Wilsonian and Dunantist (Carnegy, 2010) traditions respectively.

A polycentric order thus operates best based on the 'rules of association' in which the different organizations agree to interact. In a nutshell, the current humanitarian relief environment fails to meet all the criteria stated in the polycentric order; which is the ability for all parties to agree upon a system of rules in which they take part in developing and enforcing. It is only after this that the benefits of this framework can be attained.

But as Chandes and Paché (2010), one great challenge of coordination is the number of different stakeholders with different sizes, natures and modes.

On the issue of fissures among actors in the international nongovernmental community of actors, the authors advocate a dialogue through avenues like InterAction, the Steering Committee for Humanitarian Response, the International Council of Voluntary Agencies, and Voluntary Organizations in Cooperation in Emergencies, as a measure aimed at reinforcing the understanding of participants about their environment and provide them with a mechanism through which to secure full benefits of the polycentric order.

While polycentrism depicts conditions on the humanitarian relief environment, the authors argue that 'sensemaking' may be a useful tool in describing how organizational participants act within this environment at the operating level. Relief organizations are encouraged to actively practice adaptive management and guard against too rigid institutionalization of their operating routines to avoid the frequently reductive character of such processes.

While learning is critical to successful relief operations, it is argued, these must include opportunities for 'extrainstitutional and nonauthoritative' individuals and groups to air their concerns.

Finally, in spite of its almost chaotic character, organizational and network changes are still possible in the humanitarian relief environment. Learning and change, the paper goes on, are feasible during moments of happenings, the status quo disrupted or when otherwise differing institutional actors align to consider a challenge in an alternate way. Polycentrism and sensemaking heighten such a possibility when it's well understood and self-consciously acted upon by relevant organizational representatives, the paper concludes.
At the end of the day, Rietjens et al (2007) are keen to make a point that civil-military co-ordination is much more dependent on the personalities involved rather than on planning and standard operating procedures.

This idea of a decentralized system of coordinating projects in the humanitarian sector is picked up by Huesemann (2006) who notes that decentralization and decision making are just as important when coordinating NGOs.

### 2.5.3 Working models

Although the polycentric model illustrates a feasible organizational structure for collaboration mechanism, it fails to identify other elements which play an equally indispensable role in realizing effective cooperation between humanitarian organizations and the military. To this end, we find it necessary to propose two working models that incorporate elements essential in establish a framework where civil-military cooperation can be made possible.

#### 2.5.3.1 Model 1: Information sharing and processing model

A flaw identifiable from the polycentric model above is the absence of an information processing system. To threw more light on the complexity of coordination in a humanitarian crisis situation, Stephenson (2006, p. 45) notes that;

*…no single player in humanitarian aid scenarios, including the UNOCHA, can command either the affected national governments or proto governments (such as may exist in instances of civil war), the array of UN entities, or the many INGOs and NGOs operative in these situations to behave in specific ways'.*

Emphasizing the importance of information sharing in the humanitarian sector, Huesemann (2006, p. 277) notes that 'sharing information on their activities is one way in which agencies can save money and time, by avoiding duplication of efforts achieved elsewhere, and helping them to find partners with whom they can pool funds and expertise'.

As Rietjens et al (2007) point out; stakeholders will use different coordination mechanisms under complex emergencies. The four cited mechanisms are self contained tasks, vertical relations, slack resources and (vertical) information systems.

But as the authors point out, self contained tasks and vertical relations are the most popular with humanitarian organizations. Self contained tasks, which is quite popular during peace support missions give stakeholders an opportunity to operate in so called 'self contained entities' where they can set their own agenda and work under their own policies. Vertical relations, on the other hand, are used by actors to deploy liaison personnel to work with humanitarian organizations, military forces and local authorities.

Although these coordination mechanisms do have demerits, we will use self contained tasks and vertical relations mechanisms as the major tools in conjunction with a polycentric coordination model to formulate our own research model.

As Rietjens et al (2007) note, the key to boosting the information processing capacity is by increasing the sources of information and strengthening civil-military liaison relations.

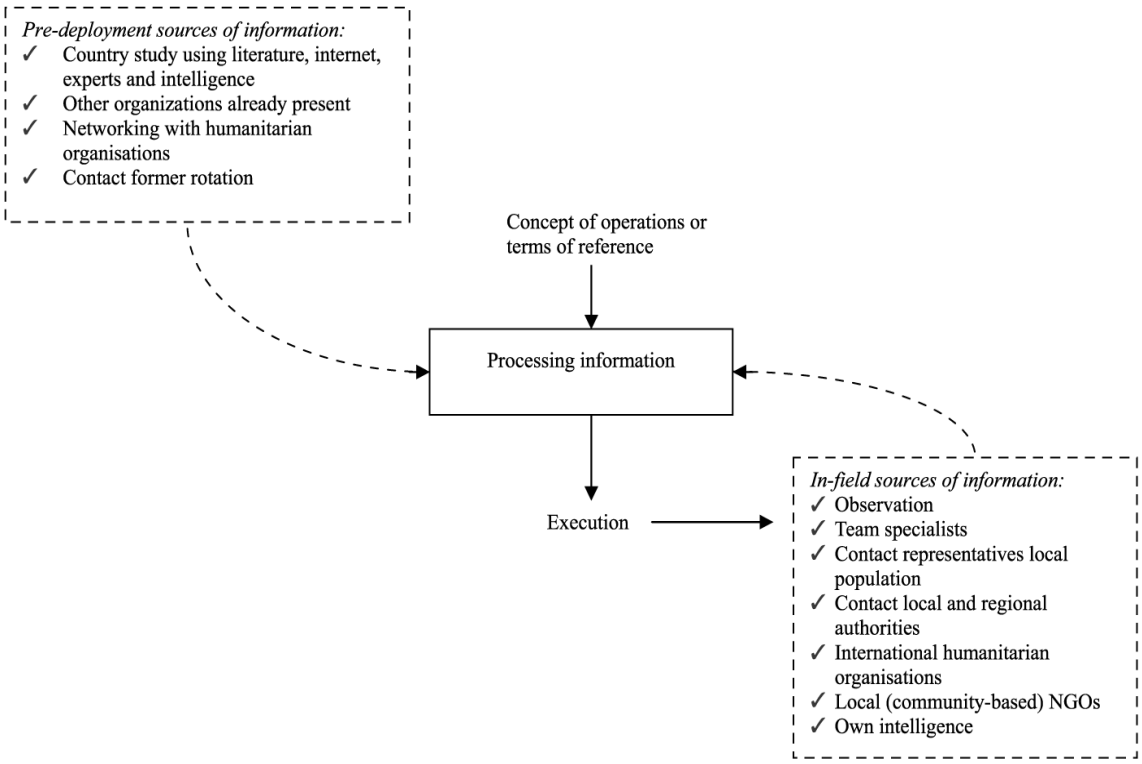


*Figure 2.10 Collecting and processing information under a polycentric setting (Rietjens et al, 2007, p. 66)*

As the model above (Figure 2.10) shows, a polycentric humanitarian structure with a good information system and viable lateral relations sets the stage for NGOs and military forces to carry out their respective self contained tasks and still communicate with each other.

With the addition of an information system exchange interface and the element of trust, this model should work not only for civil-military relations, but also for civil-civil relations.

The platform that will host this model NGO-military information sharing and cooperation interface will be a virtual organization which takes the form of a hub. This platform will serve as a hub for relief chain members 'to share documents, communicate action plans, and improve mutual coordination' (Chandes & Paché, 2010). Relying on the information interface we highlighted above, this hub will link all the chain members together and offer end to end effective cross-organizational information sharing.

Nevertheless, this proposed model doesn't take account of trust, cooperation, and coordination, which to a large degree determines the viability of a cooperative relationship. However the model above only goes far enough in setting down the foundation upon which to build trust, cooperation and carry out meaningful coordination. Therefore, we will present another model which better captures these missing elements.

#### 2.5.3.2 Model 2: Trust, coordination and polycentric network model

There exists a complex relationship between cooperation, trust and coordination.

*Realistically, therefore, long-term cooperation must result from the development among networks of joint capacities to act and thereafter to develop trust and mutual confidence at multiple levels of interaction. That trust and confidence will, in turn, sustain and provide fertile ground for continued interactions and ultimately for successful coordination of organizational activities* (Stephenson, 2006, p. 47).

In order for staffs of different institutions to develop relationships across their organizational boundaries, as Stephenson (2006) points out, there needs to exist 'mutual trust among network participants' and the key to this is *frequent, mutually beneficial communication and action*.

When it concerns humanitarian relief operations, especially rapidly evolving disasters in an uninterrupted and fluid environment, "hastily formed networks" (Ben-Shalom, Lehrer & Ben-Ari, 2005; Denning, 2006; Tatham & Kovács, 2009) usually spring into existence. Some salient characteristics of hastily formed network include its short-term nature, "quick formation" (Tatham et al., 2009) and the absence of "the potential for prior arrangements including systematic mechanisms" (Lu & Yang, 2007). In an operational context such as this, the significance of cooperation and coordination among different actors can be justified by the desperate need for a rapid and effective response to the disasters including the negative effects of inefficiencies resulting from overlapping roles of stakeholders. To fulfill this ambition, trust serves as a precondition for assorted organizations working towards one common goal.

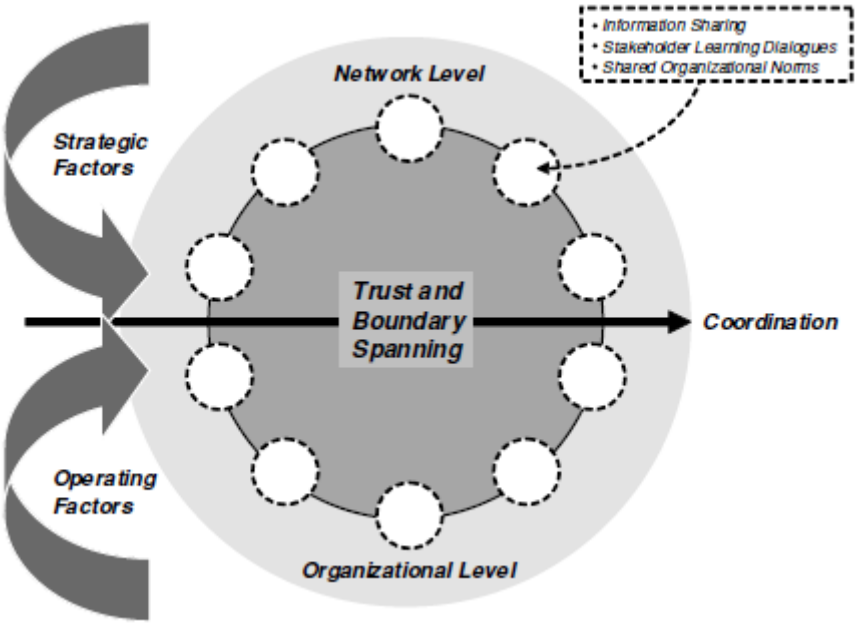


*Figure 2.11 Trust and information sharing in humanitarian network (Stephenson, 2006)*

As the diagram above (Figure 2.11) shows, the most rudimentary form of coordination can only take place when there is mutual trust and sustained interaction and subsequent information exchange with other actors in the network involved in the aid process and outcomes. The product of the two ingredients of trust and interaction combined is cooperation.

### 2.5.4 Summary of theoretical framework

In a nutshell, we started this chapter by putting forward some textbook definitions of terms which will be used in our study, and also formulating certain operational definitions to suit the context of this research work. Definitions like these go a long way towards delimiting the scope of our study and giving the reader a right context of understanding.

Next, we looked at the different ways in which supply chains overlap within a network with keen interest on how the roles of different supply chain actors change over time and the impact it would have on integration within the supply chain.

Against this background of overlapping roles and resources in supply chain networks, we set forth to establish a civil-military framework. We started off with background studies on differences between civil and military organizations especially in areas of principles, mandate and divergent views on engagement in humanitarian operations.

After this, groundwork for civil-military cooperation was laid out. At the heart of this debate is how to realign the civil-military debate on end users in need of humanitarian assistance, agreement on common language and principles of engagement during a crisis. In addition, there is an attempt to make a clear cut distinction between civil-military cooperation under ‘general’ and ‘exceptional circumstances’.

Another aspect of interest discussed is the complex issue of information sharing or exchange between civil and military actors.

With the study largely focused on disasters, models and theories related to disaster cycle and phases of disaster are treated. An emphasis is placed on building a framework which pushes for an effective preparedness and response strategy and also, the place of ‘needs assessment’ is examined.

More so, the last part of this chapter, which dwells on organizational structures and coordination mechanisms, begins by making a comparative study between humanitarian and military models, before making a case for a polycentric over a monocentric coordination model.

We conclude the chapter by proposing working models which would serve the purpose of a civil-military cooperation framework where the goal of having a ‘strategic fit’ among stakeholders could be achieved.

Instead of one, we ended up presenting two working models above. The reason why we did not rely solely on either one of them is that they both have limitations in the coverage of needed aspects in a cooperation framework. Concretely, while the information sharing and processing model does complement a shortcoming of polycentric structure by including the emphasis on information sharing, it lacks the consideration of trust, cooperation and coordination. Whereas the second working model represents these elements, it fails to identify the polycentrism as a key component.

Drawing conclusion from the framework of references, by combining these two proposed working models, the elements that are necessary for the cooperative civil-military relationship during a humanitarian crisis encompass information processing and sharing, polycentrism, mutual trust, cooperation and collaboration. Strategic fit, therefore, can only be attained when all these elements are present in a collaborative network.

# 3 Methodology

*This chapter provides a description of research approach and strategy we adopted in order to address the research questions formulated in our thesis. The reasons why we chose one over the other are explained. A further discussion about the selection of our respondents is presented. The issue of validity and reliability has also been taken into consideration.*

## 3.1 Research Approach

We conducted our study based on an inductive approach. As the core approaches in western research traditions (Kovacs & Spens, 2005), deduction and induction explore the relationship between theory and research in opposite directions. Specifically, the deductive approach can be viewed as revolving around the idea that collection and analysis of data is conducted in relation to the hypothesis which is deduced from theory and will be subject to empirical testing. In stark contrast to deductive approach which moves from the general to the specific, induction operates from the specific to the general (Adams, Khan, Raeside & White, 2007). Concretely, inductive method is depicted as a process in which theory is drawn from extensive research and empirical observations.

Although inductive analysis was found to be the most suitable for this thesis, our study also involved deductive element since in practice the research methods can develop and change during the course of investigation with new theoretical ideas being found or as a result of data not fitting original assumptions (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

We gained certain knowledge about the chosen topic from existing theories in humanitarian logistics, based on which the research questions were formulated and a more comprehensive understanding was obtained. Although the theories adopted in our study were already determined before the research process, at later stages it was found that the frame of reference didn't match our empirical findings perfectly. Therefore, an iterative process was called for to further refine the theoretical framework based on the general conclusions drawn from empirical information.

## 3.2 Research Strategy

The research strategy we adopted for our thesis contains the elements of qualitative approach.

Whereas quantitative approach places an emphasis on measurement and the collection of numerical data, qualitative method allows us to develop theory from our empirical findings with a focus on meanings expressed through words and descriptive details (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In this regard, we found that qualitative research method would be more suitable for our study since we are aiming to give a comprehensive description of the role each stakeholder plays respectively during a humanitarian logistics crisis situation and explore the possibility for coordination. Besides, qualitative approach attaches great importance to the context in which a specific group operates in. This nature will also contribute to our ideal of understanding the behavior of the players in humanitarian arena.

Quantitative strategy, though sometimes is combined with qualitative method in one way or another, will not be employed in our research since its focus on statistical and quantified procedures wouldn't help us reveal the perception of the variables in a specific relationship.

It is worthwhile noting that there are some critical aspects of a qualitative research method that should be emphasized.

The most prominent problem of qualitative research method would be its time-consuming nature. As we will discuss in the following sections, it is not uncommon that qualitative approach involves personal interview, which often requires considerable input of time and effort to find and get access to the right respondents. Such difficulties may lead to a limited number of respondents, making the representativeness of the sample problematic.

Another aspect that deserves our consideration with qualitative research is its subjectivity. Unlike quantitative strategy which makes use of statistical analysis and offers a great assurance of objectivity (Thiétart, 2001), qualitative findings largely 'rely on the researcher's often unsystematic views' by the use of non-numerical data (Bryman & Bell, 2007, p. 423). Moreover, since qualitative approach usually takes an open-ended way, the outcome might be influenced to some extent by the researchers' characteristics and perspectives or the way in which the research is carried out.

## 3.3 Primary Data Collection

As the purpose of this thesis is to examine how the roles of NGOs and military forces overlap during humanitarian crisis and explore the opportunities for better cooperation and coordination, we decided to take open-ended individual interviews with major humanitarian players as the principal means to collect primary data.

### 3.3.1 Interview

Business research interviews may take different forms encompassing personal interview, telephone interview and computer-assisted interview with the help of internet.

Face-to-face interviews have been the focus of our research. By conducting personal interviews we were enabled to have control of the interviews and be more flexible since we could adjust our pre-determined questions based on the interviewees' answers as the interview proceeded. In this sense, the risk of information loss as in telephone interviews was reduced. Most importantly, by interviewing in person, a position of trust and closer rapport would be established, thereby minimizing the risk of being declined on some requests and facilitating the attainment of detailed insight into the topic of our interest.

In this thesis, apart from the personal interviews we conducted with the Swedish Red Cross in Jönköping and Göteborg, email interviews were also carried out with MSF and Nordic Defense Force with several follow-up interviews being made by telephone. Granted, both telephone and email interviews have salient drawbacks in limiting an exploratory discuss in an open-ended research and adversely affecting the researcher's interpretation of the respondent's answers. They also promise certain advantages like cost and time saving, 'ease of geographic coverage' (Adams et al., 2007, p. 149) which make them more suitable in circumstances where first contacts with respondents are established but further face-to-face interviews are not allowed, as in the case of MSF and the

Nordic Force.

### 3.3.2 Semi-structured interview

Broadly speaking, interviews take place in a quantitative setting are more structured than those in a qualitative context. Since a structured interview has an explicit focus on the researcher's concerns and standardization of both questions and answers, the adoption of such an approach would allow the reduction of variability associated with an interview, thereby contributing to the reliability and validity of measurement which is considered as an inherent requirement of quantitative research. In contrast, interviewers in qualitative research attach great importance to the interviewee's point of view. As a result, the standardization of interviewing process is compromised to ensure a certain degree of flexibility by allowing the researchers to adjust their questions according to the interviewees' replies.

According to Bryman & Bell (2007), unstructured and the semi-structured interview are two main types of interview associated with qualitative research. Therefore, we need to distinguish between these two approaches in order to select the suitable one to conduct the interview. An unstructured interview is conducted without a pre-determined list of specific questions. Instead, minimized number of questions, sometimes only one, will be raised with the attempt to trigger the most flexible answers from the interviewees. A semi-structured interview, however, starts out with fairly specific topics followed by a list of questions, the order of which can be varied by the interviewers with the interviewees' responses. This approach turned out to be suitable for our study on account of the fact that it not only allowed us to have control over the interviewing process but also provided the interviewees with the possibility to contribute their understanding and perceptions.

Since we already have a clear focus with this thesis which aims to explore different layers of relationships between major players in humanitarian crisis situation, it is expected that a semi-structured interview would facilitate the realization of our purpose.

### 3.3.3 Interview Guide

The preparation of an interview guide is essential before conducting an interview. The basic idea behind interview guide is to provide a fairly structured list of questions to be asked or issues to be addressed (Bryman & Bell, 2007) which serves as a guideline for interviewing. The interview questions should not be too specific but formulated in a flexible manner to invoke the interviewees' expression of their views towards a certain issue and contextualize their answers (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

A collection of questions formulated in an open format is an option for most researchers conducting semi-structured interviews. This preference can be explained by the advantages of open questions over closed ones. Concretely, open questions have the potential to elicit respondents' professional knowledge and unique understanding of a certain phenomenon or issue, which can hardly be obtained by an outsider.

### 3.3.4 Additional Considerations

There are some additional considerations associated with conducting an interview in qualitative research need to be reflected on.

The first and probably the most prominent concern, according to Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2005, p. 256), is 'response error' which leads to a mismatch between obtained findings and actual information. Such response error can be attributed to the respondent's incomplete knowledge. There is no effective way to address this drawback but to use more experienced and trained respondents. Another origin of response error may involve the researcher's improper control of the interview process, giving rise to 'response bias' (Blumberg et al., 2005, p. 256).

Another issue that deserves our consideration, according to Adams et al. (2007), is misunderstanding the question and/or the answer. The possible solution to address this problem is asking other related questions for the purpose of cross-checking (Adams et al., 2007). Moreover, raising supplementary questions is also necessary for the researchers to understand and get a deeper insight about the interviewees' real meaning by what they are describing (Saunders et al., 2003).

## 3.4 Selection of Participants

### 3.4.1 Theoretical Sampling

As stated by Kumar (1999, p. 164), sampling is 'the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting a fact, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group'. The commonest classification of sampling techniques is to categorize it into two distinct groups, namely probability sampling and non-probability sampling. According to Bryman & Bell (2007), a random selection approach has been adopted in the former type of sampling to ensure that each unit in the sampling population has an equal chance of being selected. In contrast, non-probability sampling practically concerns all forms of samplings that are not conducted using a random selection technique. Probability sampling, due to its inherent reliance on statistical rather than theoretical criteria, is meant to be unsuitable for qualitative research based on interviews (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Consequently, we used theoretical sampling as an alternative approach during our information gathering process.

Glaser et al. (1967, p. 45) defined theoretical sampling as 'the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges'. It involves a continuous analysis of empirical information from which new hypotheses and theories are derived, thereby stimulating successive data collection. In this sense, theoretical sampling is considered as an on-going process and shows an iterative nature (Bryman & Bell, 2007). However, this process would come to an end if theoretical saturation has been achieved. Moreover, theoretical sampling has a particular focus on contexts and events by which the behavior of people- the conventional objects of sampling- is influenced (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Most importantly, analysis of the information gathered from each interview has to be conducted to proceed into the next one. By so doing, we will be able to decide which kind of data to collect at each interviewing stage.

### 3.4.2 Selection of NGO

We settled for MSF and the Red Cross as our choice NGOs after some deliberation.

As a matter of fact, during the Humanitarian Logistics workshop held on November 24, 2009 at *Jonkoping International Business School* (JIBS) which we attended, one of the takeaways from this seminar was that MSF is a international and highly independent NGO with advocacy force to raise awareness of crisis and a fierce reputation for acting solo during international crisis situations. This gives it a unique character.

On the other hand, according to von Screeb (2007) the Red Cross movement is a 'mixed' organization which bears the characteristics of both an NGO and implementing body. In addition, what distinguishes the Red Cross different from any ordinary NGO is that it has an international mandate found in almost every country in the world.

In a nutshell, these are the reasons why we made such selection of our respondents. Our conviction is that a study of these two NGOs combined will give a broader perspective and depth to civil and humanitarian organizations with a non-profit outlook.

We made our first contact with the Red Cross on 2010-04-06 after we visited one of their retail shops on Klostergatan Jonkoping. It was there that we initiated contact with Hasse Olson who serves as the Communications & Fundraising Coordinator of Swedish Red Cross, Gota Region. Hasse agreed to grant us an interview and a meeting to that effect was organized for 2010-04-14 at the Red Cross regional office on Ostra Storgatan 7, Jonkoping, 13.00. The interview with Hasse lasted about 30 minutes and at the end of this wide-ranging interview, the interviewers agreed to get back to Hasse for further information if need be. In addition, we visited the local branch of Swedish Red Cross in Göteborg the day after and made an appointment with the Chairman Stig Andersson, who agreed to have an interview with us on 2010-04-19. This interview started at 08.00 on that day and lasted for about 40 minutes. The interviewee agreed on further contact should more information be needed.

We first met Johan Mast of MSF during the Humanitarian Logistics workshop which held on 2009-11-24 at JIBS. Our first request for an interview with Johan was made on 2010-03-22 and after 3 correspondences during which we tried getting a face to face dialogue with him failed, we finally resolved to do the interview by email. These questions were answered on 2010-04-15 and we also had a follow up interview by phone at 15.00 on the same day during which we ironed out filter questions arising from the email interview.

### 3.4.3 Selection of Military

As for the military, our main interest in it lies in their engagement in humanitarian activities even though their primary mission seems to be sustaining law and order.

According to Kovacs & Tatham (2009), the military has widened and embraced participation in humanitarian activities even at the domestic level in their respective countries like distributing basic amenities.

We settled for Nordic Defense Force as our respondent representing the military in this thesis as this is a battalion force made up of military forces from four different countries

namely Sweden, Finland, Norway and Denmark, participating in international peace-keeping operations as part of NATO and UN. Also, they have a Defense College carrying out studies in civil-military cooperation, which happens to fall in the scope of our study. Equally important, an official of this Nordic force, Tore Listou, participated in a Humanitarian Logistics workshop we attended, making it easier for us to get contact with the force right after that.

We first met Tore Listou of the Norwegian Defense Command and Staff College (part of the Norwegian Armed Forces International Centre, NODEFIC) during the Humanitarian Logistics workshop hosted by CeLS in 2009-11-24, where he delivered a lecture on the role played by the military during a humanitarian. After taking up our research, we requested for an interview on 2010-03-22, but got no reply. This request was made once again on 2010-04-15 and got some positive feedback.

Tore Listou then directed our enquiries to his colleague, Major Jørund Skaali, who he described as having 'plentiful experiences about logistics and civil-military issues from multiple UN operations'. Major Jørund Skaali took the pains to answer exhaustively all of our questions in an email interview on 2010-04-16 and we subsequently had some follow-up phone interviews to make clarification on some filter questions. Table 3.1 as shown below summarizes the interviews we conducted for this thesis.

*Table 3.1 Summary of interviews*

| **Date** | **Organization** | **Respondent** | **Means of Interview** | **Topic** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2010-04-14 | The Red Cross (Jönköping) | Hasse Olson | Face-to-face | -Objective<br>-Organizational structure<br>-Funding sources<br>-Cooperation & collaboration<br>-Conflict<br>-Arbitration<br>(See appendix 1) |
| 2010-04-15 | MSF | Johan Mast | Email, Phone | |
| 2010-04-16 | Nordic force | Major Jørund Skaali | Email, phone | |
| 2010-04-19 | The Red Cross (Göteborg) | Stig Andersson | Face-to-face | |

## 3.5 Secondary data collection

Indeed, primary data collected by means of survey or interview is an important aspect in business research. We should not neglect the crucial part secondary data plays in achieving research aims.

Secondary data is existing data that can be easily obtained. It is mostly used as a supplement or alternative to primary data, in which difficulties of collecting new informa-

tion are inevitably involved. Secondary data can be accessed through such sources as libraries, assorted institutions, companies, government agencies and the Internet (Adams et al., 2007). In our thesis, secondary information was gathered through the webpage of MSF and the Red Cross as well as the internal documents from the Nodic Force. The most immediate benefit delivered by using secondary data is the prospect of having access to high-quality data meanwhile saving significant cost and time (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Moreover, as pointed out by Adams et al. (2007), secondary data may offer large representative samples well beyond the resources of the individual researcher who will therefore be allowed to focus on data analysis and interpretation with the help of supporting documentation. Further, adopting such an approach can possibly provide the opportunity for analyzing longitudinal data, which in turn facilitates identifying trends of a specific issue or phenomenon (Adams et al., 2007).

In spite of all the merits, gathering information from secondary sources does not come without drawbacks. One of the most crucial limitations we have to take account of is the complexity of data. Therefore, it is essential that the researchers adjust the level of information gathering to that of the analysis they intend to carry out.

## 3.6 Literature

In order to get an in-depth understanding about humanitarian logistics and the cooperation of actors in particular, we've reviewed a large amount of literature in this area. In the view of Bryman & Bell (2007), studying existing literature is of overriding importance since it lays the cornerstone for analysts to illustrate their research questions and build their research design. Besides, the necessity for undertaking literature review can be justified by the possibility it provides to identify such issues as 'what has been done already in this field, who holds what kind of perspectives, what remains unexplored', and so on (Adams et al., 2007). Research questions might be further refined and adjusted during the process of literature review (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

As stated by Adams et al. (2007), literature review falls into three distinct categories, namely Evaluative Review, Exploratory Review and Instrumental Review. The first type of review mainly concerns the coverage of existing literature and its contribution in a specific area. Instrumental Review, on the other hand, is designed to provide information about the approach to conducting a research project without touching the concrete knowledge in a chosen field.

Given that our research purpose, as mentioned above, mainly focuses on the state of cooperation and potential disharmony between major actors engaged in humanitarian crisis situation, an Exploratory Review would be the most appropriate approach for us to get a more profound idea regarding the common theories as well as empirical evidence and follow up the existing findings in a specific subject area (Adams et al., 2007).

According to Adams et al. (2007), the easiest way to identify relevant material for reviewing is through the article title and the abstract. Therefore, before carrying out the literature review, we have to choose a set of keywords to facilitate defining the boundaries of our research area (Bryman & Bell, 2007) and searching appropriate literature closely related to our research topic. In the purpose of making our search comprehensive and rich, we took account of both broad and narrower terms and meanwhile hig-

hlighted the use of synonyms terms (Adams et al., 2007). Moreover, considering humanitarian logistics is essentially an application of generic logistics theories in the humanitarian situations, conventional logistical terminologies were also a part of our consideration. Specifically, the keywords employed in this thesis involves, though are not confined to, "humanitarian logistics", "cooperation", "military", which experienced continuous adjustments throughout the process of article review with new keywords being integrated.

The sources of literature encompass books, electronic databases, academic journals, assorted reports and so forth. Searching relevant literature for our study involved the consultation of library catalogues as well as the utilization of search engines. In order to find the suitable literature in the form of books, we not only visited several libraries in Jönköping and Göteborg but also accessed the electronic databases where a considerable number of business journals, e-books and other publications could be found. The electronic sources our thesis heavily relied on include EBSCO, ABI/INFORM, Business Source Premier, Emerald and Elsevier Science Direct, etc. Equally, Google Scholar, as a major search engine, also played a pivotal role in our literature searching process. It is worthwhile to mention that the online service of Jönköping University library facilitated our aforementioned searching activities.

### 3.6.1 Additional considerations

Viewing literature study from a critical perspective is of paramount importance for us to gain comprehensive and credible data. Literature contains significant amount of information from various sources, meaning that we should review it in a way that is different from simply reading it. In order words, critical thinking is required throughout the whole process of studying academic literature.

Quality of information is hard to control in the face of assorted sources. It is especially true in an era when the use of computer and the Internet is becoming increasingly prevalent. We should be very prudent when using such Internet search engines as Google since they merely provide what they found without further assessing the quality and credibility. As far as electronic documents are concerned, reliable materials, however, could be accessed through well-reputed databases like Business Source Premier in terms of the area of business and management. Making use of books, articles, reports from reputable authors, well-known journals and approved organizations is undoubtedly the bottom-line to obtain safe and quality information.

The publication date of articles as well as books is another matter of concern. Since the theories and practices of humanitarian logistics and cooperative relationships of actors in particular are evolving, we kept a close eye on latest information associated with this chosen research topic. At the meantime, previous publication containing generic theories remained our focus of literature review.

## 3.7 Validity

Reliability and validity are two most widely accepted criteria used for testing and evaluating the measurements of variables and quality of data in both quantitative and qualitative research.

According to Kirk and Miller (1986, p. 19), reliability concerns 'the extent to which a measurement procedure yields the same answer however and whenever it is carried out'. In other words, the basic idea of reliability is the consistency of the findings.

Validity, on the other hand, is 'concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research' (Bryman & Bell, 2007, p. 41). Therefore, it involves the evaluation of the extent to which the measurement is perfectly achieved, more simply, the accuracy of the measurement (Adams et al., 2007). There are two types of validity commonly examined in business research methods: internal and external. Internal validity deals with the extent that observations and findings match valid research procedures. External validity, as a two-step process, involves the extent to which the results found from a sample could be generalized to the whole population and to what extent the results can be applied or transferred to the study of other fields (Thietart, 2001).

In this thesis, by studying massive literature and utilizing a great variety of information sources, we were able to get access to a great variety of understandings and arguments with regards to the civil-military relations in the face of disasters, thereby providing an assurance of the internal validity of our study. On the other hand, in order to gather primary data for our study, we selected those respondents that were highly representative in humanitarian arena and conducted personal interviews. Due to the inherent advantages of face-to-face interview, the possibility of obtaining accurate information and profound understanding was increased. Thus, external validity of our study can, to a certain degree, be ensured.

# 4 Empirical study

*Here we present our empirical study. We begin the chapter by examining the different actors that populate the humanitarian landscape before delving into a presentation of our empirical findings which are a product of interviews with the Red Cross, MSF and Norwegian Defense Command & Staff College and a resume of respondents' answers. These findings are in separate sections and deal the organization's operations and relationships.*

## 4.1 Overview

In this study, interviews were conducted; brochures and information from the organization's websites were utilized as well. The lists of interview questions are available in Appendix 1 and the list of respondents is available in Appendix 2. A similar empirical data presentation structure is adopted for all three organizations. But first, we commence by looking at the different stakeholders in a humanitarian crisis.

## 4.2 Organizational field

This field comprises 'a set of organizations that together accomplish some task in which a researcher is interested' (George, 2002, p. 3) and the case of a humanitarian field is complex in composition, attracting a varied spectrum of players having different objectives.
There are 2 somehow contrasting perspectives on presenting and categorizing the list of humanitarian actors.
The first view by Barry and Jefferys (2002) categorizes them into *humanitarian, political* and *military actors*.
According to this view, *humanitarian actors* constitute;
*National and international NGOs* comprising organizations providing humanitarian and relief assistance like SCF, MSF, Oxfam, Christian Aid and Catholic Relief Services.
*Governmental organizations* (GOs) like USAID, SIDA and CIDA.
*All 'mixed' organizations* (with a 'mixed' organization being any organization lying between an NGO and an implementing body) which includes UN agencies like UNHCR, UNICEF, WFP, WHO, UNDP, IMO, and non-governmental organizations with an international mandate, such as the members of the Red Cross movement.
*Human rights organizations* will encompass NGOs that advocate on issues to do with human rights law, such as Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch.
*All implementing legal bodies* will include bodies that uphold human rights law, refugee law or international humanitarian law, for example the European Court of Human Rights, the UN Human Rights Committee, the international criminal tribunals for the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda and the International Criminal Court (ICC).

*Political actors*, as Barry and Jefferys (2002) highlight in their paper, are made up of state governments and inter-governmental organizations, notably the UN, European Union (EU) and donor agencies.

*Military actors*, on the other hand will include national and regional forces, UN peacekeeping forces, third-party military service providers, mercenaries, private military and security companies.

Other actors, apart from the aforementioned mainstream players, equally play a role in influencing the civil–military relations debate as fringe actors. Examples include the media outlets like cable news stations and newspapers; instrumental utilities which can influence decisions on military involvement in humanitarian activities through informing the public and swaying opinion through their coverage of emergencies. Commercial transporters like DHL, TNT, FedEx and other logistic companies and contractors. Also, other actors include academicians serving as observers and commentators and finally the general public who are beneficiaries.

A somewhat contrasting picture is painted by Kovacs and Tatham (2009) who fail to make any clear cut differentiation between the different types of NGOs or make any categorization of the different UN humanitarian agencies. But an interesting element about this listing of humanitarian field is that the authors acknowledge the role of logistics service providers, an element missing from the previous perspective. In addition, this view sees the humanitarian network as having a centrist role with all the different actors revolving and connected to it (Figure 4.1).

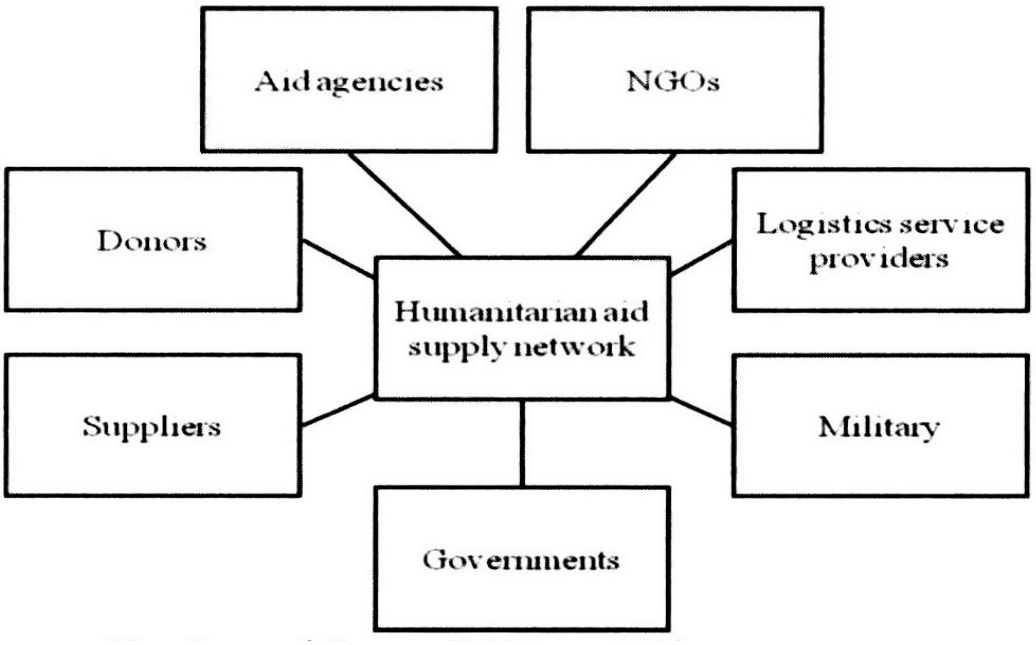


*Figure 4.1 Humanitarian supply network (Kovacs & Tatham, 2009, p. 220, citing Kovacs & Spens, 2008, p. 223).*

For the sake of our study, we will utilize more of the elements of Barry and Jefferys (2002) because they explicitly differentiate the humanitarian actors like NGOs and military which are key to our empirical studies.

## 4.3 Médecins Sans Frontières

### 4.3.1 Preparedness and response

Founded in 1971 by a group of French doctors and journalists following the outbreak of famine in Biafra, Nigeria (MSF, 2010b), MSF is a celebrated international medical NGO and respected humanitarian organization (M. Johan, personal communication, 2010-04-15)which received a Nobel Prize for the Peace in 1999 for 'pioneering humanitarian work on several continents'. Apart from being a humanitarian organization which works on the principles of neutrality and impartiality to provide medical aid, MSF also sees itself as an advocacy group with a mission to 'bearing witness' and break the silence on issues of human rights (Mills, 2005). This is done by raising awareness especially through the use of media organs and carries out operations in more than 70 countries (MSF, 2005).

As of 2008, MSF had a staff of more than 27,000 individuals comprised of doctors, nurses, logistics experts, administrators, epidemiologists, laboratory technicians, mental-health professionals and people of different specialty unified in the humanitarian course (MSF, 2008) and recorded $133 million in expenses on emergencies and medical programs. Figure 4.2 below explains the different percentages of MSF's non-cash expenses in 2008.

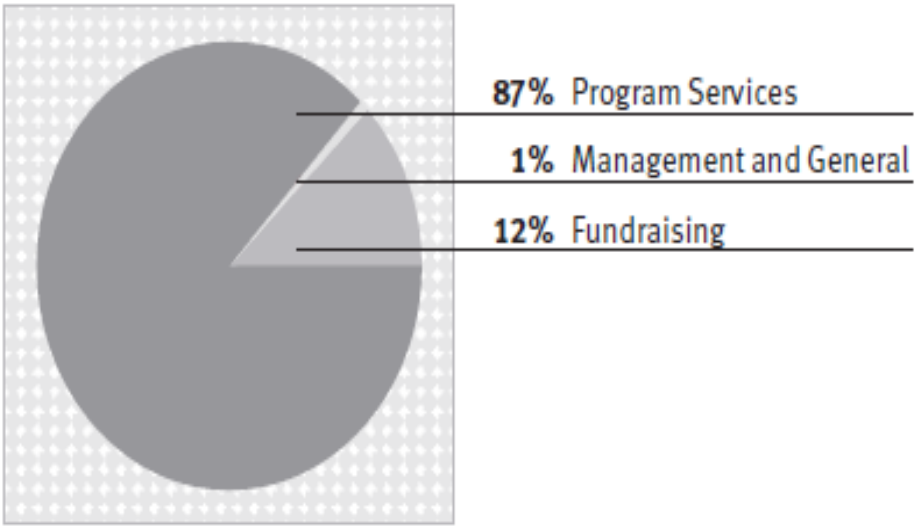


*Figure 4.2 2008 expenses excluding in-kind expenses (MSF, 2008)*

During the preparedness and response phase of disasters, the MSF agency in Stockholm undertakes a number of activities. Their area of operation revolves around advocacy and raising awareness to the Swedish public about the outbreak of such a catastrophe, organizing fundraising activities to garner funds and also recruiting the labor or personnel needed on the ground (M. Johan, personal communication, 2010-04-15).

Describing it as the Emergency Phase of its operations, MSF maps out 10 top priorities which need to be achieved during the preparedness and response phases during a humanitarian crisis. These priorities include: initial assessment, measles immunization, water and sanitation, food and nutrition, shelter and site planning, health care in emergency,

control of diseases and epidemics, public health surveillance, HR & training and coordination (MSF, 1997).

### 4.3.2 Civil-civil, civil-military cooperation and arbitration

On relations with other humanitarian organizations, MSF actively cooperates and partners with a host of other civil groups including ICRC, IFRC, Save the Children, UNICEF, WHO, UNHCR and also smaller NGOs like Emergency, Merlin, Marie Stopes, MDM, ACF (M. Johan, personal communication, 2010-04-15).

Asked if such collaboration was extended to the military or peacekeeping forces, the MSF resource person's response was negative and it's said that there exists only a few 'specific contexts' under which this was possible. This statement tallies with the speech of the MSF President, Christophe Fournier, to NATO on 2009-12-08 in which he explained MSF steers clear of "military-humanitarian coalition" given the need to make a distinction between impartial humanitarian actors and more partisan aid actors. Failure to comply with this separation would greatly blur the lines of separation from the military in the eyes of the public, a move which impairs the impartiality of their aid operations (MSF, 2009).

Citing some specific cases of collaboration with the military, Johan detailed the case of the Pakistan earthquake of 2005 in which MSF made use of military helicopters in order to access the remote and mountainous regions of the disaster area. In addition, there was praise for the military's efforts in safeguarding, protecting civilian populations and also keeping security.
That aside, there still exists strong ideological and practical differences between MSF and the military as shown by a recent clash with NATO, as shown by a strongly worded press release in which MSF criticized a statement by NATO Secretary General, Anders Fogh Rasmussen, who implied NGOs should serves as the 'soft power' component to the military's strategy in Afghanistan (MSF, 2010a). MSF argues that such a move would make their medical aid operations a target of opposition forces attacks.

This echoes the view that, there are no conditions under which a sustainable cooperation framework can be drawn with the military (M. Johan, personal communication, 2010-04-15).

MSF is guided by a number of rules when engaging in civil-military relations including documents, reports and guiding principles with an example being the SCHR position paper on humanitarian-military relations, Oslo guidelines and the International Humanitarian Law.

As far as coordination is concerned, MSF acknowledges that it is not part of any UN cluster group, as shown in Figure 4.3, although it participates as an observer, a move which gives this organization a degree of independence and places coordination of activities at its level.

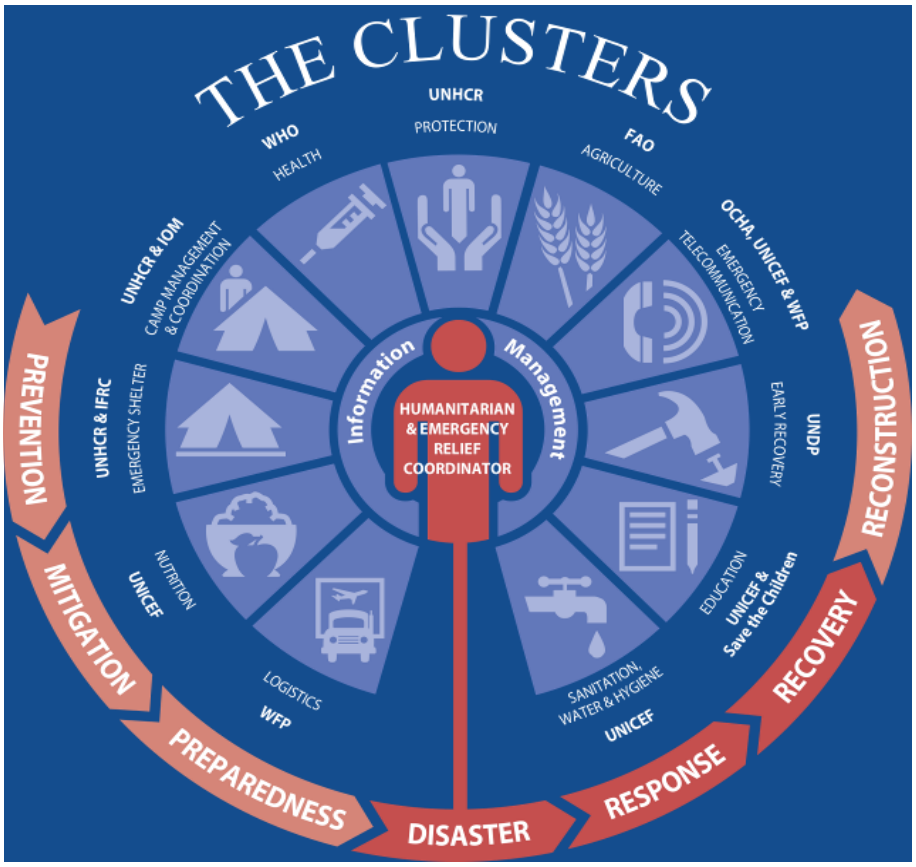


*Figure 4.3 UN Cluster (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16)*

When it comes to issues of conflict or misunderstanding with other stakeholders, MSF resolves it on a case by case basis through the use of dialogue.

Talking about laws in force, MSF abides by the laws and regulations in force in the country in which they operate. Meaning they will subject themselves to the laws of the sovereign nation in question. But the interviewee was not specific on whether would agree to a third party (arbitration) in resolving differences (M. Johan, personal communication, 2010-04-15).

### 4.3.3 Organizational structure and funding

MSF runs 19 functional units across the world which coordinates operations in the 70 countries in which its presence is felt (MSF, 2008).

As illustrated by Figure 4.4, on the field, coordination is fairly simple with the Head of Mission (HOM) at the top as leader, flanked by four heads of departments namely Medical Coordinator (MC), Logistics Coordinator (LC), Human Resource Coordinator (HRC) and Finance Coordinator (FC). Down at the project level, there is a Field Coordinator directly answerable to the Head of Mission. A project usually comprises medical focal point, logistician, doctor, nurse and other skilled staff.

At the level of the headquarters, the Head of Mission is answerable to the head of a cell or desk otherwise known as the Operations Coordinator (CO). The CO has a team

which is quite similar to that in the field and comprises medical, administrative, human resource and logistics personnel.

From here, the CO reports directly to the Director of Operations (DO), who in turn reports to the General Director (GD) (M. Johan, personal communication, 2010-04-15).

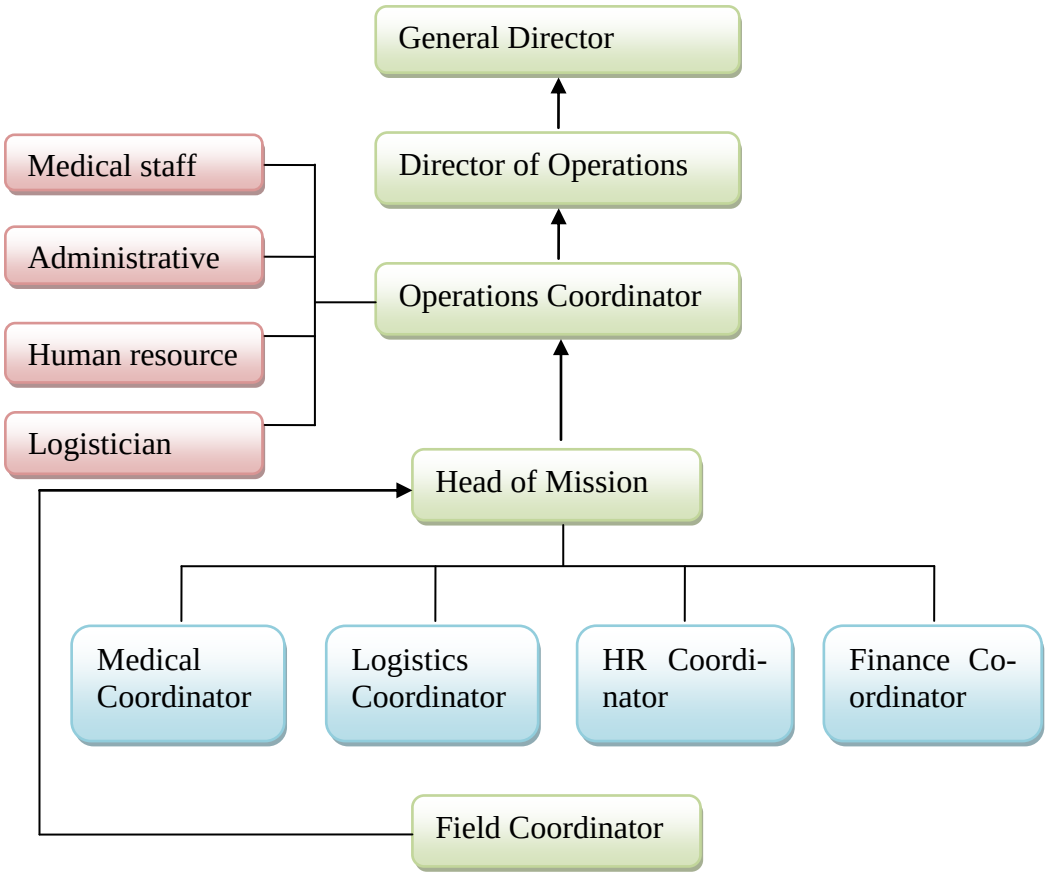


*Figure 4.4 Organizational set-up*

Although MSF is a medical humanitarian organization and advocacy group (MSF, 2010a), there is a place for logistics and logisticians who handle technical aspects of missions like water and food supplies, tools and equipments so that physicians can focus on practicing under the prevailing circumstances. In testimony of this, MSF has set up, over the decades, warehouses in Bordeaux, France and six main branches around the world including Amsterdam, Barcelona, Brussels, Geneva, Madrid and Paris.

In addition logisticians on MSF missions are administrators responsible for accounting and human resources, security guards, radio operators, cooks, messengers, janitors and other crew members.

To carry out its operations around the world, MSF relies heavily on the freewill donations and gestures of individuals, foundations, Swedish government, SIDA and companies. Donations from individuals constitute the bulk of funding making for 70 – 80 % of

all contributions (M. Johan, personal communication, 2010-04-15). Private funding sources of MSF in 2008 is demonstrated by the chart below (Figure 4.5).

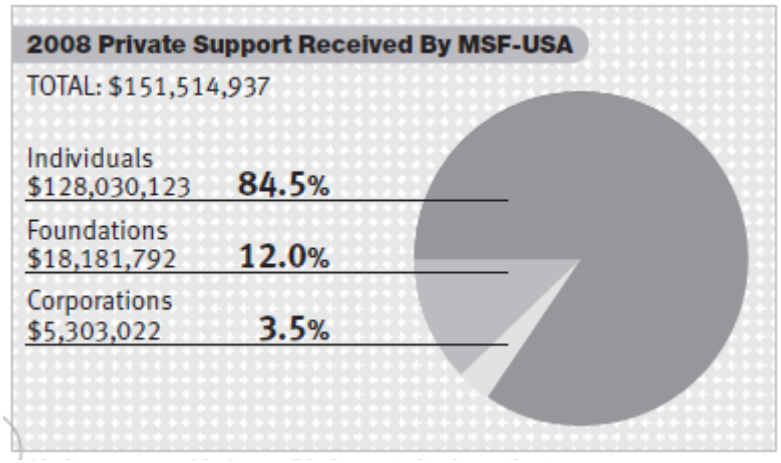


*Figure 4.5 2008 MSF Funding (MSF, 2008)*

## 4.4 Red Cross Sweden

The Red Cross has the unique characteristic of being an NGO and an organization with an international mandate (Mills, 2005).

The foundation of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC) can be traced back to the period between 1859 and 1969 when the ICRC was a small private Swiss institution mandated by public international law to undertake certain operations in war (Forsythe, 2005). Over the past 150 years, the ICRC has been mandated by the community of States to help victims of conflicts and internal violence (ICRC, 2010) under the Geneva Conventions and in recognition of its long-standing practical experience (Lavoyer, 1995).

Today, the Red Cross has grown and become one of the most important and respected humanitarian actors, coordinating the world's largest private relief system for armed conflict and emergency situations (Forsythe, 2005). With a staff of more than 2,000 professionals, supported by 10,000 local employees, the ICRC conducts its relief operations throughout the world (Forsythe, 2005).

The rules and policies the ICRC established can be integrated into four basic principles under which the Red Cross system should operate, including humanity, impartiality, neutrality and universality (Chandler, 2001). These underlying principles allow the Red Cross to 'provide its services as a neutral intermediary and help people in vulnerable situations all over the world without any regard for what nation, party or side they may belong to, religion, ethnicity or whatever' (Olson, personal communication, 2010-04-14).

The Red Cross prepares for and responds to a crisis situation by organizing fundraising activities, initiating specific preparedness programs, recruiting and deploying needed personnel, providing necessities and health-related services, which resemble the activities conducted by MSF in some way. But one feature distinguishing the Red Cross from

other independent humanitarian institutions, as identified by Olson, is that they typically remain in the affected areas for years after the engagement in the early stage of crises.

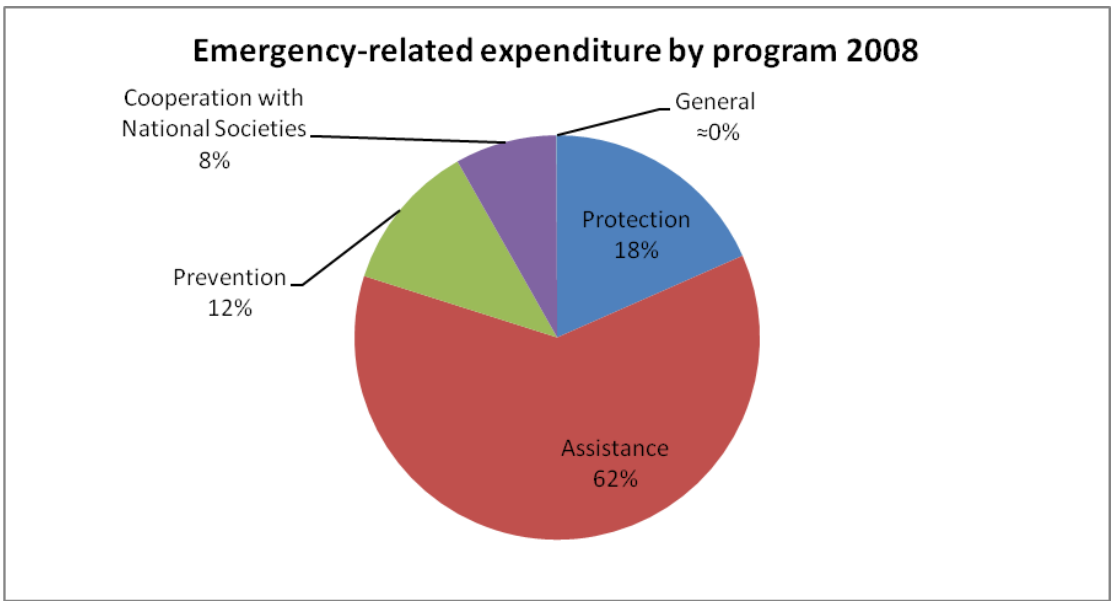


*Figure 4.6 2008 Emergency-related expenditure by program of ICRC (ICRC, 2008)*

### 4.4.1 Civil-civil, civil-military cooperation and arbitration

Coordination can also be found in the interaction between the local Red Cross agencies and the parent organization during complex emergencies. It is through the Red Cross headquarter in Geneva that responds to a humanitarian crisis which is reported by local Red Cross and make requests to Red Cross agencies in other countries for such support as personnel, water, sanitation, etc (Olson, personal communication, 2010-04-14). Apart from local agencies, the Red Cross would also get contact with governments of the affected country for approval of engagement (Olson, personal communication, 2010-04-14).

When it comes to the coordination between the Swedish Red Cross and other organizations, the Red Cross usually 'work for themselves' (Olson, personal communication, 2010-04-14). However, the other Red Cross respondent pointed out that cooperation may take place in some crisis situations between the Red Cross and Save the Children (Anderson, personal communication, 2010-04-19). Both interviewees acknowledged the need and necessity of certain cooperation and collaboration during major catastrophes. Organizations like OCHA may take the coordinating role in reconciling and improving the relations between different actors by promoting its humanitarian principles.

In spite of the fact that the Red Cross normally does not work with military, its operational activities are often protected by UN forces like peacekeepers and in the case of Haiti, American forces (Olson, personal communication, 2010-04-14). Both interviewees pointed out that although the cooperation of the Red Cross with the military is rare, it could be found in dangerous and conflict situations, where the assistance and relief operations can only be carried out under certain protection.

The gap in the cooperation between these the Red Cross and the military is on account of the disparity of these two parties on the acting principles and policies. Whereas the military normally implements mandates assigned by their political masters, the Red Cross undertakes its relief work in compliance with such principles as humanity, neutrality, impartiality and universality, which can by no means be compromised for the sake of cooperation in ways which are detrimental to its aim (Olson, personal communication, 2010-04-14).

As an independent humanitarian organization, the ICRC and its local agencies conduct their activities within the framework of Geneva Convention and International Humanitarian Law (Forsythe, 2005), which serve as the rule and the law binding not only the operations of the Red Cross itself but also its relation with the military.

### 4.4.2 Organizational structure and funding

Headquartered in Geneva, the ICRC was present in more than 80 countries by 2008 through delegations, sub-delegations, offices and missions (ICRC, 2008). The Assembly, its Council and the Directorate constitute the leading organs of ICRC. On the governing level, the Assembly- presided by the President- functions as a supervisory body in selecting top officials, determining the formal policy-making processes and approving general policy as well as the core budget (Forsythe, 2005). 5 members are elected by the Assembly to form the Council which is responsible for holding the Assembly meetings and plays an active role in facilitating the ICRC policy making as well as the communication between the Assembly and the Directorate. As the executive body of the Red Cross, the Directorate assumes its responsibility in the daily management of the Committee by having a Director-General and five directors in the areas of "Operations", "Human Resources", "Resources and Operational Support", "Communication" and "International Law and Cooperation within the Movement" (Forsythe, 2005, p. 320).

Being viewed from an operation level, the Red Cross has been striving to achieve its mandate by developing delegations all over the world. During a humanitarian crisis situation, these delegations would work closely with the National Red Cross of the countries where they are based though which the relief assistance provided by other Red Cross Societies is coordinated.

In order to respond to an emergency situation more effectively and efficiently, the ICRC has been making efforts and investments in developing its capacity in logistics, information and communication technology, infrastructure management, and so forth. The realization of this ambition relies, to a significant extent, on the contribution from assorted sources like governments, national societies, public and private sources, etc, among which government contributions account for as much as 80% in 2008 (ICRC, 2008). The percentage of each comprising elements in the emergency-related private contributions can be illustrated by the following chart (Figure 4.7).

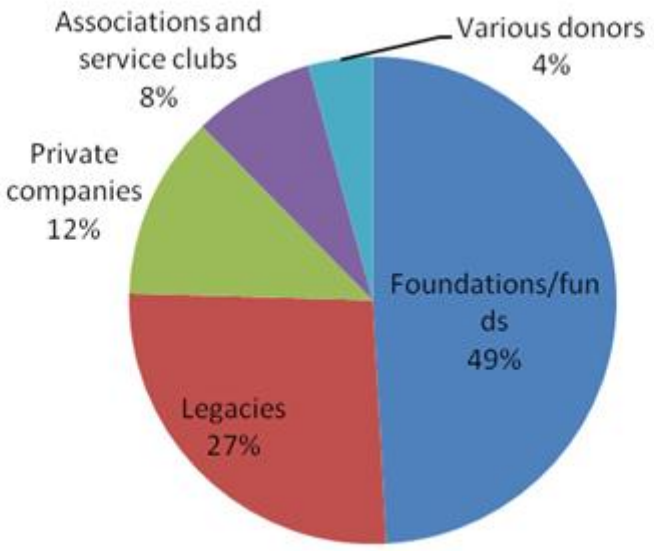


*Figure 4.7 2008 ICRC Emergency-related private contributions (ICRC, 2008)*

ICRC statistics also shows that cash donation occupies the largest share with a percentage of 98% in the emergency-related income of 2008 which also includes three other forms, namely cash non-operating income, kind donations and service contributions.

The sources that National Red Cross gets its funding from may vary from country to country. But according to our interviewees, Hans Olson and Andersson Stig, local Red Cross branches in Sweden obtain their contributions via different channels like contributions from private companies, local governments, agencies and individuals, membership fees and revenues generated from the Red Cross shops.

## 4.5 Nordic Defense Force

### 4.5.1 Preparedness and response operations

A Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) on Nordic Defense Cooperation (NORDEFCO) was signed on 2009-11-04 in Helsinki between the Defense Ministries of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden to 'lay down the working procedures' and how to coordinate this cooperation (NORDCAPS, 2009a).

Apart from strengthening the national defense capabilities of signatories and exploring common synergies, another objective under the MoU of this cooperation is to 'develop cooperation in the area of multinational operations, defense related security sector reform and capacity building in support of international peace and security' (NORDCAPS, 2009b, p. 2).

This last objective stated above explains the reason behind NORDEFCO's participation in multinational operations like NATO and UN missions, because not only are the Nor-

dic states signatories of a cooperation agreement, but they also happen to be NATO and UN members.

The roles of the Nordic battalion force as part of a UN peace keeping or NATO mission usually range from observer, traditional peacekeeping to peace enforcement roles (Figure 4.8). Thus, in a nutshell, the different categories of response to conflicts will include peace making, peace keeping and peace enforcement. These categories intermingle with each other and there is no clear cut distinction between one from the other.

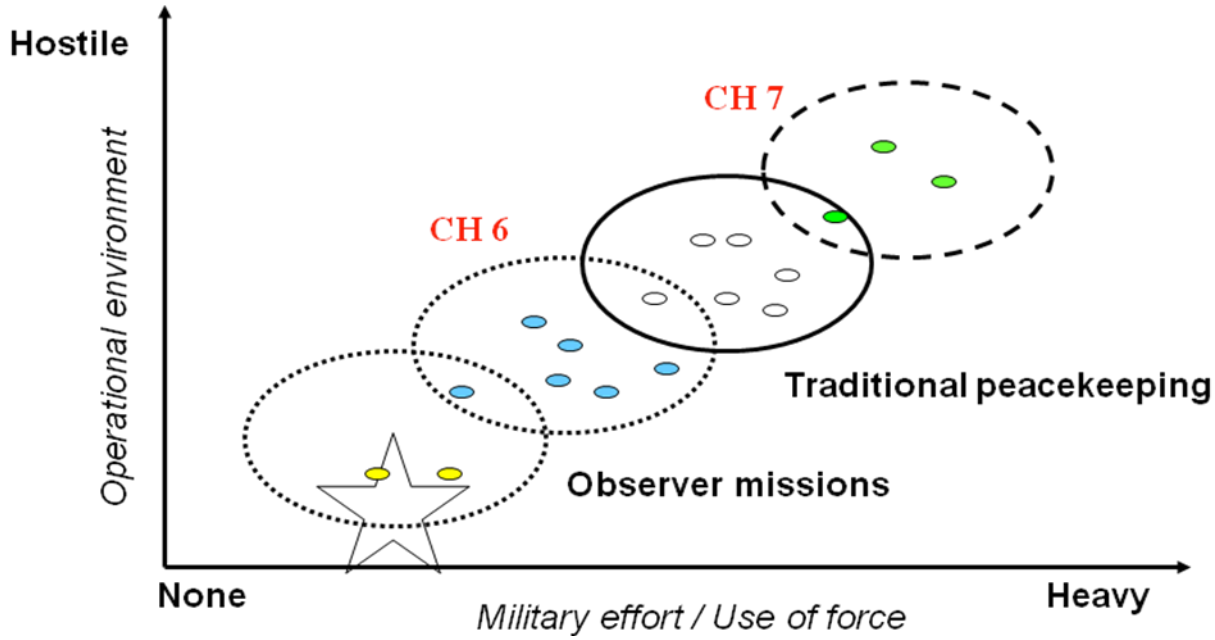


*Figure 4.8 UN Field Organization Lecture 1 (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16)*

As statistics reveal, the UN currently operates 16 peace keeping missions involving over 100,000 personnel, on a multi-dimensional scale which includes military, police and civilian components.

Therefore, the participation of a Nordic national or multinational unit force in such a UN mission relies upon national political decisions to support a specific UN operation and an agreement with UN Head Quarter (HQ) about the level of contribution that the Nordic force will make in each case (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16).

As pointed out, NATO operations, in which the Nordic force sometimes is a participant, normally has a Civil Military Cooperation (CIMIC) component within its HQ. On the other hand, UN operations do not have this as a separate component. But rather, their large operations are "Integrated"; having a comprehensive approach where UN's effort mirrors a complete modern society and the military component is just a small part in the complex puzzle. Under the UN scheme, 'Humanitarian Affairs' are handled by the Joint Logistic Operation Centre (JLOC) (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16).

Civil Military Coordination (CIMIC) is defined as 'the essential dialogue and interaction between civilian and military actors in humanitarian emergencies that is necessary to protect and promote humanitarian principles, avoid competition, minimize inconsistency, and when appropriate, pursue common goals'.

During the response phase of UN/NATO operations, some contingent commanders do have their own funding for Quick Impact Projects (QIP), which are projects where society as a whole benefits from the project immediately. Examples of such projects include repairing destroyed schools, roads and maintaining water and power supply. Before their deployment, the military units are advised to coordinate such projects closely with local authorities and NGOs on the ground (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16).

### 4.5.2 Cooperation and Integrated Missions

It is worth pointing out that no two operations are ever the same. NGOs may decide to cooperate in one operation but not in another. In addition, some NGOs are more restrictive in their ability to cooperate with military forces than others. Examples of such NGOs include the Red Cross and MSF who will under no circumstances want to be seen together or associated with military forces as 'they believe in extreme impartiality' (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16).

Exceptionally, some NGOs, especially those engaged in construction work, might cooperate with military forces based on a case by case basis and this falls under the coordination of the Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary General (DSRSG).

During a humanitarian crisis situation, the Nordic force is aligned with and part of UN operations, supported by a UN organized Integrated Service Support (ISS) unit which is responsible for coordinating log support to all different UN agencies in an operation, including the military. Within this ISS there is a JLOC responsible for coordination including coordination between military units and civilian parts like UN Mine Action team, Disarmament Demobilization and Reintegration (DDR) team, Electoral team and WPF.

It is worth noting that Integrated Missions were first initiated in 1997 and this initiative has been co-opted by the Norwegian military which has organized a series of workshops and seminars. According to a study on 'integration' in 6 different peace keeping missions, the results from this initiative has been mixed from varied success to a lack of understanding and doctrine.

'An Integrated Mission is based on a common strategic plan and a shared understanding of the priorities and types of programme interventions that need to be undertaken at various stages of the recovery process' (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16).

With the presence of many actors in the conflict and peace building effort, the UN has identified a need for an 'Integrated approach' to give the necessary coordination that such a process deserves. This Integrated and Multidimensional UN concept is aimed at forming a model state made up of parallel state organizations and functional specialists.

Furthermore, the consequences of pooling together these different actors (military and humanitarian organizations) under the umbrella of an 'Integrated Mission' include; more actors being involved in the planning process, a well defined role of the military and changes to the working culture on the ground.


*Figure 4.9 UN Integrated Mission. UN Field Organization Lecture 1 (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16)*

As seen from the model UN state (Figure 4.9), Armed Forces are just one component in the mix of different organizations which includes humanitarians.

While the partnership and collaboration of the Nordic force is largely confined to organizations within the UN cluster, and coordination occurs on a case by case under JLOC, some few examples of cooperation between military units and NGOs abound like 'transportation of goods for Norwegian Church Aid or safeguarding equipment in the unit's vicinity' (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16).

Considering the integrated and complex nature of UN missions, it is difficult singling out military operations from the whole. As we pointed out earlier, unlike NATO missions which have a structured CIMIC unit, such a well structured unit is missing in UN missions. UN missions are built to mirror the necessities of a complete and modern society where the military component is just one single part on the whole organization and has to cooperate with civilian agencies in the theatre. It is under this milieu that an NGO will normally find a counterpart amongst the different UN agencies.

As such, the 'capacity to assist' is the condition under which a cooperation framework exists between the military and NGOs under this UN Integrated scheme.

### 4.5.3 Overlapping roles & conflict

There are some potential areas of disagreement between the military and NGOs as the implementation case of QIP shows. If the military's QIP become uncoordinated and are

doubled to the detriment of NGO projects, there could arise some conflicts. Also, there could be disagreements if military units carry out their operations too close to areas where Red Cross or MSF are located.

It is worth noting that military participation in humanitarian practices varies. Units from different nations will have different policies and means of engaging in civilian reconstruction activities, which normally is the responsibility of NGOs.

On the whole when it comes to civil-military relations, *dialogue and coordination with humanitarian organizations need improvements*. Also, there is an identifiable *mismatch between different professional culture and values* which highlights an emphasis on culture awareness between different organizations. Lastly, *personal relations and institutional interest comes before a systematic approach* and this point belies the need for personal networking (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16).

### 4.5.4 Rules of engagement and arbitration

Many rules govern civil-military relations and there exists many of such including the detailed Standing Operational Procedures (SOP) for all parties. As pointed out, the military are instructed to assist NGOs, within their capabilities, on request (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16). However, there are other existing UN CIMIC guidelines and references in force which include; *Guidelines on the Use of Military and Civil Defense Assets in Disaster Relief (Oslo Guidelines), The Use of Military and Civil Defense Assets in Support of Humanitarian Activities in Complex Emergencies (MCDA Guidelines), Interagency Standing Committee Reference Paper on Civil Military Relations in Complex Emergencies, The Use of Military or Armed Escorts for Humanitarian Convoys, Civil-Military Guidelines and Reference for Complex Emergencies, Civil-Military Coordination Officer Field Handbook* and *Country Specific Guidance.*

In the event of misunderstanding in civil-military interaction, the most sought after means of resolving such differences is by conducting meetings with constructive agenda and participants. In an earlier paragraph, the SRSG was identified as having the ultimate responsibility for using the DSRSG, Humanitarian Affaire and JLOC to conduct coordination during peacekeeping missions.

### 4.5.5 Coordination

As discussed a little earlier, while the SRSG may have the say for overall coordination in a UN mission, OCHA (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs), is responsible for bringing together and coordinating the activities of humanitarian actors to respond to emergencies (OCHA, 2010a). Put simply, 'OCHA represents the UN Focal Point for Humanitarian Civil-Military Coordination' (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-22).

Created in 1991 by a General Assembly Resolution 46/182, OCHA was established as the *Emergency Relief Coordinator, focal point* and *voice for humanitarian emergencies.*

The core functions of this body includes; Humanitarian Coordination, Humanitarian Advocacy, Policy Development, Management of Humanitarian Information and Humanitarian Financing (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-22).

The essence of coordination is *to deal with a multiplicity of actors, work with limited resources, avoid the politicization of aid and avoid gaps, duplications, and assure the responsibility of each humanitarian partner.*

The organization structure of OCHA is illustrated by Figure 4.10 as below.

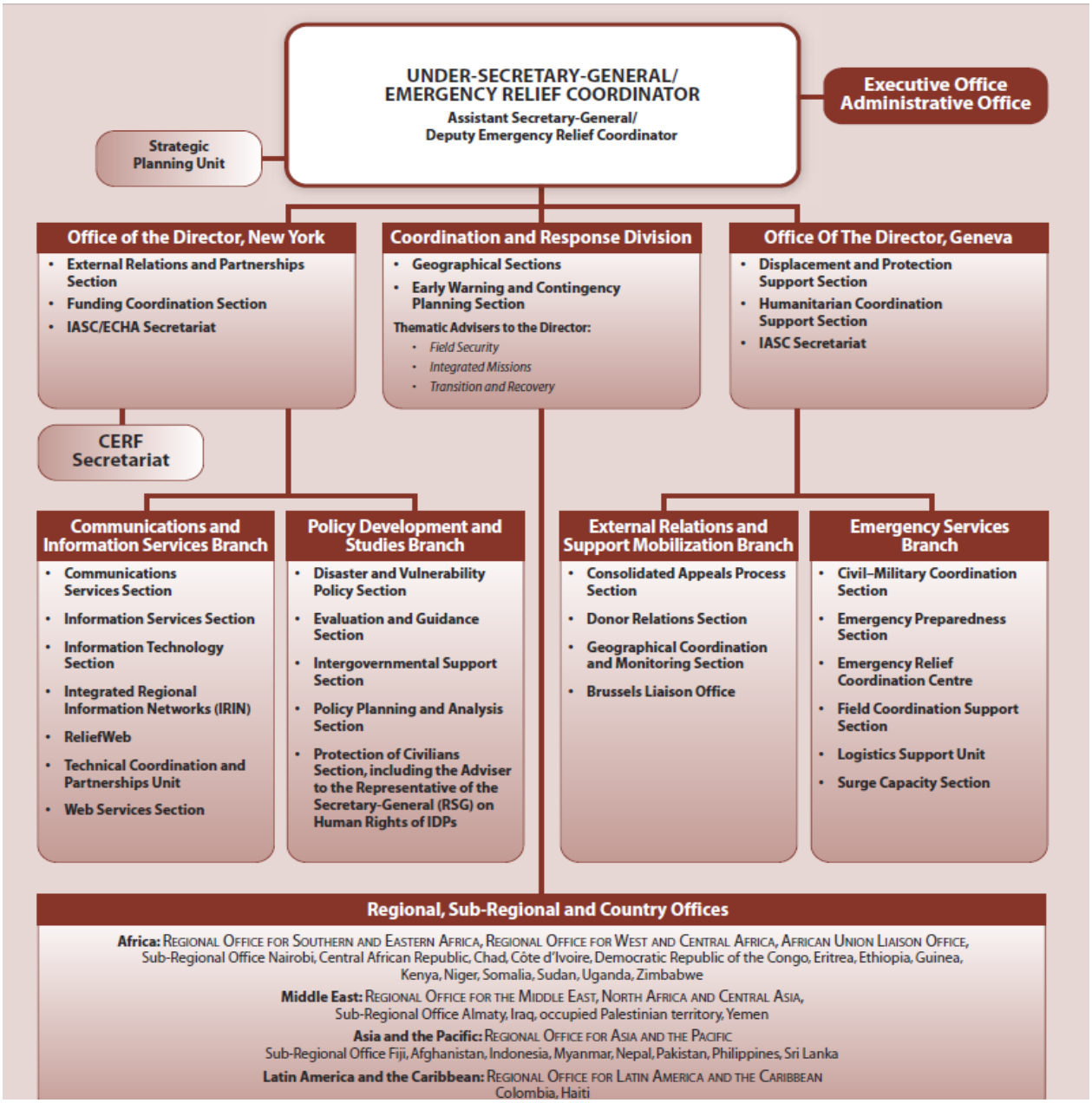


*Figure 4.10 Organizational Structure of OCHA (OCHA, 2010b)*

Under this OCHA blanket are a range of partners with examples being Governments, U.N. Agencies and Programs and International Organizations, NGOs (both international

& local), Civil Society, Red Cross Movement, Peacekeeping Missions, Donor Governments, Private companies and individuals and Military. All of these bodies are classed as *humanitarian partners* probably because of their pursuit for the betterment of crisis victims.

Not surprisingly, OCHA abides by the 3 humanitarian principles of *humanity, neutrality and impartiality* and given that it is an offspring of the UN mission, it is part of the UN cluster group. Being member to this group enhances their *predictability, accountability and partnership in all response sectors, better support of national-led response efforts* and lastly *ensures common standards and tools*.

Coordination is best described here as *a shared responsibility facilitated by liaison and common training* (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-22). This includes information sharing, task division and planning.

During UN peacekeeping operations, the Integrated Mission concept comes into play and the key CIMIC areas of engagement includes;

*Security (with the military's primary role being to provide physical security), Direct Assistance (face-to face provision of goods and services which is highly discouraged by some humanitarian organizations), Indirect Assistance (be at least one step removed from the population), Infrastructure Support (provision of general services that facilitate relief, but are not necessarily visible to or solely for the benefit of the affected population) and Community Support Projects ( especially Quick Impact Projects, Military Civic Action which are coordinated and approved by DSRSG).*

CIMIC interaction takes many forms including Liaison arrangements, Information sharing, Military assets in humanitarian operations, Military or armed escorts and Coordinated civil-military operations.

### 4.5.6 Organizational structure and funding

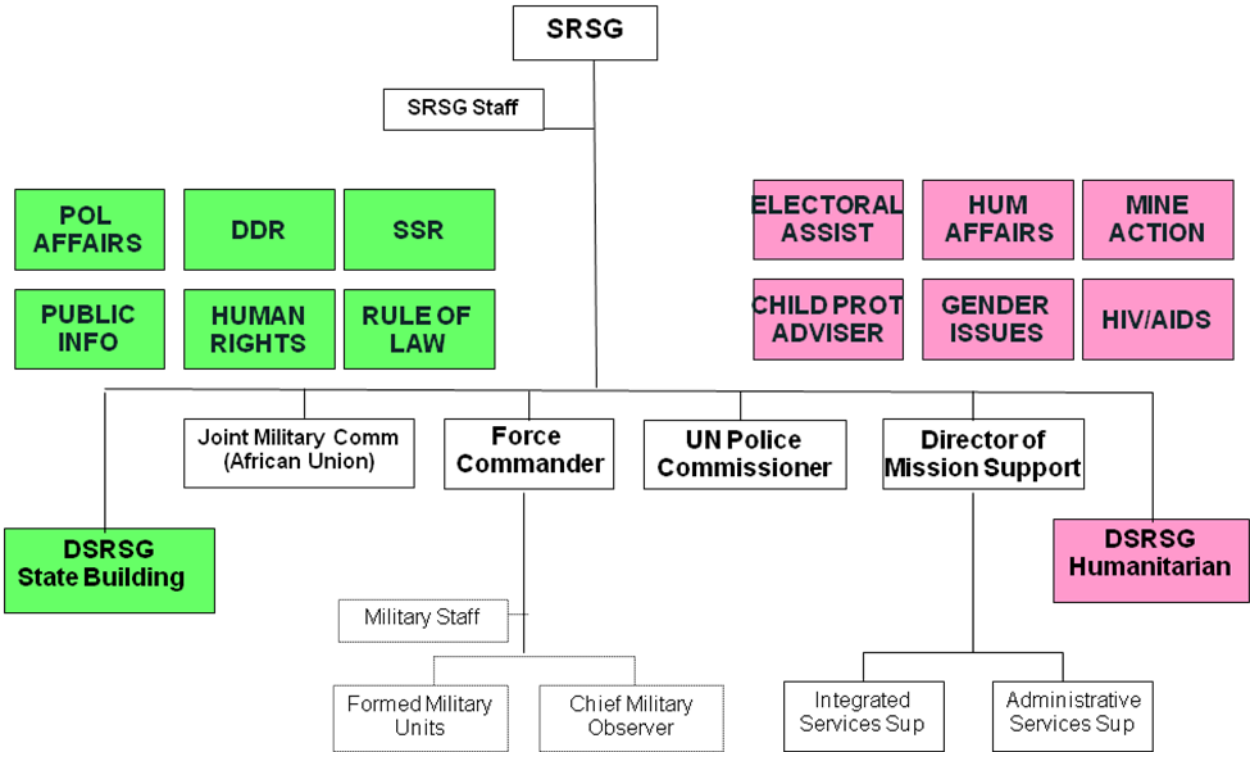


*Figure 4.11 UN Logistic Concept Lecture 2 (Major J. Skaali, personal communication, 2010-04-16)*

Figure 4.11 as shown above best describes the organization structure

With regards to funding, as stipulated in the MoU signed between the Nordic states and NORDEFCO pact, each of the signatory states shall make up their respective quota of expenses. So, in effect, each national government is responsible.

The Nordic force performs different roles during different UN operations depending on the different responsibilities in the mission.

# 5 Analysis

*In this chapter our analysis is presented. The findings from the empirical study will be connected to the frame of reference using such parameters as preparedness & response strategies, organizational structures, overlapping roles & conflict, cooperation framework & information sharing, civil-military coordination and trust.*

## 5.1 Preparedness and response strategies

'The unpredictable nature of disasters, means that we can never prepare for every eventuality', Whiting (2009) notes. In spite of this dire assessment, it is worthwhile putting in place some strategies to caution their impact.

As evidenced from our empirical and framework studies, initial assessment or needs assessment is a crucial part of any humanitarian preparedness strategy. Achieving such an assessment involves different phases and methods in the collection of data. It is based on such a collection that any kind of information can be put together (von Screeb, 2007, MSF, 1997). Information gathering is vital because it is necessary for planning, identifying 'intervention priorities' and making it available to international community and donors. This element of preparedness ushers in a good response strategy.
Another closely associated aspect of preparedness and response, as seen from the interviews, are activities like advocacy or raising awareness, crisis fund raising events, recruitment of personnel and deployment of the Swedish water and sanitation teams.
This preparedness and response strategy is best captured in the MSF (1997) handbook where they spell out four key factors, namely water and sanitation, food, shelter and health care, vital during a humanitarian crisis. As can be seen, water and sanitation also features third on MSF's list of top 10 priorities. 'Food' ranks fourth while 'shelter and site planning' ranks fifth.
An important point noting from our interviews is that, Sweden has a core competence in 'water and sanitation', an element which is crucial during humanitarian missions abroad. This plays well with the need for team of specialists who can handle safe drinking water and human waste disposal, elements crucial for health in the response phase.
In addition, response strategy adopted at the level of the military is the QIP or Quick Impact Projects. The restoration of badly damaged public infrastructure and utilities like roads, power, clearing of airport run ways and water during the response phase of a disaster is worth mentioning as it paves the way for the functioning of NGOs.
Above everything else, 'speed' is an element of this phase. As Chandes & Paché (2010) explains the need for 'speed' as the ability to urgently put together 'intervention teams' whose members know very little about each other little and mobilize huge resources as quickly as possible and also coordinate them.
The idea of postponement manufacturing and positioning of resources was raised during our framework studies and interviews, and this issue is shared by Chandes & Paché (2010) who shed more light on it. As pointed out, the 'efficient pre-positioning of logistical resources' is useful when 'natural or man-made disasters strikes. Instead of passively waiting for crises to occur before pitching humanitarian operations, there is need to show 'proactivity' through the mobilization of material and non-material resources in anticipation. Thus, the location of such resource storage facilities is vital given that a poor location would impair the 'reaction time' and affect the overall implementation of aid supplies.

This stresses once again the aspect of speed and agility in anticipation, mobilization and organization of resources and competences.
Kovacs and Tatham (2009) pick up on this, in their paper on relief chain responsiveness improvement, by stressing on pre-positioning items in regional hubs and the need for information exchange and connectivity between the different aid actors.
Still connected to the need for an effective preparedness and response strategy, Hoffman (2005), using the Indian Ocean tsunami example, recommends the creation of a 'pool of logistics professionals' who could easily be deployed at short notice at both national and international levels. Another recommendation given is the development of a web-based technology software 'that can track and trace relief shipments, retain and transfer knowledge and experience and standardize processes'.

The lessons from this crisis can be used as experience to avert future preparedness and response strategies mistakes.

## 5.2 Organizational structures and funding

As seen from our framework studies, there are broad differences between the structures of the military and humanitarian organizations, and these differences are rooted in their mission and principles of operation.

As evidenced, the military operates a rigid and complex, command structure based on a hierarchical organization. The codified and internal manner in which it processes its information equally explains its 'limited interoperability' in exchanging information or connecting with other heterogeneous humanitarian actors.

This affects coordination strategies with humanitarian organizations. As Rietjens et al (2007) explain, such hierarchical organizations 'have a hard time processing large amounts of information'. If there is to exist better coordination with humanitarians, the authors caution, there is need for 'new design strategies'.

On the other hand, humanitarian organizations show a very dynamic and flexible structure, capable of adapting to disrupted environment and adjusting to cases as they present themselves. As Kovacs and Tatham (2009) point out, the 'establishment of common standards' in the humanitarian network facilitates cooperation, and their versatile structure makes with other actors coordination possible.

Studies and empirical cases show that differences in sources of funding greatly affects the physical and human resources of the military and humanitarian organizations, which goes a long way to determine their logistical capability.

There is a huge outlay of financing options available to NGOs during humanitarian emergencies with 98% of it, in 2008, being cash donations (ICRC, 2008) while others include cash non-operating income, kind donations and service contributions. Also, the donors include private individuals, private companies, corporations, local governments, agencies, foundations and legacies. Funding also comes in through membership fees and sales from Red Cross shops.

Private NGOs like MSF got 84% (MSF, 2008) of their funds, in 2008, from private individuals while the Red Cross, an NGO with an international mandate, gets up to 80% of its fund from government sources. This funding disparity can be explained by fact

that, each country has a Red Cross agency the government plays a supporting role in their upkeep.

On the other hand, military operations are totally bankrolled by money from the government coffers and as the case of the Nordic force reveals, each Norwegian state is responsible for its upkeep during international missions (NORDCAPS, 2009a).

With these differences between funding of NGOs themselves and also the military, one can explain why the Red Cross has offices all over the world while MSF operates only in 70 countries.

One can also explain why the military owns a great physical capital resources capability like helicopters, planes, ships, armored carriers and trucks while NGOs employs cost saving strategies like postponement of ownership, pooling of resources and location close to disaster prone areas (Kovacs & Tatham, 2009), in order to survive.

In addition, with such funds available, the military has a high manpower which it can readily invest in their training while NGOs always have a shortage of personnel and sometimes have to draft in personnel from other organizations.

However, notwithstanding these organizational structure differences, 'effective leadership and organizational strategy, as well as a common need for information, holds considerable promise to help participants in these networks overcome the structural impediments otherwise present to secure a modicum of coordination at the operating level' (Stephenson, 2006, p. 47).

## 5.3 Overlapping roles and conflict

There are varying degrees of overlap between the roles and functions of NGOs and the military, and conflicts are expressed not only in the form of 'NGO versus military' but NGOs on their part do have their own differences and disagreements as our studies have shown.

First, as Rietjens et al (2007) p. 60-61 make clear, there are some positives from overlapping roles. The authors identify the fact that civilian and military organizations are all caught up in a *network of mutuality* where they need each other.

Civilian organizations cannot do their jobs effectively without security on the ground as numerous examples from studies and interviews have shown. In addition, military units sometimes support humanitarian organization activities by providing logistical support like transportation and also engaging in QIPs like restoring basic infrastructure and basic utilities like water, power and roads.

On actions like this, there is a consensus for collaboration and an overlap in roles is not a major concern.

However, the point of departure and conflict comes when the military engages in humanitarian deliveries like water, food, shelter and health services when NGOs have the capacity to handle it. It is on this note that the *marriage of convenience* goes sour.

The fear among NGOs like MSF is that the military uses such humanitarian gestures to 'battle for hearts and minds' while using NGOs as mere 'force multipliers'.

It is against this background that it may be worthwhile giving 'specialist technical support' to logisticians and aid workers when they are called to provide solutions beyond their capability (Whiting, 2009). While speed, an overall factor in logistics, is important in the early stages of the response phase in getting necessary materials and saving lives, operational cost and efficiency comes along the line. This aspect of cost is all the more relevant because most NGOs operate on a small budget and if they are to meet the contingencies of emergency response 'from the provision of food to setting up vital water and sanitation facilities', they will have to operate an *efficient logistics and supply chains*. This humanitarian role could go a long way to reduce some of the reliance on the military.

A prime example of conflict between NGOs and the military was during the devastating earthquake in Haiti that claimed thousands of lives. Jack, Mander & Morris (2010) recount the grievances of MSF who complained several of its planes carrying 'life-saving equipment and medical personnel' had been *blocked* from landing in Haiti's capital, Port-au-Prince.

Meanwhile, jets carrying political figures like US secretary of state Hillary Clinton, and Ban Ki-moon, the UN secretary-general, were able to land. MSF saw this as a case of misplaced *priority* where politicians had the first position over life saving equipments and humanitarian workers.

Conflicts of ideology also exist between NGOs of different shades and background. Stephenson and Schnitzer (2009) notes that some members of 'the international relief system' are split on common principles of action and some international NGOs cannot agree on how to behave as they interact with donors. This failure lies in their inability 'to ascribe in common to a shared set of standards of action and conduct' in spite of their 'collaborative efforts and field-level coordination', 'inter-NGO communication', and desire 'to work together more effectively to advance a humanitarian agenda'. The bone of contention between the Wilsonians (mostly US NGOs) and Dunantist (mostly European NGOs) traditions, as the authors highlight, lies in 'willingness to align themselves with the foreign policies of their respective host nations'.

Dunantists treasure their independence and spare no effort to spar with their home governments and Wilsonians. At the root of this conflict is 'how to interpret the standards of conduct'. NGOs are thus, not unanimously united as one.

## 5.4 Cooperation framework, knowledge sharing and trust

The humanitarian organization fraternity is split on whether cooperation with the military is worth it (Harris & Dombrowski, 2002). According to these authors, instances of collaboration in Cambodia, northern Iraq, Somalia, former Yugoslavia and Rwanda as examples of cooperation with the military paying off. However, our Red Cross empirical study urges a dissociation of humanitarian operations from the military. This explains why the Red Cross views the use of military escorts as compromising their humanitarian identity and neutrality. But the Red Cross will use armed guards and police as a last option to combat criminality.

The role of the military is acknowledged in humanitarian space activities mine clearance activities, keeping roads and airport open and stabilizing security situation.

Knowledge sharing and trust forms the basis of cooperation as our studies have shown. According to Inkpen (1998), unless individual knowledge is shared, its impact on organizational effectiveness will be limited.

While alliance can be vehicle to gain access to knowledge outside traditional organizational boundaries, as our studies have shown, NGOs have categorically stated that under no circumstance are they ready to forge a cooperation framework with the military as long as the latter does not adhere to the humanitarian principles.

But somehow, these two different groups need a way to work together. As Pravon and Sebastian (1998) note *integration* occurs when two or more organizations serving the same client group, work together to satisfy their common client need services. NGOs and the military usually have a common client niche during a crisis situation and somehow need to cooperate.

To begin with, information is vital not only for cross learning purposes but also for coordination. Rietjens et al (2007) call for the development and implementation of innovative "information systems", which can be used to support "lateral relations" between military and civil actors. Such a system would be important in bridging the hurdle of different organizational structures.

Just to emphasis the importance of information sharing, Huesemann (2006, p. 280) notes that 'contrary to physical goods, the value of information rises if it is shared'. In spite of this need for information sharing, there exist barriers to the process including the quest to secure funding by an organization, cultural differences and organizational differences.

In some of our previous studies, the military has been characterized as being open to cooperation while NGOs on the other hand oppose such a move. But as our case Nordic force case study shows, some in the military equally balks at the idea as well. Being part of a UN integrated mission, the Nordic battalion does not always find much reason to partner out of this integrated network given that humanitarian components are part of this group already. Also, according to Harris and Dombrowski (2002), some in the military feel it reduces the military readiness.

Emphasizing the need for collaboration, Berardo (2009) points out that, organizations generally perform much better by adding partners to their network of collaboration as long as this does not degenerate into *complexity*.

Closely linked to the point of view in theoretical framework that trust is a key element in civil-military relations, it is worthwhile to point out that trust is not only between NGOs and military but also with donors. Johnston (2002) writes that trust was identified by major donors as one of the key satisfaction drivers when donating to nonprofit organizations. The position of donors in NGOs cannot be belaboured given that they drive the supply side in any humanitarian crisis situation. So trust also has to be built with them. This view on donors is corroborated by Huesemann (2006) who explains that not only is information sharing should not be limited to civil-military relations, but also donors need to be kept abreast about the activities of the humanitarian organizations, so that they can have a control over happens to funds they provide.

To conclude, in our framework studies, we have proposed a tentative civil-military co-operation model which infuses elements of information processing and sharing, trust and a polycentric structure which gives some independence to the different organizations. These combined together sets the stage for proper coordination.

## 5.5 Civil-military coordination

Coordination takes root after there has been cooperation and trust in the first place.
The importance of coordination cannot be gainsaid. 'The lack of coordination between NGOs, or between NGOs and the private sector, can paralyze the operation of supply chains' (Chandes & Paché, 2010).

As our empirical studies shows, 'coordination' was not an easy term for our respondents to define properly so we had to use 'control' as a synonym.

From our empirical studies on the Red Cross and Nordic force, OCHA was identified as the body responsible for coordinating activities based on a set of rules.

But the criticism of a body like OCHA is that, it was intentionally created to be weak therefore and have few powers to control and enforce binding rules on fellow humanitarian actors (Stephenson & Schnitzer, 2009, Barry & Jefferys, 2002). Under these circumstances, OCHA comes across as a loosely decentralized body with a set of rules for coordinating humanitarian assistance.

Stephenson and Schnitzer (2009) advocates that humanitarian relief organizations have a capacity to align their activities and the ability of organizational leaders to employ *sense-making processes* to cooperate be it through information-sharing, participation in sector-specific cooperation plans or OCHA-sponsored group gatherings (Figure 5.1). The authors argue that it is on the basis of operating within this *social network where actors are linked by a mutual interest* that coordination can take place without a *unifying control*.

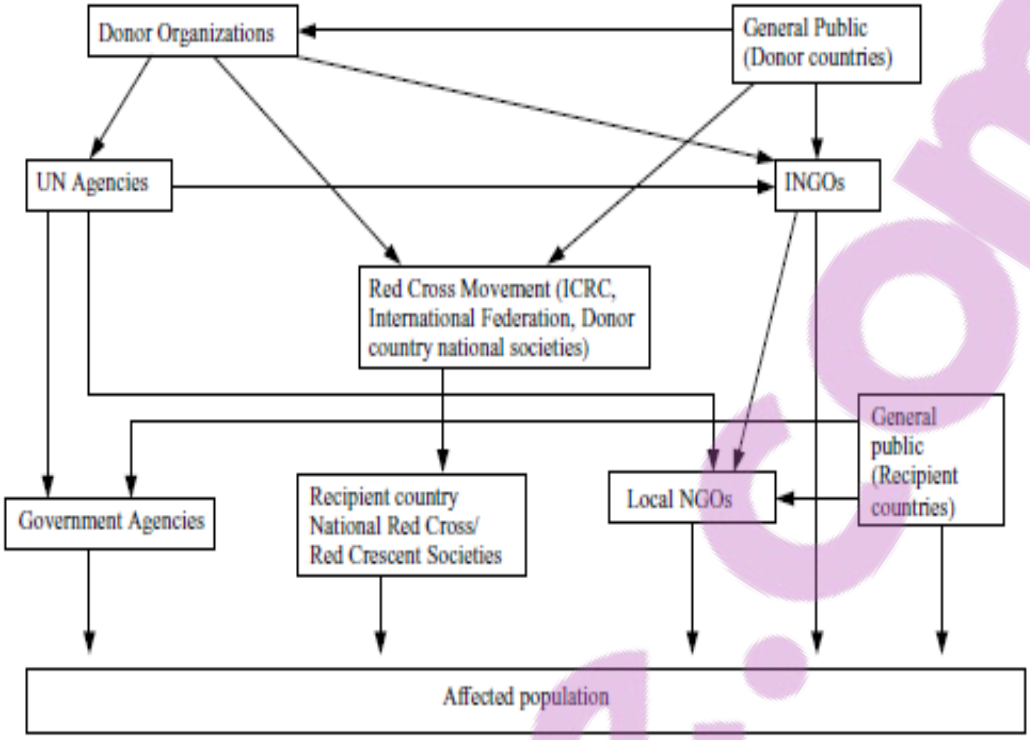


*Figure 5.1 Non-centralized and multi-organizational coordination network (Stephenson, 2006, p. 44)*

As the example of the Nordic force shows, coordination involves agencies like JLOC, and DRSSG.

In conclusion, according to Hoffman (2005), who used the South Asia tsunami as example, the whole idea of getting a proper coordination mechanism between civilian organizations and military sectors need to start before a disaster strikes, during the preparedness phase. In the absence of such mechanisms, logistics problems would abound.

# 6 Conclusions

*This chapter is made of conclusions from our study. This includes conclusions from an analysis of our empirical findings and frame of reference. We will also seek to answer purpose and research questions which we set out at the start of our work.*

Before we examined *civil-military relations during the preparedness and response phase of humanitarian crises* which we set as purpose at the start of our research, we had to make some theoretical and operational definitions. The essence of this was to contextualize terms like *overlap, strategic fit, cooperation* and *coordination* so as to enable the reader grasp their meanings within this study.

A theoretical framework was drawn up based on existing literature and models covering areas like overlapping supply chains, civil-military relations framework, disaster cycle, organizational models, and coordination mechanisms. More so, with empirical findings from the MSF and the Red Cross- as the representatives selected for NGOs- and the Nordic military force, major differences between these two parties were identified in terms of missions, organization structures, source of funding and cooperation frameworks as well as conflicts.

A combination of our framework studies and empirical findings serves as a solid foundation, based on which we came to the analysis, where ideas were further developed and concrete observations were drawn.

Unpredictability and increasing complexity of humanitarian crises justify the employment of adequate strategies in preparedness and response phase by the military and humanitarian organizations. Initial assessment or needs assessment is crucial as it helps not only NGOs in planning but it also provides information to donors. As common sense told us, speed and agility in intervening plays a decisive role in putting together relief teams and carrying out effective operations. Equally, the initiative by NGOs to carry out manufacturing postponement as well as positioning of resources close to the crisis area deserves our full attention. There is also a call for NGOs to set up 'pool of logisticians' or personnel to counter the problem of shortage of staff. The military on its part engages in QIPs during the response phase to pave the way for the flow of humanitarian aid.

To address our research questions, it was reasonable and necessary to examine the distinction as well as consistency in the roles the military and NGOs play in relief operations.

As our research shows, the traditional role of the military is to provide security during humanitarian operations and clear a humanitarian space in which NGOs can operate. Meanwhile, the role of NGOs is making aid deliveries and supplies to disaster victims. But as our studies show, there are varying degrees of overlap in roles which both parties have agreed to abide including the use of military escorts by NGOs, military's engagement in QIPs and employing military logistical support.

In spite of these areas of agreements, there are areas where an overlap of roles has proven negative and degenerated into outright conflict. Cases include military's engagement in aid delivery and the preferential treatment given to flights by politicians over flights with medical aid during crisis situations. Conflicts are also apparent between NGOs themselves with the case of *Wilsonians* against *Dunantists* being a prime example.

Moreover, there are broad differences between the organizational structures and funding processes of military and NGOs. Differences in organizational structures affect their abilities to coordinate activities with other actors, process and share information. A case to point as we developed in empirical findings is that the hierarchical organizational structure of the military greatly hinders information sharing and coordination efforts. Also, funding outlay differences show the military heavily relies on government funds (100%) while an NGO with an international mandate like the Red Cross has an 80% dependency. MSF, an independent NGO has 84% funds from private individuals.

Lastly, in our trying to look for a strategic fit between NGOs and the military, we identified cooperation, trust, information sharing and coordination as crucial. On the issue of cooperating with the military, the humanitarian organization community is split and there are varying degrees to which an NGO is willing to cooperate. But constant interaction and information sharing through an 'information system' is expected to yield trust and that will provide the forum for coordination of activities in the humanitarian arena. As studies reveal, trust is also necessary for NGOs when dealing with donors because donors control the supply side of humanitarianism.

To solve the cooperation and coordination equation, we put forward a proposal combining two working models which incorporates information sharing, trust and a polycentric structure where certain independence of organizations is allowed while maintaining an appropriate level of coordination.

While our study gives just a guide on how to operate in a humanitarian crisis, we are cautioned against thinking 'it would be tempting, but dangerous and inefficient, to think that each natural or man-made disaster is unique, and therefore calls for a customized response from which no general lesson will be learned for future events' Chandes and Paché (2010). As a footnote, while useful similarities can be drawn from a crisis situation, it's difficult to contextualize humanitarian supply chains and standardize civil-military relations.

If the military ever dreams of supporting humanitarian operations, it would have to deal with the absence of 'professional training for soldiers in this area' (Harris & Dombrowski, 2002, p. 171).

Apart from the managerial implications presented above, we identified the theoretical implication of our work lies in the idea that strategic fit can only be attained when the elements of polycentrism, information processing and sharing, trust, cooperation and coordination are present in the humanitarian network.

Based on the introduction, framework of references, data collection, empirical findings and analysis, the purpose of investigating civil-military relations during a humanitarian crisis and looking for a strategic fit among actors has been fulfilled.

# 7 Discussion & ideas for future research

*In this chapter we present discussion based on observations made while carrying out this study, identify some limitations of our work and propose ideas for further research.*

In our study, major differences between NGOs and the military in terms of mandates, principles, organizational structures and roles they play in humanitarian operations were examined. With attempt to explore the possibility of cooperation between these two humanitarian stakeholders, this thesis will contribute to the understanding of civil-military relations during the preparedness and response phases of humanitarian crises. Based on a frame of reference, we established a civil-military framework where the idea that strategic fit can only be attained when trust, information sharing, cooperation and coordination are all present is developed.

In spite of these knowledge contributions, a shortcoming of this work is the small sample size of our empirical study which is very common problem when the unit of analysis is an organizational network made up of different humanitarian, business and military actors. More so, our initial plan when the idea of a thesis was conceived included a case study of an ongoing crisis like the January 12, 2010 Haiti earthquake. We believe a case like this would have given our study more depth and helped to exemplify the practical implications of civil-military framework. However, the idea had to be aborted given that it would have entailed much research time and high cost, which we could not afford while carrying out our research.

Moreover, it's been difficult getting a performance measurement unit of results during our humanitarian logistics studies, something which has overshadowed the formulation of models in our theoretical framework. This left us basing some of our decisions on parameters like 'speed', 'cost', 'getting the right materials to the right place, at the right time', and 'saving lives'.

Also, it was difficult picking out a single model, during this research, which captures all the elements (trust, cooperation, information processing and sharing, coordination) necessary for building a strategic fit among actors. We had to settle for two models which portrayed these elements.

We set out at the start of this paper with the aim of empirically examining civil-military relations during humanitarian crisis situations and attaining a strategic fit among stakeholders, in spite of the existence of conflicts and disagreements. From the outcome of our research, we identified certain areas where further studies could be carried out.

One of such areas could be to determine uniform performance metrics in humanitarian logistics, a crucial element in assessing the performance of actors and also aligning the supply chain network.

Furthermore, although the focus of our work had been placed on the relations between the military and NGOs, it would be of great interest to investigate the cooperation possibilities between humanitarian organizations and private sectors. Therefore, we suggest a future research in this area by gathering empirical information on companies and NGOs.

Still on new areas of research, the collaboration initiatives between UN humanitarian agencies and companies like DHL, TNT could be another possibility for further studies.

Lastly, as revealed in our study, while useful similarities can be drawn between different crisis situations, it's difficult to 'standardize' civil-military relations. To this end, another possibility for future research lies in a comparative study of civil-military cooperation in two different cases.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1: Interview questions

***Interview Questions for Major Jørund Skaali***

Q: What is the major objective of your military force? (I mean the NDCSC or Nordic battalion, whichever takes part in UN operations).

Q: Which organizations does your UN task force partner or collaborate with during a humanitarian crisis situation?

Q: Does such a partnership or collaboration include humanitarian organizations like NGOs? Give examples if any.

Q: What areas of collaboration or cooperation exist between the military and humanitarian organizations? If any exists.

Q: Are there any areas of conflict or disagreement with civil humanitarian organizations like NGOs? Please cite instances.

Q: What do you make of the military's engagement in humanitarian activities like distribution of basic amenities and re-construction activities during a crisis? Is it fair given the criticism from NGOs that they (military) are not neutral and only use such activities to make political gains?

Q: Are there a set of rules or laws governing relations between the military and civil humanitarian organizations like NGOs?

Q: Which body oversees coordination (or control) of activities during a humanitarian crisis situation?

Q: How does the organizational structure of your organization look like?

Q: Where does your organization get its funding from?

Q: Are there any circumstances under which a cooperation framework or agreement can exist between the military and civil humanitarian organizations? What are these conditions?

Q: Whenever there occurs conflicts of interest or misunderstanding between the military (your organization) and civil organizations during a humanitarian crisis, how is it resolved?

Q: What role does the Nordic battalion (I mean your organization) play during a humanitarian crisis situation? Please cite instances.

Q: What is your role or position in your organization?

***Interview Questions with Hans Olsson***

Q: What is the major objective of the Red Cross?

Q: Which organizations do the Red Cross partner or collaborate with during a humanitarian crisis situation?

Q: Does such a partnership or collaboration involve the military or peacekeeping forces?

Q: What areas of collaboration or cooperation exist with the military, if any?

Q: Are there any areas of conflict or disagreement with the military? Please cite instances.

Q: What do you make of the military's engagement in humanitarian operations like distribution of basic amenities or serving as an aid organization?
Q: Are there a set of rules or laws binding relations between NGOs like Red Cross and the military?
Q: Which organization oversees coordination (or control) of activities during a humanitarian crisis situation?
Q: What do you make of organizations like MSF like working independently from other humanitarian organizations?

Q: How does the organizational structure of the Red Cross look like?

Q: You talked about the Red Cross working through its country agency in this network, how do work during the preparedness phase prior to a humanitarian crisis?

Q: When the Red Cross is about to respond to a crisis situation, how does the local Red Cross agency coordinate with the parent organization to get help for that particular crisis?

Q: Where does the Red Cross gets its funding from?

Q: Are there any circumstances under which a cooperation framework or agreement can exist between Red Cross and the military? What are the conditions?

Q: Whenever there occurs conflicts or misunderstanding between Red Cross and the military or another organization, how is it resolved?

Q: What role does Red Cross Jonkoping play during a humanitarian crisis situation? Please cite instances.

Q: Apart from money is there any other thing sent as well?

Q: Thanks very much for your time and effort.

***Interview Questions for Stig Andersson***

Q: What is your position in the Red Cross Gothenburg?

Q: Is your previous experience gained through the Red Cross Gothenburg or others?

Q: What do you think the major objective of the Red Cross is, no matter in Sweden or abroad, internationally?

Q: Where do you get the funding from?

Q: Does the Red Cross engage in any humanitarian relief operations, like in, for example, the earthquake, tsunami?

Q: The partners/ organizations the Red Cross cooperate in humanitarian crisis situation? If any.

Q: Are the army or peacekeeping forces also involved in the cooperation?

Q: How about the national military?

Q: Do you think if there are areas where conflicts or disagreements with the military could arise?

Q: Are there any sets of rule or laws binding the relations between the NGOs and the military?

Q: Can you describe what the organizational structure of the Red Cross look like?

Q: Based on your previous experience, is there any misunderstanding between the Red Cross and Military?

***Interview Questions for Johan Mast***

Q: What is the major objective of MSF?

Q: What activities does MSF carry out during the preparedness and response phase of a humanitarian crisis?

Q: Which organizations does MSF partner or collaborate with during a humanitarian crisis situation?

Q: Does such a partnership or collaboration involve the military or peacekeeping forces?

Q: What areas of collaboration or cooperation exist with the military, if any?

Q: Are there any areas of conflict or disagreement with the military? Please cite instances.

Q: What do you make of the military's engagement in humanitarian operations?

Q: Are there a set of rules or laws binding relations between NGOs like MSF and the military?

Q: Which organization oversees coordination (or control) of activities during a humanitarian crisis situation?

Q: How does the organizational structure of MSF look like?

Q: Where does MSF get its funding from?

Q: Are there any circumstances under which a cooperation framework or agreement can exist between MSF and the military? What are the conditions?

Q: Whenever there occurs conflict or misunderstanding between the MSF and the military or another organization, how is it resolved?

Q: Apart from the use of dialogue in resolving differences between MSF and other players during humanitarian missions, can MSF settle for arbitration by a higher body like UN?

Q: What role does MSF Stockholm play during a humanitarian crisis situation? Please cite instances.

Q: What's the position of Johan Mast in MSF, Sweden?

## Appendix 2: List of respondents

**Médecins Sans Frontières, Sweden**
Johan Mast serves as Field worker and Logistician for MSF in Stockholm.
We had an email interview on April 15, 2010 and a follow up phone interview at 3 pm on the same day during which we ironed out some arising filter questions.

**Red Cross, Sweden**
Hasse Olson serves as the Communications & Fundraising Coordinator of Swedish Red Cross, Gota Region, with offices on Ostra Storgatan7, Jonkoping. We had a face-to-face 30 minute interview on April 14, 2010 at 13.00. We agreed to get back to the interviewer for more inquiries if need be.

Stig Andersson serves as the Chairman of Göteborg Branch, Swedish Red Cross, with office on Första Långgatan 28 C, Göteborg. We had a face-to-face 40-minute interview on April 19, 2010 at 08.10. We agreed to get back to the interviewer for more inquiries if need be.

**Norwegian Defense & Staff College**
Tore Listou directed us to Jørund Skaali (a Major in the Norwegian Defense & Staff College/NODEFIC) in a quest for an interview with the military.
We had an email interview with Major Jørund Skaali on April 16 and promised to have some follow-up phone interviews on arising filter questions.