

## **Alliance performance to integrate higher education: Smarter partners with shared values and capacity building**

*Carolyn Dickie<sup>1</sup>, Laurie Dickie<sup>2</sup>*

*(1. School of Management, Curtin University of Technology, Perth 6845, Australia;*

*2. Curtin University of Technology, Perth 6845, Australia)*

**Abstract:** Demands by internal and external accreditation groups, whether governmental or professional, has resulted in education providers being more aware of partnership paradigms that develop institutional quality for mutual benefit. The focus of this article is to examine current research on educational partnerships in South-East Asia, identify purposes of academic alliances and report on collective goals, expectations and principles that academics have in relation to cross-institutional relationships. A three-round Delphi technique was used to examine the pros and cons of partnerships, how partnerships could be made more successful and to identify specific actions that individual academics could undertake to develop smarter partnerships. A conceptual framework of alliance performance is suggested and the management of a partnership is addressed in relation to shared values, capacity building and the role of an alliance manager.

**Key words:** alliance performance; shared values; capacity building; education partnerships

### **1. Introduction**

Offshore education partnership fever has developed into a world-wide syndrome which alternatively may be seen as “burgeoning” or “deteriorating” (Heffernan & Poole, 2004).

At the same time, the role of community-university partnerships has been reported as gaining momentum as a powerful force in revitalising communities, fostering civic engagement and strengthening the core missions of higher education (Seifer & Carriere, 2003). However, although partnerships are comprised of leading institutions which are powerful economic drivers, technology centres, educators, employers, developers and investors, the contention is that there is a concomitant need to understand the purposes of continuous quality improvement, knowledge advancement and new partnership development within and among universities themselves.

The word “partner” itself is indicative of persons who are “fully” and “mutually” engaged on a day-to-day basis in making their lives, their universities and their communities better. Thus, the challenge is to ginger the spirit and mettle of cross-institutional relationships; i.e., to change understanding and expectations into actions by stimulating and enlivening academic relationships among institutions. The advent of demands to forge new alliances, by external accreditation groups whether governmental or professional, has resulted in universities being more aware of the demands to generate, disseminate and exchange ideas in appropriate partnership paradigms and implement interactions which can inspire individuals and develop institutional quality for mutual benefit.

---

Carolyn Dickie, Ph.D., lecturer, School of Management, Curtin University of Technology; research fields: student education and student experience, cross cultural issues and ethics in business.

Laurie Dickie, associate professor, Curtin University of Technology; research fields: student education and engagement, organizational development, multi-disciplinary teaching and research.

Oliver (1990) posited six contingencies which can prompt the establishment of inter-organisational partnerships, they include reasons of: (1) necessity—to meet legal or regulatory requirements; (2) asymmetry—to exercise power or control; (3) reciprocity—to pursue common goals; (4) efficiency—to improve internal and external outcomes; (5) stability—to respond to environmental uncertainty; and (6) legitimacy—to show agreement with prevailing norms.

Similarly, it has been argued (Koch, 2002; Auster, 1994) that research on partnerships is grounded in perspectives from strategy, transaction cost theory, ecological theory and resource dependency theory. Subsequently, Dealtry (2008) determined that, in the Asia-Pacific region, learning alliances could be grouped into four types viz., acquisition, mutually co-operative, new business and expertise alliances.

Within these concepts, the term “partnership” has been used to describe co-operating universities and tends to assume a reciprocal academic relationship exists. However, embracing the concept means more than just listing it as a priority; “It’s meant making it part of the social milieu of the university, the very fabric that ties us together and binds us with you” (Jaffer, 2003, p. 1). Consequently, despite there being a dearth of effective or agreed techniques for translating ideals into practice, consistent demands by academics in partner institutions in sundry South-East Asian countries for opportunities to interact with an Australian partner, and vice versa, alliance building has been identified as an issue worthy of serious dialogue within the framework of: (1) developing new understandings of each partner’s interests, capabilities and limitations; (2) providing opportunities for diverse and complementary learning; (3) identifying expectations of partners in the relationship; (4) recognising barriers which may hamper achievement of improved partner relationships; and (5) articulating means for achieving greater reciprocity and mutual benefit.

## **2. Purposes of academic alliances**

Each specific relationship between Curtin Business School (CBS) and its overseas partner institutions is based on a Memorandum of Agreement which leads to the delivery of university courses to students. The result is occasional interaction between administrators and faculty members in the two organisations, and an evaluation of the course in terms of its financial “bottom-line”. However, the performance of a genuine alliance holds the promise of leading directly to student and faculty members benefiting from teaching and learning, research and societal outcomes. Partner institutions are challenged to develop multi-disciplinary teams that can devise, implement and develop co-operative ventures between the partners, e.g., a planned approach may result in:

- (1) Furthering of scholarship and university life;
- (2) Provision of venues for study abroad and student exchange;
- (3) Building and strengthening of research links;
- (4) Opportunities for staff exchanges, co-teaching, study leave;
- (5) Generating co-operative research, writing and publication;
- (6) Building the partner’s brand, reputation and profile;
- (7) Improving the base for recruitment of fee-paying international students;
- (8) Meeting of goals of diversity and internationalisation;
- (9) Drawing the corporate sector into co-operative research projects;
- (10) Linking alumni with employment of graduates;
- (11) Assisting demonstration of quality required by audit & accreditation groups;

- (12) Focussing access to teaching and research funds;
- (13) Establishment of co-operative centres.

This partial list of potentially advantageous outcomes is indicative of an organisational environment where relevant, in-depth learning is becoming a critical source of competitive advantage. Similarly, there is a need for the development of a superior capacity to investigate and resolve business problems as a vital skill for those seeking tangible benefits in identification of the form of global best practice. Fundamental relationships cannot develop on a “no-cost” basis, but universities are missing the point if they use financial measures as the only reason for providing opportunities for significant research and teaching partnerships; especially as “business research has weathered substantial criticism recently—it’s been described as too theoretical, too academic, and too distant from the immediate real world concerns of business” (Anonymous, 2005, p. 34).

### **3. Delphi research on smarter partners**

Prior to making specific suggestions on the opportunity to stimulate cross-institutional relationships, it was considered necessary to have an accurate understanding of individual and collective goals, expectations or principles that academics have of potential partnerships. Therefore, the Delphi technique was chosen for a three-stage, preliminary investigation to allow a panel of relevant “experts” to explore the topic of academic partnerships and arrive at a consensus opinion regarding future developments (Ono & Wedemeyer, 1994); the strategy used the four classical Delphi features (Skulmoski, Hartman & Krahn, 2007) of anonymity of participants, iteration, controlled feedback and statistical aggregation of group responses. Participants were asked to respond to five questions viz.:

- (1) What specific factors contribute to a successful partnership?
- (2) What barriers interfere with a successful partnership?
- (3) What would you most like CBS to do to make the partnership successful?
- (4) What would you most like the overseas institution to do to make the partnership successful?
- (5) What should individual academics do together to make the partnership successful?

The same five questions were emailed to participants in each of three rounds. Round 1 asked each respondent for their personal response to the questions; in Rounds 2 and 3, each participant received a copy of the anonymous responses of the whole participant group, and consensus was sought by asking them to pare down the number of responses. Participants comprised of a purposive sample of 12 CBS academics, two drawn from each of the six sub-schools in the business division. Similarly, 12 overseas academics were selected to represent their tertiary institutions which taught CBS programs; the participants were from 3 universities in China, 1 in Malaysia and 2 in Singapore.

#### **(1) Round 1**

In Round 1, the purpose was to have the participants brainstorm the research concepts. They were asked to dot-point a list of responses to each of the five questions; there was no discussion with, or guidance to, participants. The number of independent responses for each of the sub-questions was Question 1 (42), Question 2 (34), Question 3 (37), Question 4 (31) and Question 5 (33). A majority of the items was listed by only one person, and the maximum number of persons nominating one particular response was five. The results were listed, without ranking, and formed the basis of Round 2 of the research.

#### **(2) Round 2**

In Round 2, participants were able to consider the total number of responses of other participants in Round 1. Then, they were asked to reduce the list of items in each question to indicate their personal choice of the top 10 items. By aggregating the scores of respondents, the researcher reduced the total number of responses to the “top ten” items in each question; the resultant consensus is shown in Tables 1-3. The “top ten” responses to each question became the basis for Round 3.

**Table 1 Positive and barrier factors of alliances**

Question 1—Positive factors	Question 2—Barrier factors
Trust	Different partner agendas
Information sharing	Lack of knowledge, expectations
Regular communication	Different culture
Better understanding	Unable to agree
Understand others’ requirements	Not the same vision
Regular dialogue	Little communication/understanding
Align vision, goals, culture	Lack of trust
Shared understanding	One-way relationship
Win-win agreement	Slow turn arounds
Co-operation	Inequitable benefits

**Table 2 CBS and overseas partnership actions**

Question 3—CBS action	Question 4—Overseas action
Monitor/control performance	Monitor success
Early information	Clear communication
Visit CBS campus/facilities	Administration teleconferences
Constant dialogue	Access to learning resources
Reduce student confusion	Academic support
Use accessible data-base	Local lecturers—CBS certified
Assign set program managers	Annual calendars
Faster international response	Local exam questions
More resources to local centre	Put forum on web-site
Keep partner in decision loop	Regular information sharing

**Table 3 Academic interaction**

Question 5—Individuals’ co-operation
Better communication/co-ordination
Highlight discrepancies
Be more proactive
Feedback on issues/successes
Support partner undertakings
Understand direction of partner
Be effective/efficient
Share program development
Seek information clarification
Direct contact with unit lecturer

(3) Round 3

The final round of analysis followed a similar process to the earlier two rounds. Research participants were given the opportunity to view the “top ten” responses of the whole group and were invited to comment on the emerging and collective perspective of the research group. In Round 3, participants were not asked to reduce the list of ten items, but to rank their selected top 5 answers in the list, starting with “1 = most important”. The change in selection method meant that more specific information was available to the researcher. Following analysis, the Delphi process was stopped because it was considered that adequate consensus had been reached, sufficient information had been exchanged and theoretical saturation achieved.

The top five responses in each category are shown below in Tables 4-6. Consensus results are ranked with the most important response at the top of each list.

**Table 4 Top positive and barrier factors**

Question 1—Positive factors	Question 2—Barrier factors
Win-win agreement Understand others' requirements Regular dialogue Regular communication Trust	Different partner agendas Little communication/understanding Lack of knowledge, expectations Not the same vision Unable to agree

**Table 5 Partner actions**

Question 3—CBS action	Question 4—Overseas action
Early information Reduce student confusion Assign set program managers Monitor/control performance Faster international response	Academic support Local lecturers – CBS certified Access to learning resources Clear communication Monitor success

**Table 6 Academic alliances**

Question 5—Individuals' co-operation
Better communication/co-ordination Feedback on issues/successes Share program development Be effective/efficient Direct contact with unit lecturer

#### **4. Alliance performance**

It is suggested that, despite a modicum of well-intentioned suggestions for the development of collective efforts to promote academic partnerships, cross-institutional contacts have devolved into delivery to students of specific courses that have lacked focus; i.e., they are too scattered, too piecemeal, too marginal to effect a competitive edge for the universities involved. It is evident that universities need more help in creating and sustaining effective partnership strategies because having a “teaching programme”, even a comprehensive one, may not be enough. Research indicates that alliances have become an increasingly popular strategy used by organisations to complement and strengthen their activities (Faems, et al., 2005).

McNerney (2006, p. 3), CEO of Boeing Company has described lapses in the company as “not part of a systemic problem, but (of) weaknesses in our structure and in our culture”. Consequently, Boeing chose to make three changes; it wanted employees to (1) get committed and get aligned, (2) open up the culture, and (3) drive ethics leadership throughout everyday activities.

By substituting “alliance performance” for the term “ethics leadership”, it is possible to develop a connection between partnership and competitive advantage that leads to caring, motivated people who can really make a difference.

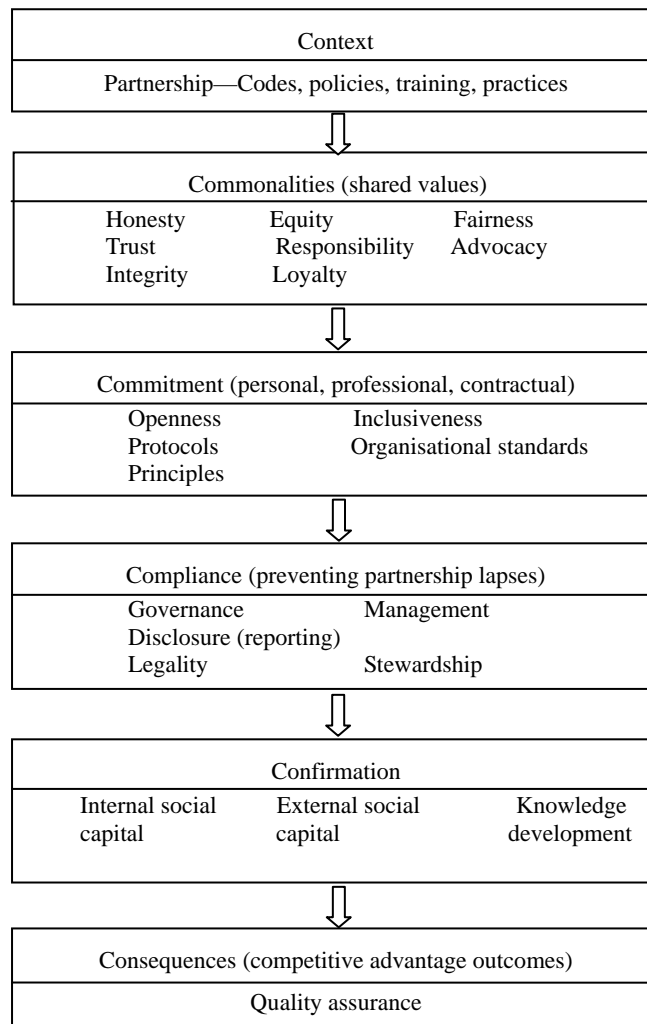
Alliance performance has attracted a great deal of research attention in the past decade (Das & Teng, 2003; Ireland, Hitt & Vaidyanath, 2002). Furthermore, Suseno and Ratten (2007, pp. 4-5) note that incentives for institutions to use alliances have been promoted for a number of reasons; they are:

- (1) Capture cross-business synergies in delivering customer value (Kale, Singh & Permutter, 2000);
- (2) Attain scale economies and increase productivity through use of varied resources and skills (Chung,

Singh & Lee, 2000);

- (3) Enhance company reputation (Varadarajan & Cunningham, 1995);
- (4) Access distinct capabilities (Baum, Calabrese & Silverman, 2000);
- (5) Produce innovative products and services (Deeds & Hill, 1996; Powell, Koput & Smith-Doerr, 1996);
- (6) Share external risks and uncertainties (Cravens, Piercy & Cravens, 2000).

Thus, comparable reasons can be advanced for using alliances among individuals, groups of employees and across organizations to develop competitive advantages for academic institutions. The argument, then, can be extended to propose that the implementation of appropriate attitudes and behaviours in a university can be implemented by faculty members sharing knowledge, learning from each other and creating a co-operative climate that enhances the development of their own core competencies to achieve the institutional objectives.



**Figure 1 6Cs model of alliance performance**

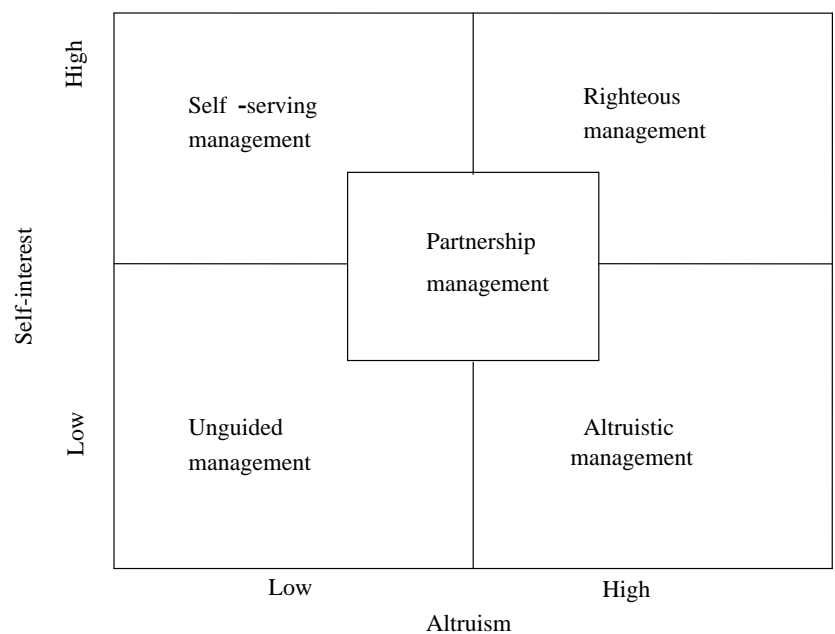
The perspective of combining the dynamic factors of personal, professional and organisational alliances with those of business leads to the term of “alliance performance”. In the current paper, a model of “alliance performance” is promulgated as a theoretical and practical perspective which results in all employees being involved in facilitating the achievement of beneficial competitive advantage outcomes for their university by

means of intentional collaboration. “Alliance performance” illustrates a model of collaboration whereby faculty and student understandings and behaviours are able to inject partnership into what has been called “the DNA of business” (Green, 2007).

Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual framework of “alliance performance”, promulgated by the authors, which is comprised of six fundamental aspects: context, commonalities, commitment, compliance, confirmation and consequences, all of which take institutions beyond the MOA or Programme Delivery Agreement. The alliance factor may be regarded as connections among these six aspects of formal partnership principles, augmented by a substantial level of “communication” which may be viewed as providing essential feedback to all stakeholders. Moreover, the alliance of people within a university, and its alliance with its broader national and international community, can be assessed in terms of social, environmental and financial responsibilities that bring advantages to the university and its markets to effect successful outcomes illustrated in an array of complementary “bottom lines”.

### 5. A typology of management

Formerly, university authorities responsible for managing the institution’s “bottom line” may well have been inspired by an economics that is based on intrinsic self-interest as the only worthwhile and rational motivator of human behaviour. On the other hand, an extrinsic and altruistic dimension is distinguished from common forms of instrumental self-serving aimed at gaining legitimacy and resources (Brunsson, 1989; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Using self-interest and altruism as the basis for a two-dimensional grid to describe forms of management, it has been suggested that four distinct types of management behaviour can be determined (Birnik & Billsberry, 2008); unguided, self-serving, altruistic and righteous management.



**Figure 2 Alliance/Partnership management**

Note: Birnik & Billsberry (2008, p. 992).

However, it is proposed that a fifth alternative type of management is necessary to make partnerships more dynamic (Figure 2); alliance management, which can be drawn from a wide variety of disciplines, is a mean to ensure balance and pluralism. A partnership is sought which can protect and promote the performance of all persons associated with the alliance.

The alliance performance concept fits closely with the AACSB (2007, p. 11) comment that “the value proposition for business-school based research rests on three important foundations: independence, rigor, and cross-fertilization. Collegiate business schools build and maintain an environment designed to support the pursuit of original ideas about business processes and organizations through scholarly enquiry”. Thus, value is promulgated in co-operating partnerships by collaboration among students and faculty to represent a wide range of functional expertise that engages with shared agendas.

## **6. Shared values**

The first three Cs of the alliance performance model, context, commonalities and commitment are closely aligned to the concept of shared values which can be developed to augment the social capital of partner institutions; i.e., the resources are immersed in the social structures and university relationships (Coleman, 1988). Social capital has been recognised to produce a positive influence in organisations (Tsai & Goshal, 1998), in industry networks (Walker, Kogut & Shan, 1997) and inter-organisational levels of relationships (Ring & Van de Ven, 1994). Specifically, Suseno and Ratten (2007) quote from Mele (2003, p. 8) who indicates that:

- (1) Social capital facilitates inter-unit resource exchanges and product innovation;
- (2) The creation of intellectual capital and cross-functional team effectiveness;
- (3) Reduces turnover rates and organisational dissolution rates, strengthens supplier;
- (4) Relations, regional production networks, and inter-firm learning.

The concept of determining and embedding shared values into a partnership, reinforced by feelings of trust and reciprocity, facilitate better outcomes for both institutions because both parties commit a significant amount of their resources (Uzzi, 1996).

With the advent of a partnership, opportunities for organisational renewal and growth require a high degree of trust among members and a preparedness to invoke cooperative plans. As with any large organisation, members of university partners need support, time and opportunity to establish conditions for trust; e.g., priority mutual needs, personal relationships, joint leaders, shared objectives, safeguards, commitment, adaptable organisations and continuity of service (Lewis, 1999). As is the case with other values, the acquisition of trust does not occur overnight; nor by accident. Often, alliance performance managers find it necessary to require members to undertake specific training in order to meet the needs of agreed processes that will effect improvement through the partnering experiences. Positive outcomes are achieved through understanding the division of labour and simplified decision-making and provision of procedures for the integration of dispersed activities (Mellewigt, et al., 2007; Reuer & Arino, 2007). One mean of creating social capital, shared values and strong academic communities is by using “capacity building” as an approach to establish sustainable operational collaboration able to meet projected goals.

## **7. Capacity building**

The last three Cs of the alliance performance model can be achieved by means of implementing capacity



building if development is to be sustainable and centred in people. Eade (1997, p. 24) defined capacity building as “an approach to development not something separate from it ... necessary to support the various capacities ...; intellectual, organisational, social, political, cultural, material, practical, or financial”. As such, capacity building does not create a dependency or weaken either the university or its members, nor is it solely concerned with financial sustainability.

The quality of an alliance depends on mutual learning and agreed decision-making which occurs in relation to the identification of general and specific goals by which collaborative, partner universities are able to specify missions which are appropriate, coherent and able to be fulfilled. Furthermore, levels of adaptation to change need to be negotiated to identify the procedures related to the management of resources and the co-operative will to continue interventions.

In effect, as articulated by Eade (1997, p. 35), capacity building needs to be recognised as:

- (1) A means of strengthening the capacity of primary stakeholders and their activities;
- (2) A process of reflection, leadership, inspiration, adaptation and search whereby communication can improve the ability of a society;
- (3) Ending with defined objectives which enable the alliance to survive and fulfil its mission.

### **8. Alliance manager**

Because academics are less likely to have direct contact with strategic, institutional leaders, it is important to examine in detail the hierarchical nature of university leadership that may either contribute to, or detract from, the planned capacity building and resultant institutional alliances. In a study on creating strategic alliances that endure, Spekman, et al (1996) found unequivocal support for the importance and centrality of an alliance manager; they also identified a number of characteristics required for the role (Table 7). Thus, an alliance manager may be a person charged with carrying the 6Cs model of alliance performance forward at each stage of its life cycle. Such a person would be a strategic sponsor—a combination of visionary and emissary, an advocate who carries the alliance dream and rallies academics through being a networker, facilitator, trainer, mediator, manager and counsellor as transitions are made to allow the partnership model to be harmonised with current regulatory models. Because strategic alliances appear to be a continuing trend, alliance managers must understand them from the perspectives of individuals and institutions, practitioners and researchers.

**Table 7 Alliance manager characteristics**

“Unteachable” competencies		
The alliance perspective—good managers “think” and “see the world differently”		
Willing to change self to accommodate others Willing to consider other person’s point of view Simultaneously consider multiple points of view Learn from past but are not constrained by it Willing to take losses in return for future gains	Virtual thinking Optimistic Clever and creative Eager to embrace other cultures Pragmatic Vigilant Questioning	
“Teachable” competencies		
Functional Line skills Staff skills Educational background-alliance General business knowledge	Earned Credibility and respect Extensive networks -organisational -industry	Interpersonal Social skills Process skills Tact/sensitivity Cross-cultural skills

Source: Spekman, et al. (1996, p. 354).

Pett and Dibrell (2001) illustrated the characteristics of relationships that influence alliance participation and identified four stages of development, the stages being:

- (1) Exploratory—involving preliminary discussions;
- (2) Recurrent contracts—evaluating risk and exploring shared motives;
- (3) Relational contracts—establishing long term motives and environment;
- (4) Outcome—confirming competitive edge from quality output demonstrating new skills, competencies and learning.

At each stage of the process, factors in the 6Cs model of alliance performance can be used to maximise the effects of the alliance.

## **9. Conclusion**

The set of operational possibilities available to alliance performance managers is not a completely open-ended contract. Managers work within an environment of considerable restraints, regulations that limit budgetary expenditure and restricted personnel planning; these impose limitations on a university's ability to respond to local and overseas opportunities. However, there is a need to discover methods for breaking organisational patterns of response to alliance opportunities in an effort to encourage idiosyncratic variation and learning to produce greater outcomes allied to partnership potential.

Appropriate university professionals could be labelled “maximum uncertainty managers” and empowered to enhance alliance performance by exercising capacity building and values-sharing as the means of integrating a smarter form of partnership to maximize individual and institutional learning.

### **References:**

- AACSB. (2007). *Report of the AACSB international impact of research task force*. AACSB International; St Louis.
- Anonymous. (2005). From “think tank” to “do tank”. *BizEd*, IV(3), 34-35.
- Auster, E. (1994). Macro and strategic perspectives on interorganizational linkages: A comparative analysis and review with suggestions for reorientation. In: P. Shrivasta, A. S. Huff & J. E. Dutton. (Eds.). *Advances in strategic management*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 3-40.
- Baum, J. A. C., Calabrese, T. & Silverman, B. S. (2000). Don't go-it alone: Alliance network composition and start-ups' performance in Canadian biotechnology. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(3), 267-294.
- Birnik, A. & Billsberry, J. (2008). Re-orienting the business school agenda: The case for relevance, rigor and righteousness. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82(4), 985-999.
- Brunsson, N. (1989). *The organization of hypocrisy: Talk, decisions and actions in organizations*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
- Chung, S., Singh, H. & Lee, K. (2000). Complementarity, status similarity, and social capital as drivers of alliance formation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(1), 1-22.
- Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94(suppl.), S95-S120.
- Cravens, K., Piercy, N. & Cravens, D. (2000). Assessing the performance of strategic alliances: Matching metrics to strategies. *European Management Journal*, 18(5), 529-541.
- Das, T. K. & Teng, B. S. (2003). Partner analysis and alliance performance. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 26(1), 279-308.
- Dealtry, R. (2008). Exploration of a contextual management framework for strategic learning alliances. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 20(6), 443-452.
- Deeds, D. L. & Hill, C. W. L. (1996). Strategic alliances and the rate of new product development: An empirical study of entrepreneurial biotechnology firms. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 11(1), 41-55.
- Eade, D. (1997). *Capacity building: An approach to people-centred development*. Oxford: Oxfam.
- Faems, D., Van Looy, B. & Debackere, K. (2005). Interorganisational collaboration and innovation: Toward a portfolio approach. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 22(2), 238-250.

- Green, P. L. (2007). A question of principles. *Global Finance*, 21(4), 16-19.
- Heffernan, T. & Poole, D. (2004). Catch me I'm falling: Key factors in the deterioration of offshore education partnerships. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 26(1), 75-90.
- Ireland, R. D., Hitt, M. A. & Vaidyanath, D. (2002). Managing strategic alliances to achieve a competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 28(3), 413-441.
- Jaffer, N. (2003). *Successful partnerships @ Curtin*. Retrieved from <http://alumninews.curtin.edu.au/> 2 pages.
- Kale, P., Singh, H. & Permuter, H. (2000). Learning and protection of proprietary assets in strategic alliances: Building relational capital. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(3), 217-237.
- Koch, H. (2002). Business-to-business electronic commerce marketplaces: The alliance process. *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research*, 3(2), 67-76.
- Lewis, J. D. (1999). *Trusted partners: How companies build mutual trust and win together*. New York: The Free Press.
- McNerny, J. (2006, Apr. 27). Turning ethics and compliance into a competitive advantage. *The 2006 Ethics and Compliance Conference*, Hilton La Jolla Pines; La Jolla, CA. Retrieved July 11, 2007, from [http://www.boeing.com/news/speeches/2006/mcnerny\\_060427.html](http://www.boeing.com/news/speeches/2006/mcnerny_060427.html).
- Mele, D. (2003). Organizational humanizing cultures: Do they generate social capital? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 45(1), 3-14.
- Mellewigt, T., Madhok, A. & Weibel, A. (2007). Trust and formal contracts in interorganisational relationships—Substitutes and complements. *Managerial and Decision Economics*, 28(8), 833-847.
- Oliver, C. (1990). Determinants of interorganizational relationships: Integration and future directions. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(2), 241-265.
- Ono, R. & Wedemeyer, D. (1994). Assessing the validity of the Delphi technique. *Futures*, 26(3), 289-305.
- Pett, T. L. & Dibrell, C. C. (2001). A process model of global strategic management alliance formation. *Business Process Management Journal*, 7(4), 349-364.
- Pfeffer, J. & Selancik, G. R. (1978). *The external control of organizations*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Powell, W. W., Koput, K. W. & Smith-Doerr, L. (1996). Interorganisational collaboration and the locus of innovation: Networks of learning in biotechnology. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(1), 116-145.
- Reuer, J. J. & Arino, A. (2007). Strategic alliance contracts: Dimensions and determinants of contractual complexity. *Strategic Management Journal*, 28(3), 313-330.
- Ring, P. S. & Van de Ven, A. H. (1994). Developmental processes of co-operative interorganisational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 19(1), 90-118.
- Seifer, S. D. & Carriere, A. W. (200, Apr.). Symposium overview. *National Symposium on Community-University Partnerships, Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (CCPH)*.
- Skulmoski, G. J., Hatman, F. T. & Krahn, J. (2007). The Delphi method for graduate research. *Journal of Information Technology Education*, 6, 1-21.
- Spekman, R. E., Isabella, L. A., Macavoy, T. C. & Forbes III, T. (1996). Creating strategic alliances which endure. *Long Range Planning*, 29(3), 346-357.
- Suseno, Y. & Ratten, V. (2007). A theoretical framework of alliance performance: The role of trust, social capital and knowledge development. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 13(1), 4-23.
- Tsai, W. & Goshal, S. (1998). Social capital and value creation: An empirical study of intra-firm networks. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(4), 464-476.
- Uzzi, B. (1996). The sources and consequences of embeddedness for the economic performance of organizations: The network effect. *American Sociological Review*, 61(4), 1150-1174.
- Varadarajan, P. R. & Cunningham, M. H. (1995). Strategic alliances: A synthesis of conceptual foundations. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(4), 282-296.
- Walker, G., Kogut, B. & Shan, W. (1997). Social capital, structural holes and the formation of an industry network. *Organisation Science*, 8(2), 109-125.

(Edited by Max and Maggie)