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Institutionalizing the Principles of Partnering

Milagros Pinto-Nunez
Iowa State University

Douglas D. Gransberg
Iowa State University, dgran@iastate.edu

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Institutionalizing the Principles of Partnering

Abstract

The benefits that formal partnering on commercial building construction projects regarding the reduction of claims is widely recognized. However, there are no recent formal studies that describe the overall impact of formal partnering in terms of minimizing legal disputes in the transportation sector. A recent American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) survey found that a number of public agencies have dropped formal partnering because they found that the costs no longer were offset by the value of minimizing the legal conflicts. Using classic organizational management theory as its backdrop, this paper hypothesizes that those agencies that discontinued formal partnering have fully institutionalized the salient principles of partnering, such as increased collaboration, communication, and trust-building and no longer need to invest the resources to perpetuate a formal project-level partnering process. The paper bases this assertion on the analysis of the claims history found in four state departments of transportation. The study compared the mean project claims the cost of the two agencies that formally partner most major projects to the claims record of the two that no longer employ formal partnering. The analysis finds that there is no statistically significant difference in the cost of claims between the two groups. Hence, the paper concludes that the two agencies that stopped using formal partnering had successfully institutionalized the precepts of partnering.

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1 **Institutionalizing the Principles of Partnering.**

2

3 **Milagros Pinto-Nunez***

4 Graduate Research Assistant

5 Iowa State University,

6 Department of Civil, Construction, and Environmental Engineering

7 494 Town Engineering Building

8 Ames, Iowa 50011

9 515-735-6673

10 mpinto13@iastate.edu

11

12 **Douglas D. Gransberg, PhD, PE**

13 Professor

14 Iowa State University,

15 Department of Civil, Construction, and Environmental Engineering

16 494 Town Engineering Building

17 Ames, Iowa 50011

18 515-294-4148

19 dgran@iastate.edu

20

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26 *Corresponding author

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28 While the benefits that formal partnering is widely recognized to reduce claims on commercial
29 building construction projects, there is no recent research on the topic in the transportation
30 sector. A recent AASHTO survey found that a number of public agencies have dropped formal
31 partnering because they found that its costs no longer were offset by the value of minimizing the
32 legal conflicts. Using classic organizational management theory as its backdrop, this paper
33 hypothesizes that those agencies that discontinued formal partnering have fully institutionalized
34 the salient principles of partnering, such as increased collaboration, communication, and trust-
35 building, and as a result, no longer need to invest the resources necessary to perpetuate a project-
36 level formal partnering process. The paper bases this assertion on the analysis of the claims
37 history found in four state departments of transportation. The study compared the mean project
38 claims cost of two agencies that formally partner most major projects to the claims record of the
39 two that no longer employ formal partnering. The analysis finds that there is no statistically
40 significant difference in the cost of claims between the two groups. Hence, the paper concludes
41 that the two agencies that stopped using formal partnering had successfully institutionalized the
42 precepts of partnering.

1 **INTRODUCTION**

2 Partnering in the transportation sector is a program that is about two decades old. Most public
3 agencies and contractors agree that partnering has beneficial aspects that have been found to
4 improve project performance. While the literature is seemingly rich with papers on partnering
5 (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6), the few large scale rigorous research studies in the record are all over 10 years
6 old. Organizational management theory maintains that once a new business practice, such as
7 partnering, is adopted that it takes a period of years before it becomes “institutionalized” (7, 8).
8 This status is first defined by the organization having codified the practice in its policy and
9 procedure documents, implemented the practice on a wide-scale, and then revised those
10 documents based on lessons learned in field. Full institutionalization of a practice is achieved
11 when working-level members of the organization accept it as standard operating procedure (8).
12 In the book *Seven Pillars of Partnering* (9), the authors detail the benefits of what they call
13 “second generation partnering” (i.e. projects partnered after full implementation) predicting that
14 with time “third generation partnering” will transform the “building process into a cycle of
15 fundamental activities linked by co-operative decision making activities.” Partnering is one of
16 those business practices that one might argue has been thoroughly institutionalized in the
17 highway construction industry and in the two decades since *Seven Pillars of Partnering* was
18 published and that the US highway construction industry has probably reached its “third
19 generation” state. So the present question then becomes what does the “third generation” of
20 partnering look like and does it still include the formal partnering workshops initiated as the
21 catalyst to culture change in partnering’s “first generation?”

22 A survey of the members of the AASHTO Subcommittee on Construction in 2014 found
23 a number of state departments of transportation (DOT) had tried and after a period decided not to
24 continue formal partnering (10). The majority cited the inability to make a compelling business
25 case for investing already limited resources to hire a professional facilitator, gather the members
26 of the project delivery team, and engage in teambuilding workshops when many of the business
27 relationships, both good and bad, were well-established and longstanding. The same respondents
28 pointed to program-level initiatives such joint DOT/industry specifications review panels, etc. as
29 having sufficiently provided the opportunity to identify systemic issues and resolve them before
30 they devolved into project-level disputes. Thus, despite authoritative research touting the
31 potential benefits of partnering, there remains a group of state DOTs that do not believe that

32 those benefits outweigh the costs based on their own experience. Hence this paper will explore
33 the idea that partnering principles can potentially be institutionalized without the requirement to
34 engage in formal project partnering workshops, and that agencies that institutionalize
35 partnering's precepts can accrue similar project performance benefits.

36

37 **BACKGROUND**

38 Partnering lays the foundation for building trust, establishing common expectations, aligning
39 each party's interests, communicating effectively, and resolving issues as they arise. The practice
40 of formally partnering projects delivered by traditional project delivery is well documented as
41 being effective at reducing disputes that result in claims (11,12,13,14). An analysis performed on
42 131 peer-reviewed journal papers on the topic of partnering found that only 12 of those papers
43 actually quantitatively measured project performance in partnered projects, and 9 of them were
44 for projects constructed outside the US. Therefore, a gap in the body of knowledge exists with
45 regard to how implementing partnering has impacted the performance of projects in the US
46 transportation sector, specifically in terms of claims history. Most of the literature posits that
47 partnering is a successful technique for reducing claim costs. Chan et al. (15) conducted a study
48 in Hong Kong and discovered that the number of claims on partnered building construction
49 projects were equal to or less than number of claims on an average project 86.8% of the time. On
50 the other hand, a survey conducted among Canadian provincial ministries of transportation and
51 US state DOTs found that very few agencies employ partnering specifically to minimize claims
52 (16) because of a perceived paradox. That paradox maintains that the very use partnering to
53 eliminate claims essentially means the parties do not trust each other and as such is
54 fundamentally in conflict with the spirit of partnering. As will be discussed later in the paper, this
55 paradox leads to the practice of not recording project disagreements as they occur, depriving the
56 agency of data regarding how successful its partnering program is in resolving the day to day
57 project issues.

58 Table 1 summarizes DOT experience regarding the use of partnering from 2012 to 2015.
59 As result of this comparison, twenty-six state DOTs currently use formal partnering.
60 Documented motivations for stopping partnering vary by agency. However, the responses seem
61 to merge in a common denominator surrounding the difficulty of measuring a positive return on
62 the partnering resource investment.

63 Table 1: Change in partnering program usage (AASHTO SOC surveys from 2012 – 2015).

Never used partnering	Used partnering in 2012 but stopped	Did not use partnering in 2012 but now do		Continuing use of partnering since 2012	
New Mexico Oklahoma Wisconsin	North Dakota Oregon Montana	Alaska Delaware Idaho Iowa	Massachusetts Minnesota Vermont*	California Colorado Florida Indiana Ohio	Pennsylvania South Carolina Texas Virginia Utah

* Informal partnering only

64

65 **Short History of Partnering**

66 In 1993, the US Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) compared 19 partnered building
 67 construction projects to 28 similar projects where no form of partnering agreement was used
 68 (17). The study found that partnered projects tend to perform better than non-partnered projects.
 69 For example, it found that claims cost on partnered projects averaged 0.67% of the contract
 70 amount versus 5.01% on non-partnered projects. The USACE study quantifies and appears to
 71 verify the overall perception of the federal sector, but it is not directly translatable to the state
 72 sector because of the diversity of state-level procurement laws. The information available from
 73 public transportation agencies is diverse and inconclusive. For example, a 1999 Texas DOT
 74 partnering study of over 400 design-bid-build highway projects (6) found a much smaller range
 75 than USACE in claims cost percentages: 0.17% vs. 0.88% in partnered vs. non-partnered. The
 76 issue is further complicated by the fact that DOTs do not use the same unit to report claims
 77 experience. For example, Caltrans measures claims according to the number of arbitrations that
 78 resulted from their dispute resolution process (18). The Utah and Ohio DOTs use a ratio of the
 79 number of claims over a specific period of time over the total number of projects completed (19,
 80 20). Finally, Maryland DOT uses the ratio between the number of claims and the cost of claims
 81 (21). While these and others all use a function of the number of claims as a unit to measure
 82 formal partnering benefits, there is not a standard policy among the agencies.

83 The literature review identified the use of formal partnering practices in twenty-six state
 84 DOTs. However, making a direct comparison is challenging due to the lack of standardization in
 85 partnering tools across the nation. To address the difficulty, the research team turned to those
 86 common practices found in DOT construction manuals. The study found that agencies have
 87 neither created key performance indicators nor performance objectives regarding claims
 88 reduction. This leads one to infer that formal partnering’s desired improvement of working

89 relationships and dispute resolution is assumed to eliminate claims/disputes and the need to
90 measure performance is unnecessary (22, 23).

91 Two agencies that have unquestionably institutionalized partnering are the Utah and Ohio
92 DOTs. UDOT bases its program on the following premise: “For contractors, unresolved claims
93 mean fewer funds to reinvest in other enterprises, and, in extreme cases, may even threaten their
94 companies’ existence. Affecting both owners and contractors, beyond money and often even
95 more damaging, are the negative attitudes and damaged working relationships that result when
96 issues and claims remain unresolved” (19). Hence, UDOT sees the practice as a means to not
97 only reduce disputes but also create healthier working relationships for future projects.

98 The Ohio DOT (ODOT) published a *Partnering Handbook* (20) to promote quality and
99 consistency in its statewide partnering program. It uses a three-step dispute resolution and
100 administrative claims process as follows:

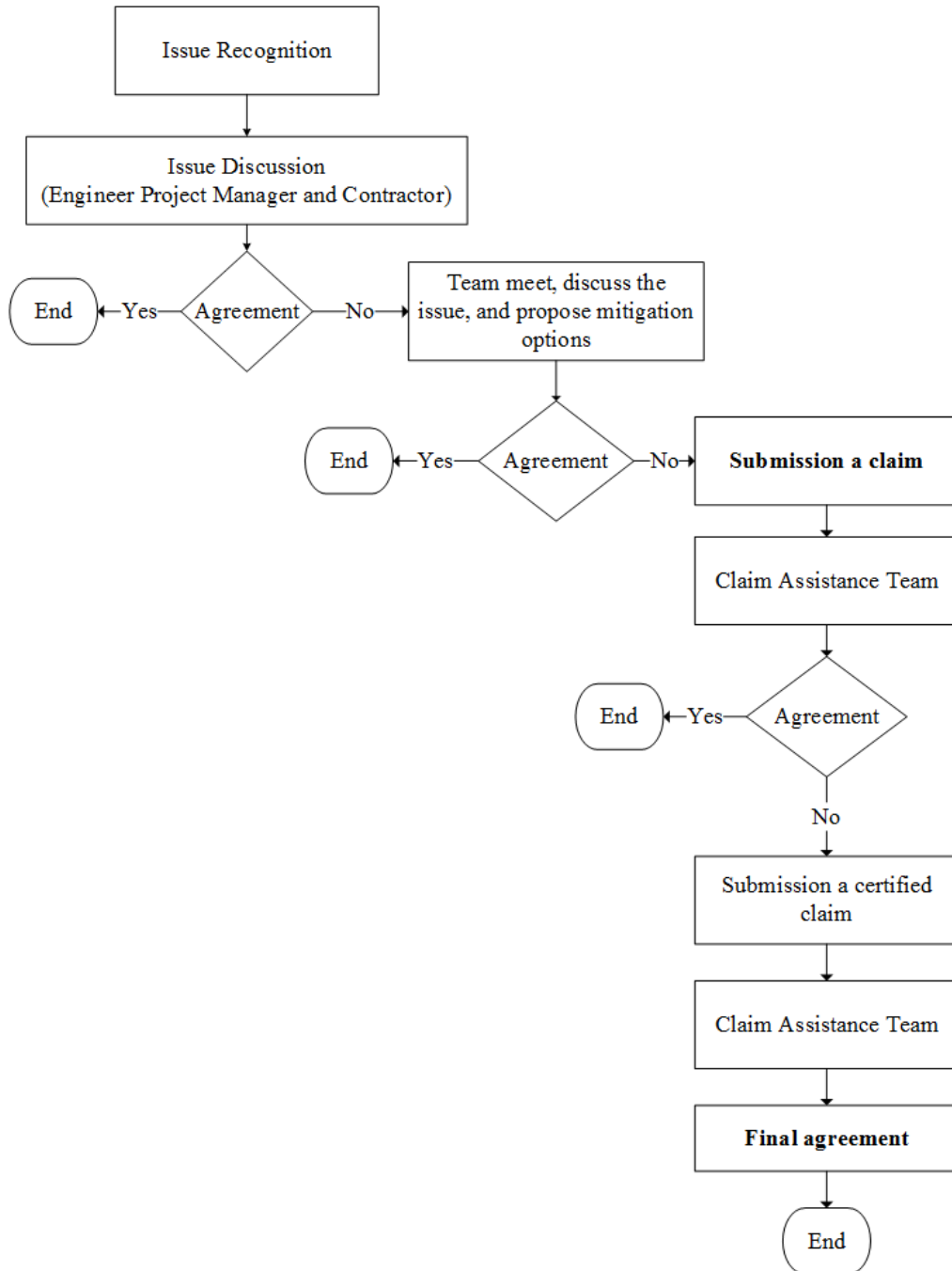
101 Step 1 - written on-site determination.

102 Step 2 - district level determination by a District Dispute Resolution Committee.

103 Step 3 - central office level determination, using either a Director’s Claim Board or a
104 dispute resolution board or a dispute resolution advisor.

105 The Handbook requires the partnering facilitator to assist both parties in the process of avoiding
106 and resolving the claims, “but not to act in lieu of or as a member of the dispute resolution board
107 or dispute resolution advisor” (20).

108 On the other hand, the Montana DOT (MDT) uses a formal an issue resolution process
109 not linked to partnering that is documented in the MDT Local Agency Guidelines (LAG) Manual
110 (24). The details of the process are shown in Figure 1. This an example of institutionalizing
111 partnering’s principle of dispute escalation by codifying a standard process in an agency policy
112 document. MDT experimented with partnering in the late 1990’s and determined that the time
113 and expense was not justified in a market where longstanding relationships existed and where
114 construction claims litigation was infrequent (25).



115
116 Figure1. Montana DOT Claim Resolution Process Chart
117 (Adapted from MDT LAG Manual 2013)
118

119 The Oklahoma DOT also used formal partnering on its projects in the 1990's, but
120 eventually reached a point where upper management felt it had become redundant to other
121 ongoing industry outreach initiatives. The agency credits its close relationship with the
122 construction industry for its enviable history of low contract cost growth. Oklahoma reported that

123 it annual average contract cost growth has been less than 4.0 % every year for the past two
124 decades (26). A major contributor to this outcome is the fact that very few claims reached
125 litigation. Hence, this agency is another example of how the principles of partnering have been
126 institutionalized into the Oklahoma DOT culture without the need to perpetuate formal project
127 partnering activities.

128 The above discussion is not meant to cast doubts on the reliability of formal partnering
129 process but rather to indicate the importance of understanding the key tools, components, and
130 practices of partnering that need to be addressed in order to have a successful internal dispute
131 resolution process that preempts the appearance of claims in transportation projects.

132

133 **Construction Claim Avoidance**

134 While the literature is full of examples of the benefits that a successful partnering program
135 generates, the functional objective of a partnering program has to ultimately be resolving the
136 many disagreements, issues, and disputes found on every construction project without resorting
137 to the courts (27). As stated by Naoum (28), “The construction industry has identified the
138 principles of an agreed dispute resolution process as being a systematic approach to problem
139 solving based upon *the “win-win” philosophy inherent in the partnering process* [italics
140 added].” Therefore, since this one aspect is easily measured, the remainder of the paper will be
141 devoted to evaluating partnering’s impact on reducing construction claims litigation.

142 The question essentially becomes one of whether or not a formally facilitated workshop
143 is required to create the necessary business cultures that actively resolve disputes at the lowest
144 possible level, the key partnering principle. Meyer and Rowan (8) put this question into its
145 theoretical context

146 “Institutionalized products, services, techniques, policies, and programs function as
147 powerful myths, and *many organizations adopt them ceremonially*. But conformity to
148 institutionalized rules often conflicts sharply with efficiency criteria and, conversely, to
149 coordinate and control activity in order *to promote efficiency undermines an*
150 *organization's ceremonial conformity* and sacrifices its support and legitimacy... building
151 gaps between their formal structures and actual work activities [italics added].”

152

153 To put Meyer and Rowan's quote in the context of this paper, formal partnering
154 workshops represent the 'institutionalized program' that has been 'ceremonially adopted' and the
155 idea that regularly performing the ceremony minimizes or eliminates claims is potentially the
156 'powerful myth.' The experience gained by the Montana and Oklahoma DOTs with formal
157 partnering is an example of the ceremony conflicting with efficiency criteria to the point where
158 those agencies stopped practicing the ceremony. The issue to be addressed in the remainder of
159 the paper is whether or not perpetuating the ceremony has created a gap between the
160 institutionalized principles of partnering and the actual performance of partnered projects.

161 Very little research has been done in transportation projects to specifically measure the
162 impact of minimizing claims. For this study's purposes, claims are defined as "contract disputes
163 that are settled above District level" (6). A change in attitude towards the relationship among
164 partnering and claims may be warranted as increasing evidence in the practice shows that some
165 agencies have recorded measurable positive impacts on the claims costs by reforming their
166 business culture instead of a formal partnering project program.

167 In formal partnering, one of the key elements is the dispute resolution ladder (3). This
168 tool is created during the partnering workshop. Each agency has its own methodology but
169 essentially the rungs of the ladder escalate up through parallel agency and contractor
170 organizations. At each level, representatives with an increasing level of authority attempt to
171 resolve the issue if possible. The escalation plan is among the two primary parties to the contract.
172 The process is designed to be both swift and equitable, avoiding having to divert both parties'
173 resources from be expended on litigation with its attendant distractions and emotions.

174 However, the concept of dispute resolution through organizational escalation is not
175 necessarily specific to formal partnering. A number of DOTs, like MDT, have appropriated the
176 strategy of issue escalation without the benefit of a formal partnering charter due to lessons
177 learned regarding the potential negative impact of claims, and the result has been positive. It is
178 logical that a state agency should do its best to expend its annual budget on improving the
179 transportation system rather than unproductively defending itself against contract claims.

180 The remainder of the paper will compare the claims history of DOTs that actively utilize
181 formal partnering to those that do not. The information comes from the Ohio and Utah DOTs
182 who formally partner most, if not all, their projects and the Montana and Vermont DOTs who do

183 not. The analysis seeks to determine if there is a statistically significant difference in the cost of
184 claims between the two types of programs.

185

186 **METHODOLOGY**

187 A number of research instruments were used to elicit information on how formal partnering
188 could impact the reduction of claims. A comprehensive literature review was first conducted. It
189 found that there are few established protocols for quantifying partnering's impact construction
190 claims. It also found that there seems to be no standard definition for key terms like issue,
191 dispute, claim, etc. Since each agency has its own terms, it is difficult to compare the
192 information contained in each report in the literature to a common base-line with reasonable
193 confidence.

194

195 **Interview findings**

196 The second research instrument was structured interviews performed in accordance with the
197 protocols specified by the US Government Accountability Office (29). The information
198 gathered during interviews with staff formed the current state-of- practice on formal and
199 informal partnering at AASHTO Subcommittee of Construction. This was used as validation to
200 evaluate the usefulness of the proposed methodology in this research. Key points of information
201 gathered included:

202 • Some of the perceptions found in the survey for choosing to not use formal partnering
203 are: lack of familiarity with the process, limited resources to commit to a formal
204 partnering program, and the difficulty in measuring tangible results from partnering.

205 • The term claims varies between public agencies. Current practices used to evaluate
206 the claim costs are not standard and often rely only on the claims register kept at the
207 project work site.

208 • Agencies that do formally partner projects don't always enter every potential claim
209 brought to their attention, because they perceive that the very act of recording every
210 issue violates the spirit of partnering. This paradox was confirmed in the literature
211 (12).

212 • Weekly partnering meetings are held at Utah DOT to review current project status and
213 to evaluate the partnering work effort. According to them, this meeting can help the

214 parties to understand the schedule, coordinate work, identify and resolve issues, discuss
 215 the status of the project, and plan the week ahead.

- 216 • The partnering workshop training helps teams work together in an amiable way. The
 217 formal partnering process causes teams to proactively make commitments to each
 218 other. They collectively decide to put the project first and to resolve all project issues
 219 as a team in a timely manner.
- 220 • According to the workshop participants, partnering does not eliminate claims, but the
 221 majority perceived that formal partnering does help to reduce them.

222

223 **Case Studies**

224 The case study selection procedure considered the size of the DOT’s geographic area of
 225 responsibility, its typical annual construction budget, and the number of heavy highway general
 226 contractors (GC) in the state. From an original list of 22 proposed states, four DOTs were
 227 selected. All four case studies furnish examples of the successful reduction of claims using one
 228 common component: a formal dispute resolution process. Data was collected on the agencies’
 229 formal partnering procedures and summary of claims history were obtained. Table 2
 230 summarizes the demographics of the four case study. The table attempts to demonstrate that
 231 annual construction budget for each state expressed as a function of population, land area, and
 232 most importantly for this topic, as a function of the number of different contractors with which
 233 the DOT is able to do business. A state with a large land area and relatively small population,
 234 like Montana, has a relatively low dollar (\$) per number of contractor. Since highway
 235 construction costs are a function of the mobilization distance, this differs greatly from smaller
 236 states with denser populations, for instance Utah with higher dollar per number of contractors.

237

238 **Table 1. Population, Land Area and Highway Contractor Information (U.S. Census Bureau**
 239 **2015 & AGC of America)**

Part-nering	Agency	Annual Budget (\$M)	Popu-lation (M)	Budget per capita (\$M)	Land area (SM)	Budget per SM (\$M)	GCs	GC Density (SM/GC)	Budget/GC (\$M)
Formal	Utah	\$1,400	2.99	\$0.47	82,170	\$17.04	45	1826	\$31.11
Formal	Ohio	\$3,100	11.6	\$0.27	40,948	\$75.71	123	333	\$25.20
None	Vermont	\$685	0.63	\$1.09	9,249	\$74.06	40	231	\$17.13
None	Montana	\$667	1.03	\$0.65	145,552	\$4.58	50	2911	\$13.34

M = million; SM = square miles; GC = highway general contractor

240 **Current Practices to Reduce Claims**

241 Structured interviews with case study DOTs and survey responses indicate that not all DOTs
242 use a formal partnering process to resolve contractual disagreements with general contractors in
243 transportation projects. In the cases where the agency does not partner, a special process based
244 on lessons learned from settled or closed claims to improve contracts and specifications is put in
245 place to expedite dispute resolution. The study collected dispute data that was statistical
246 analyzed measure the effectiveness of partnering in reducing claims costs in the case study
247 DOTs. The process relies on trend analysis between the claims costs and the final cost of
248 completed projects using descriptive statistics. The following hypothesis is tested:

249 *Claims costs are lower for agencies partner than those that do not.*

250 Data was collected from four state DOTs. Because of differences in agency internal
251 policies and procedures, each agency is evaluated as a stand-alone case, and no attempt is made
252 to aggregate the total pool of projects to avoid the potential for missing unrecognized factors
253 between agencies such as the project delivery method or the complexity of the project, and to
254 relieve the need to test for skewing of the results due to unequal sample populations. The
255 researchers also felt that in doing so it would allow a loose comparison between this study and
256 previous ones in the literature (6, 17).

257 Data over a period of 10 years was collected from each of the agencies in the sample.
258 The interviews found that the process to a construction claim typically begins when the agency
259 rejects a contractor's change order request. The claims cost (CC) is the ratio between the total
260 cost of claims and the original contract cost as shown in Equation 1.

261
262
$$CC = \text{Total Cost of claims} / \text{Original contract cost} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

263

264 **DATA ANALYSIS**

265 Previous research finds that award price of \$5,000,000 is a threshold to group claim costs.
266 Projects that are lower than this value are highly sensitive to the amount of claim cost when
267 expressed as a percentage of the original cost in partnered projects (6), which introduces
268 unintended skewing of the sample output.

269 The Montana and Vermont DOTs have a history of claims of roughly the same
270 magnitude as the Utah and Ohio DOTs who partnered most project since 10 years. A statistical
271 analysis was conducted with the T-test and One-way ANOVA test to identify and confirm the

272 trends found in the data. The Tukey-Kramer formula are used to permit the multiple comparison
 273 of results having unequal observations in the samples (30). Table 3 shows the descriptive
 274 statistics of the data. The Montana DOT had the highest mean claim cost is and the lowest value
 275 is from Utah DOT. Nevertheless, the data with the highest standard error is from Utah DOT.
 276 The mean claim cost for the four agencies are in the same range, for that reason, it was tested
 277 the following null (H_0) and alternative hypothesis (H_A):

- 278 • H_0 : *The mean claim cost for Ohio Dot is the same as the mean claim cost from Utah*
 279 *DOT, Montana DOT, and Vermont DOT. There is no difference in the quality evaluation*
 280 *requirements*
- 281 • H_A : *The mean claim cost is not the same across the four agencies.*

282
 283 **Table 3. Mean and Standard Error of the claim cost of the case study agencies.**

Program	Agency	Mean Claim Cost	Std Error Claim Cost
Formal Partnering	Ohio (ODOT)	2.70%	1.223%
	Utah (UDOT)	1.70%	2.446%
None	Montana (MDOT)	4.13%	1.934%
	Vermont (VDOT)	3.69%	2.233%

284
 285 As can be seen in Table 4, since the p-value for the seven comparisons are higher than the
 286 significance level (0.05), we failed to reject the null hypothesis. There is not enough evidence
 287 that suggest that the mean claims costs are statistically different among the four agencies.

288
 289 **Table 4. Mean Claim Cost comparisons using Tukey-Kramer HSD Method.**

Level	- Level	p-Value
MDOT	UDOT	0.8647
VDOT	UDOT	0.9313
MDOT	ODOT	0.9244
ODOT	UTAH	0.9832
VDOT	ODOT	0.9796
MDOT	VDOT	0.9989

291
 292 A second statistical analysis grouping the agencies by the type of program was
 293 conducted. It compared the mean claim cost of the two agencies that formally partnered with
 294 the mean claim cost of the two that do not. The results are shown in Table 5. Because p value >

295 0.05, there is enough evidence that suggest that the main claim cost for both groups of agencies
 296 is the same.

297 **Table 5. T-test results for partnered and non-partnered mean claim cost (p = 0.05).**

Factor	Value
Difference	-0.01437
Std Err Dif	0.01780
t Ratio	-0.80762
DF	37
Confidence	0.95
Prob > t	0.4245

298

299 The statistical analysis shows that the cost claims for the four agencies is not significant
 300 different (p =0.05) for the same range of projects Implementing a process to encourage
 301 collaboration, facilitation and negotiation skills for small agencies who do not partnered is same
 302 effective that for large agencies a formal partnering process in order to reduce the claim costs.
 303 This is because these methods are highly structured and do not rely primarily on personal
 304 judgment.

305

306 **CONCLUSIONS**

307 The research attempted to determine if the presence of formal partnering led a statistically
 308 significant difference in mean claims costs. The statistical data were drawn from four agencies,
 309 and as such, the results only apply to those agencies. The literature review found that some
 310 DOTs have stopped formal partnering because they do not perceive it has having a direct,
 311 measurable impact in reducing of claims. The statistical analysis showed that since there was not
 312 a significant difference in claims costs that both Montana and Vermont had institutionalized the
 313 precepts of partnering to the point where the investment in the catalyst provided by a formal
 314 partnering workshop was no longer justified.

315 The option of not using formal partnering to minimize claims in transportation sector is
 316 only viable after an agency has institutionalized the principles and values of partnering. The
 317 results suggest that a continuing investment in negotiation and facilitation training may be
 318 necessary to leverage achieve a desirable project performance rather than implement a formal
 319 partnering process at project level. Changing the construction business culture from an
 320 adversarial environment to a collaborative one requires the agency codify that change in its

321 policies, procedures, specifications, and contracts. Once the culture shift is truly made, the need
322 for ceremonial adoption of rituals like the formal partnering workshop is overcome by the need
323 to more efficiently use available capital on practices that generate a measurable return on
324 investment. While this study is by no means comprehensive, it does lead one to infer that both
325 Montana and Vermont may transcend to Bennet and Jayes (9) “third generation” of partnering.

326

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330

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