

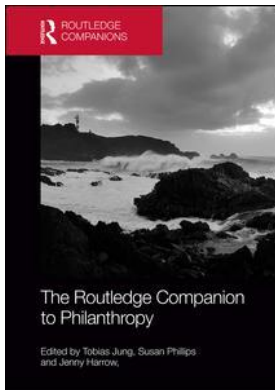
This article was downloaded by: 10.2.97.136

On: 30 Mar 2023

Access details: *subscription number*

Publisher: *Routledge*

Informa Ltd Registered in England and Wales Registered Number: 1072954 Registered office: 5 Howick Place, London SW1P 1WG, UK



The Routledge Companion to Philanthropy

Tobias Jung, Susan D. Phillips, Jenny Harrow

The role of philanthropy in disaster relief

Publication details

<https://test.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9781315740324.ch11>

Naim Kapucu

Published online on: 17 May 2016

How to cite :- Naim Kapucu. 17 May 2016, *The role of philanthropy in disaster relief from: The Routledge Companion to Philanthropy* Routledge

Accessed on: 30 Mar 2023

<https://test.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9781315740324.ch11>

PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR DOCUMENT

Full terms and conditions of use: <https://test.routledgehandbooks.com/legal-notices/terms>

This Document PDF may be used for research, teaching and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproductions, re-distribution, re-selling, loan or sub-licensing, systematic supply or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden.

The publisher does not give any warranty express or implied or make any representation that the contents will be complete or accurate or up to date. The publisher shall not be liable for an loss, actions, claims, proceedings, demand or costs or damages whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with or arising out of the use of this material.

The role of philanthropy in disaster relief

Naim Kapucu

Disasters are times when people tend to act with sympathy for victims and appear more responsive to calls for donations. In particular, major disasters stimulate philanthropic behaviour. However, motivations and behavioural patterns for individuals and organizations vary significantly (Martin *et al.*, 2006). Individuals might approach disasters with empathy, but not necessarily with knowledge of how and what to donate. Corporations, on the other hand, may have quite mixed motives and may or may not have applicable expertise. Some establish deep, long lasting relationships with disaster relief agencies; many others make ad hoc contributions that may end up congesting the system since they are not organized properly (Zhang *et al.*, 2009).

Philanthropic behaviour varies from one disaster to another and not all disasters receive the same amount of attention. For instance, total donations raised in the US for the Haitian earthquake were about \$US 900 million, while only \$US 25 million were raised for the 2010 Pakistan floods (Neely, 2010; Niazi and Khan, 2011). In response to the 2004 Southeast Asia earthquake and ensuing tsunami, the United Nations raised about \$US 2.5 billion from institutional and individual donors, which accounts for almost half of the total money raised for the disaster relief efforts (Thomas and Fritz, 2006: 114). Companies that had developed long-term relationships with relief organizations and other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) participated effectively in a coordinated response. For example, Coca-Cola used its production facilities and supply chain to provide drinking water to disaster victims in the region. On the other hand, many other unsolicited donations coming from individuals and corporations were stuck at airports due to a lack of coordination and previously established relationships (Thomas and Fritz, 2006).

Why do some events attract massive support while others are virtually ignored? How and why is giving during disasters different than normal situational giving? The impact of the media and the nature of disasters are influential to a donor's decisions about how much and when to donate, but there are several other factors that are influential in philanthropic actions. The argument presented in this chapter is that giving and other support for humanitarian aid in the event of major crises can shape patterns of giving in strange ways. This chapter considers individual and organizational responses in contemporary disaster contexts with a view to understanding motivations, challenges and emerging trends. It assesses current research on philanthropy during disasters and highlights some of the broader issues of philanthropy, not only a narrow focus on disaster management.

Motives and management of giving in disasters and humanitarian crises

Philanthropy in response to disasters and humanitarian crises is not a new phenomenon. Having roots in the early stages of charity operations, donations to humanitarian efforts and disaster response emerged out of a need for charitable efforts with assistance, including donations of time, cash, food, clothing and other material items made both domestically and internationally (Curti, 1988; Ribar and Wilhelm, 2002; Singer, 2008; Brewis, 2010). A review of the literature on philanthropy, both in times of disaster relief and in humanitarian efforts, identifies two categories of giving: philanthropy in immediate response to disasters, and philanthropy for humanitarian assistance, aid and development, including the longer term recovery following disasters. The first is a reflection of giving in response to a specific event (O'Neill, 2002; Singer, 2008): 'in emergencies, it involves setting up feeding stations, providing medical facilities, delivering food, building shelters, and protecting the rights of vulnerable populations' (Barnett and Weiss, 2011: 17). The second type covers all aspects of humanitarian development, often complex sets of issues that require long term horizons for their solutions. Charitable giving for humanitarian aid is more strategic and planned than are one-time, often spontaneous donations in response to sudden disasters. Most of the funding for humanitarian assistance is channeled through aid organizations that have agendas for giving and development which are not restrictive to responding to disasters and that operate as a 'global network of organizations' (Smillie and Minear, 2004: 11). With limited space, this chapter focuses on the first type – short and medium term philanthropic responses to sudden disasters.

Motivations for philanthropy in response to disasters

Currently, disasters receive a lot of attention, both from the charitable sector and from individual donors. Christie *et al.* (2007) convey that this may be because a disaster is something that can be remedied with a relatively faster return to normalcy than other situations, such as HIV or long-term drought. Disasters create their own 'cultures and subcultures' in relation to donations (Alexander, 2006: 8), and it is important to understand the motives behind giving behaviours at these times. While much research on propensity to donate concentrates on donor characteristics, it has shown how the situational characteristics of recipients, i.e. country contexts and disaster specificities, matter (Andorfer and Otto, 2013). During such events, people tend to extend themselves outside of their daily norm and reach out to affected communities in many different ways. This behaviour can also account for the unstructured patterns of giving in response to disasters; people responsively give in certain events but also suffer from donor fatigue in times of multiple or concurrent disasters, producing irregular patterns of giving (Alexander, 2006). Donations to a single event can often overshadow the efforts of other significant disaster events leading sometimes to an 'overabundance' of funding in one area, and little to nothing in another. Marjanovic *et al.* (2012) examine whether trait variables, such as empathy and perceived human responsibility, predict and interact to predict people's helping natural disaster victims. Here, judgement of human responsibility predicted helping when participants were familiar with the target disaster, but did not predict helping when the disaster was unfamiliar.

The reasons associated with giving in times of disasters are argued by Douy (1972) to be aspects of cooperative economic behaviour. Individuals who have been impacted by a disaster, and have prepared themselves, will become more charitable as a way of assisting others. Those outside of the disaster zone will feel compassion for those 'less well-off materially' (Douy, 1972: 582) and give until they see some benefit from their efforts. This perspective asserts that following a disaster, individuals feel there is an 'obligation' to help others, specifically those in their

circle that would help them. This can be considered a form of ‘insurance benefits’ shared by individuals of a social clique. Not taking part in these activities can result in the individual being excluded from benefits next time they require help. Like individuals, private firms also feel obligated to help and utilize disasters as an opportunity to create goodwill within the community. In contrast to this notion that anticipation of direct benefits is the most influential motivator of charitable giving, Amos (1972) finds they are the least likely motivator.

Another reason for donating in disasters is the strong personal connections of individuals and familiarity of the situation. Donating within one’s community, or as a result of wanting to return what was once familiar back to normal, may also shed light on why some disasters attract more attention and funding. Several studies have focused on the feelings associated with charitable giving in times of disasters, allowing us to compare different responses to different events. Jeong (2010: 327) examines the support provided during the 2010 Haiti earthquake and finds that feelings of sympathy were ‘positively associated with support through personal donation’. Focusing on the role that ‘controllability’ played on a donor’s choice to donate in response to this disaster, Jeong (2010) argues that feelings of sympathy and pity were not affected by whether the event could have been controlled in any way, supporting the role strong emotions play in donating. When donors hear about, or are presented with images of, a disaster, they experience powerful feelings of mental discord that leads them to donate in hopes of ‘restoring their mental balance’ (Waters, 2008). As Alexander (2006: 8) notes, a sense of urgency compels giving, and ‘publicity, or the lack of it, can turn donations to a relief appeal on and off like a tap’, creating an over-abundant supply of aid to the area that is the most visible. Relief organizations tend to present the community affected through graphic images and video, along with fundraising appeals to encourage charitable giving (Waters, 2008). Atkinson *et al.* (2012), examining 25 years of changing trends in UK individuals’ overseas giving to charities, include considerations of the role of globalization in that giving’s growth, for example, where direct experiences of global conditions through increased travel, may mean that people are more responsive to disaster appeal requests.

As with other types of philanthropy (Pharoah, Chapter 4; Bekkers, Chapter 7) income, socialization and practice of a faith are significant factors in giving to disasters. Steinberg and Rooney (2005) found that household income was also an important determinant of donations after the September 11th attacks. As for contributing volunteer hours, they found that those who attended church regularly or had previous volunteer experience ‘donated significantly more hours’ than those who were not churchgoers or lacked previous experience (Steinberg and Rooney, 2005:122).

As examined in the next section, the ‘supply chain’ is also important – the availability and actions of nonprofits to organize fundraising and conduct relief efforts. In the decade from 1995 to 2005, individual donations to nationally based nonprofit organizations whose focus is on international issues grew faster than any other of cluster of nonprofits, as analyzed by the Congressional Research Service (Newland *et al.*, 2010). Despite the number of nonprofits working internationally, however, individuals who live outside of disaster zones generally donate smaller portions of their overall assets to disaster relief than to other charitable causes (Douty, 1972; Clinton, 2007).

The philanthropy supply chain in disaster relief

The management of relief efforts and philanthropic giving to support them, as well as assistance in longer term recovery and development, is almost never in the hands of a single organization. It can be better understood as a network, or a ‘supply chain’, of many different types of organizations and governments.

NGOs play a major role. This is due to the large ‘capacity’ they bring (e.g. Red Cross or the Red Crescent Society), differing specializations, fundraising expertise, coordination capacities (e.g. United Nations agencies) and ability of local nonprofits to work at the community level. The level of public trust placed with NGOs in addressing humanitarian assistance is high: Smillie and Minear (2004) find that more credibility is placed with NGOs than governments, enabling some of them to provide more aid than a government is capable of delivering. Governments as donors play key roles in a disaster environment. Research shows that donor countries provide more aid to those disaster-stricken areas in which special, trade or political interests can be fostered (Raschky and Schwindt, 2012). This type of favouritism allows donor countries to further secure their ties to the country of interest, in turn allocating more aid to one area over another. The problems associated with this type of funding, and with the influence of donor countries, over the process greatly affect humanitarian operations and can limit the scope of work conducted, as well as the speed of fund allocation (Christopher and Tatham, 2011). As a result, many donors prefer to use intermediaries, such as NGOs and international agencies, as their source of funding relief operations.

Media plays a major role in international relief efforts. With most donor funding coming from the more well off countries, the media is the major source for relaying catastrophic images, while the literature on media and disasters is itself widely seen as an emerging and interdisciplinary area of research (Joye, 2014). Some of the media’s power, as Aguirre (2001: 157) demonstrates, comes from its role ‘in defining a crisis and influencing state and multilateral political powers’, though the media must be careful in properly portraying the disaster environment. Internationally, however, this job is not easily accomplished: dangerous political environments and lack of a complete understanding of the situation can mislead donors regarding the severity and logistics of the relief operation (Aguirre, 2001). These misunderstandings can then lead to mistrust as donors, completely unaware of the political environment, assume that their assistance is not properly allocated to victims as a result of mismanagement by charitable organizations. Equally, however, it may be argued that in humanitarian aid organizations, the logistics of disaster relief has long been perceived as ‘a back office function’ aimed at supporting key ‘programmes and frontline activities’ (Schulz, 2009: 3). This underestimation of the logistics function is beginning to change, amongst academics, donors and practitioners.

Often in underdeveloped disaster stricken countries, accountability measures are either purposely hindered or no longer working; as a result, the sense of donation effectiveness is lower, creating possible discontent for donors (Rashky and Schwindt, 2012). More straightforwardly, where governments lead or encourage emergency management coordination groups, participating NGOs may well not demonstrate upward accountability. This was identified by Cooper (2015: 2) in her analysis of the National Disaster Management Network in the Caribbean (Harrow, Chapter 31). Competing news cycles also make a difference as Brown and Wong (2009) argue with news coverage of the O.J. Simpson trial and donations for the 1994 Rwandan genocide: as media coverage for the trial increased, donations for Rwanda decreased.

Legislative incentives and assistance

Appropriate public policy and tax incentives help to induce an environment of charitable giving. Such legislative assistance is provided in three ways: through tax credits/deductions for donors; determining which organizations qualify to receive tax credits and deductions; and government forgiveness of debt.

Tax incentives have long been a vehicle to spur philanthropic donations because in many countries, charitable donations to qualified organizations reduce the income taxes paid by

individual donors. Donations such as those that assist to 'ease the burden on government provided services' are often looked upon favourably by government and incur tax benefits (Newland *et al.*, 2010: 20). The extent to which individuals benefit depends on the size of their donations and income levels: the larger the donation and the higher the income of the donor, the greater the relative benefit. On the other hand, tax incentives for small donations appear to provide less of a benefit to the donor, and indeed, many donors do not bother claiming them (Phillips and Smith, Chapter 13; Carmichael, Chapter 15), leading to the assumption that tax benefits do not necessarily increase giving that is on a smaller scale. In many disasters, governments will, for a period, match the contributions by individuals and corporations, creating an added incentive for donations of any amount.

Tax incentives for charitable organizations, specifically those providing relief operations, aid in quicker allocation of resources and funding. In the US, for example, federal exemptions allow charitable organizations to use much of their funding for service provision rather than tax payments, though there are service parameters that organizations must fit when taking advantage of the exempt tax status. Generally, assistance must fall into three restricted categories to be eligible: aid to individuals; aid to businesses; and aid to a charitable class, that is, individuals in need (Kennedy *et al.*, 2002). Legislative assistance may take the form of approval of status for additional charities to engage in relief work, as occurred after the September 11th attacks when the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) took measures to quickly speed up the 'process for organizations to apply for exempt status', enabling greater charitable response to the event (Kennedy *et al.*, 2002: 1). In times of disasters, legislative actions can also be overlooked or suspended for a limited time and cause. Again, in the case of the September 11th attacks, Congress implemented a 'special statutory rule' that allowed 'charitable organizations to disburse aid to victims ... and their families without the charity making a specific assessment of need' (Kennedy *et al.*, 2002: 94). This enabled nonprofits to provide resources to individuals in a timelier manner with less financial burden and bureaucratic processes to deal with.

The third type of legislative assistance is in the form of government forgiveness of debt. An example of this is the relief-financing conference that took place after the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami when finance ministers of seven countries 'agreed to support the suspension of debt payments for affected countries' (Butcher, 2005: 206).

The role of nonprofit organizations

The nonprofit sector has a large role in disaster response and humanitarian relief (Kapucu, 2006), with the networks provided by well-established nonprofits assisting in ways that governments are not able to do so. Steuerle (2002: 1) goes further in arguing that the charitable sector is 'more flexible and innovative than the government sector, responding to crises quickly and encountering fewer administrative hurdles'. In particular, nonprofits succeed as a result of the collaborative efforts and partnerships needed in response to disasters. They also play a large role in advocacy, for instance, advocating for the rights of victims and ensuring that special needs are met, and in longer term policy development for reconstruction. These actions enable some NGOs to become very visible in the field of disaster relief, establishing trust not only with the victims and donors but also potential relief partners.

Kapucu (2007: 559) stresses the importance of establishing trust in times of disaster as there are 'no clear policy or guidelines available to the participant organizations and individuals'. Particularly in uncertain times, individual and corporate donors gravitate towards those they trust in fulfilling their philanthropic efforts. Barrow and Jennings (2001: 16) highlight that the reasons individuals are more apt to donate to visible NGOs rather than governments include: 'poor

performance of official donor programs in reaching the poor' in the 1960s and 1970s leading to a lack of confidence in governments; nonprofits' popularity and visibility in the education and health fields, giving them legitimacy; their 'effectiveness and flexibility in dealing with emergencies and relief'; and perceptions of corruption by governments in under developed nations. These trust factors may shed light on why some areas or disasters receive more attention than others.

In an environment rich in love and duty for one's neighbour, faith-based organizations have become an inherent partner in humanitarian and disaster relief. Overall, 35 percent of all donations from US tax-deductible funding sources are received by faith-based organizations, whereas nine percent is allocated to human services and eight percent to general public benefit agencies (Newland *et al.*, 2010). In disaster situations, faith-based organizations at the local and national level are taking on more of a role in assistance. Locally, churches are often able to respond quickly to an event prior to national or federal assistance (Bin and Edwards, 2009), due to their close proximity to disaster-inflicted regions, pre-established visibility within a community, 'extensive infrastructure at the grass-roots level', and various hierarchies of coordination and administration' (Wuthnow, 1990: 11). They also create an environment where members of the community may find themselves inclined to participate in philanthropic behaviours because of the social capital they generate and the environment encouraging of participation they provide. Faith-based organizations also partner with other nonprofit and public organizations in delivering services. In a study by Bin and Edwards (2009: 606), social capital gained through church attendance was positively associated with local business philanthropy in disaster stricken areas. It concluded that managers who engaged in the community through religious activities were 'more likely to learn about specific needs and more likely to be approached to provide assistance' than others.

There are limitations, however, because of sensitivity issues surrounding participation of these types of organizations. Faith-based entities must not only consider the situation of their own congregations but be sensitive to that of others receiving and delivering disaster assistance. Looking at the role of Muslim faith-based organizations, De Cordier (2009) makes three suggestions which can be applicable to many religious settings and situations in which services need to be integrated. First, faith-based organizations must consider the role religion plays in the affected communities and the commonality that may or may not occur with other local faith-based organizations. Second, there is a need for formal and informal networks of individuals to implement the resources. Third, consideration of the perceptions that are held by all recipients and understanding the sensitivity surrounding faith-based interactions is needed. Looking past the limitations that may be imposed, faith-based organizations of varying denominations are now seen as a critical aspect of local responses and social capital during disasters, and their members appear to be highly active in philanthropic behaviour.

The role of corporations

The involvement of corporations in humanitarian relief has increased significantly in recent years, and there has been a movement to call on the 'private sector for leadership, solutions and resources' (Berman and Klepper, 1993: 9). There are various reasons, including positive image and staff motivation, that for-profits choose to become involved in disaster and humanitarian relief. The 2004 earthquake in Southeast Asia brought about record donations from the private sector and provided a new opportunity to examine the motives behind such actions (Thomas and Fritz, 2006). In a study regarding corporate philanthropic disaster response in China, Zhang and colleagues (2009) find that privately owned corporations provided more funding than government agencies in response to a 2008 earthquake. Indeed, corporate giving can be looked at

as a new addition to charitable giving when compared to past decades. The old norm, as Douty (1972: 588) stated, is that 'firms that do not have a major commercial interest in the survival of the stricken area are not, in general, important post-disaster donors'. In today's climate, this is far from the truth. The interruption of daily business transactions and overall economic impact, as well as a broader definition of their 'best' interests, encourages a wide range of corporations to get involved (Thomas and Fritz, 2006).

Another reason for participation from the corporate sector is the pressure to be socially responsible to both customers and staff (Thomas and Fritz, 2006). These pressures, as well as the need to create goodwill within the community, encourage their participation in humanitarian and disaster relief. Zhang *et al.* (2009: 60) view corporate donations as a type of 'investment in the community and society', building new or stronger connections between the firm and local citizens, with the added advantage that such ties may create a sense of belonging for the staff and the clients served. Thomas and Fritz (2006: 116) observe that company involvement in disaster philanthropy has been 'associated with increased employee satisfaction, recruitment, and retention', and employees are now calling on their companies to participate in humanitarian relief (Berman and Klepper, 1993). This is not restricted by any means to contributions of money. Not often considered so, but a form of assistance nevertheless, able minds are an important type of gift-in-kind during a disaster, which may come from universities or large global companies with access to a wealth of knowledge or business expertise beneficial to recovery operations (Thomas and Fritz, 2006).

The benefits of corporate contributions, however, do not outweigh the hardships such assistance can create when the need is not properly considered. During the 2004 earthquake in Southeast Asia, there was no guidance provided to corporations regarding what resources were required for disaster relief. As a result, some donations never made it the intended source (Thomas and Fritz, 2006). The issues affecting delivery of charitable goods from corporations occur mainly due to a lack of pre-coordinated relationships that would enable easier donation processes. Hindrances also include corporate image or previous contracted obligations restricting interactions (Thomas and Fritz, 2006). Because of this dilemma, some humanitarian and disaster agencies are not able to, or do not want to, accept corporate donations. The next section discusses various cases to highlight some new and important aspects of how various actors are involved; how philanthropy in the context of disaster relief is becoming innovative and diverse.

Cases on philanthropy in disaster relief

It is apparent that philanthropy in the event of catastrophic disasters is commonplace, though the scale and form may vary depending on the disaster or donor. Taking a closer look into the events that shaped charitable efforts in the September 11th attacks, the earthquake in Haiti in 2010, the Van earthquake in Turkey 2010, and the 2011 earthquake and subsequent tsunami in Japan, this section highlights common factors and emerging trends of philanthropic efforts in mobilizing the resources needed to respond to, and recover from, these crippling disasters. The cases, albeit from predominantly US-centric perspectives, identify some common themes, notably: the outpouring of support; the creation of organizations to organize and distribute funds; the role of celebrities in attracting massive donations, and the changing role of social media.

September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks in New York City

The attacks on the World Trade Center devastated American citizens, especially those living in proximity to 'ground zero'. A total of 2,650 lives were reported to be lost with effects to New

York City's economy estimated between \$US 63 billion and \$US 125 billion (Cuccaro *et al.*, 2002). The philanthropic response to the September 11th terrorist attacks was overwhelming: a total of 1,607 organizations, with 1,196 of those being identified as philanthropic organizations (Kapucu, 2007), were quickly engaged. Within hours after the disaster, donations began pouring in. Nonprofits were confronted with the challenge of how to efficiently disperse these funds. This was particularly apparent for the American Red Cross which, within 12 hours after the attack, had collected more than \$1 million (Cuccaro *et al.*, 2002: 13). More than \$57 million was raised in the first week following the disaster on just six websites, and total contributions from all donors would rise to between \$1.5 and \$2 billion (Cuccaro *et al.*, 2002: 12). Searching for a way to assist, the nation was able to mobilize one of the fastest growing charitable responses of all time, leaving researchers asking why people gave in such numbers and amounts.

Steinberg and Rooney (2005) find that the reasons for giving in response to September 11th are consistent with the general reasons for philanthropy, although their study lacks questions that gauge personal feelings associated with the attack. Considering whether demographics played a role in the increased level of giving after the 9/11 attacks, the study discovers no significant relationship, noting that giving of one's time or money in general increased in response to this event. Highlighted in this research is the fact that there is very little previous literature available regarding individual financial donations during disasters.

In order to meet the needs of those affected by this disaster, funding to victims needed to be expedited as quickly as possible. As Kapucu (2007: 553) notes, 'in extreme disasters standard procedures cannot be followed and they require dynamic systems to adapt to unanticipated and rapidly changing conditions'. Partnerships were the solutions to this problem. The most notable is the creation of the September 11 Fund which was formed by the president of the New York Community Trust and executives of the United Way of New York City just hours after the event (Cuccaro *et al.*, 2002). It received a total of \$506 million, of which \$336 million was used for 'cash assistance and services, recovery efforts at the three attack sites, and support to rebuild communities devastated' and \$170 million for counseling, employment assistance, and a variety of related needs (Kapucu, 2007: 556). In an interview, the president of the New York City Trust stated that funding came from 'more than two million individuals as well as "hundreds" of institutional and corporate donors and "foreign corporations and charities"' (Cuccaro, 2002: 113). Addressing not only the immediate needs of survivors, this fund was also successful in creating a long-term recovery plan as a way of securing a healthy future for those affected. A different initiative, the Victims Compensation Fund, was created and funded by the US government for those who lost loved ones in the attacks. Set up as a tort litigation and life insurance substitute (Cuccaro, 2002), this fund was created to protect airlines from the mass litigation lawsuits – and their potential demise that would follow – and to provide efficient compensation to the families of those who lost their lives (Melber, 2003). Individual family members were given the responsibility of self-applying to this fund, in turn foregoing the right to any litigation against the airlines once a financial agreement was reached; each case was assessed on an individual basis, contributing to the fairness of fund allocation. On average, participants received \$1 million per loss, with the possibility of larger benefits depending on many factors (Melber, 2003).

While charitable organizations were busy mobilizing efforts to assist victims, celebrities were taking various initiatives in funding relief efforts. Five major tribute concerts were held after the terrorist attacks, raising an estimated \$190 million (Oldenburg, 2001). The two most notable were the October 20th Concert for New York City, which contributed about \$30 million (Wiederhorn, 2001), and the America: A Tribute to Heroes concert/telethon, which, by featuring 'four dozen of the biggest stars in show business', raised \$150 million in just two hours (Oldenburg, 2001).

Two important lessons were learned from the massive outpouring of public support for the victims of 9/11, the first to feature online giving in any significant way. The first was the need for coordination and partnership among nonprofits: the response system broke down but was quickly rebuilt through collective efforts. The second relates to the issue of what nonprofits should do when philanthropic contributions for disaster relief exceed immediate needs while appropriately honouring donor intent. As Katz notes (2003: 331), ‘charities engaged in 9/11 relief received more donations than they could pass onto victims without enriching them, as opposed to simply relieving their suffering’. Could the charities use the funds for future needs? This dilemma was experienced most acutely by the American Red Cross, but also by other funds that provided financial support to relatively small sets of victims and first responders.

Earthquake in Haiti in 2010

On January 12, 2010, at 4:53 pm, a magnitude 7.0 earthquake shattered the island of Haiti with an epicenter just ten miles outside of the major city of Port-au-Prince (Fox News, 2010). It is estimated that three million people, approximately one-third of the overall population, were affected by the earthquake (Margesson and Taft-Morales, 2010) with an estimated 220,000 lives lost. A global philanthropic response was quickly mobilized with over \$US 3 billion donated privately, topped up by \$6 billion in government official aid (Ramachandran and Walz, 2012). The US Congress approved immediate tax deductions for charitable cash contributions for the relief of earthquake victims (Sherlock, 2010). Within three weeks, Americans had donated more than \$600 million. At that time, it ‘was the largest outpouring of American support to any foreign natural disaster’ (Goldstein, 2010). The American corporate community began securing funds totaling \$122 million coming from 300 businesses through the Business Civic Leadership Center associated with the US Chamber of Commerce (Banjo and Kalita, 2010). This involvement is interesting since there is not a large opportunity base for American corporations that serve Haiti as customers. Some of the largest donation totals went to faith-based organizations, many of which had a long history of working in Haiti: Catholic Relief Services raised \$136 million, World Vision \$41 million, and the United Methodist Committee on Relief \$14.5 million (Adelman, 2011).

Donations through text messaging became widely popular in response to the Haiti earthquake, illustrated by 6.5 million people using text-to-donate outlets who contributed a total of \$50 million through this source alone. Previously, mobile fundraising had raised no more than \$1 million for any single event (Rogers, 2010: NP). With an average contribution of \$10, it is remarkable that nearly 20 percent of all donations received by the American Red Cross in the first week after the earthquake were made through text messaging (Sherlock, 2010). In total, \$275 million was raised through text messaging in that first week, making Haiti the ‘tipping point’ for spurring future text messaging philanthropy (Rogers, 2010: NP).

Celebrities also played a significant role in securing donations for the citizens of devastated Haiti. The most successful of these efforts was the Hope for Haiti telethon. This was aired globally and collected \$66 million (Adelman, 2011). As with many other telethons, celebrities not only performed but answered the phones to accept donations. In addition, celebrities were also drawn to personally donate large sums. Stars, such as Sandra Bullock and Leonardo DiCaprio each gave \$1 million (Adelman, 2011), and Haitian-born US-based rapper, and later presidential candidate, Wyclef Jean, raised \$9.1 million through his Yele Haiti Foundation (Newland *et al.*, 2010). The National Football League in association with Haitian American players committed to raising \$2.5 million for relief efforts (NFL, ND). In addition to entertainment and sports celebrities, a unique partnership was formed at the request of President Barack Obama; former

presidents Bill Clinton and George W. Bush united forces to create the Clinton Bush Haiti Fund. With the goal of not only rebuilding Haiti but encouraging a strong and stable economic sector, this nonprofit raised \$54.4 million, supporting microfinance, job training and the development of small businesses, until it closed at the end of 2012 (CBF, 2012).

The case of Haiti illustrates the speed and global reach of philanthropic responses to disasters with the entry of mobile fundraising on a massive scale and the participation of celebrities. Five years after the disaster, with NGOs still operating many human services, questions are being raised about transparency and accountability and the long-term impact of the billions donated for relief and reconstruction (Ramachandran and Walz, 2012).

Van earthquake in Turkey in 2011

The October 2011 earthquake in Van, a major province in the eastern part of Turkey (USGS, 2012), has been the stage for various philanthropic actions: from both the domestic and international community and from newly established civil society organizations that played a significant role in delivering assistance to the victims (Heinrich, 2007). The earthquake left 605 people dead and many others injured. In the first few hours after the disasters, individuals organized through social media for disaster relief. Individual actions mostly concentrated on volunteer participation in search and rescue, providing clothing, food donations and housing for earthquake survivors. Within a few hours after the quake, two journalists initiated a movement on Twitter with the hashtag *EvimEvinDirVan*, which literally means ‘my home is your home Van’, encouraging their followers to offer accommodations for the thousands of people who were displaced by the disaster. More than 17,000 people responded to this call and joined this movement (Letsch and Walker, 2011). The Twitter plea also encouraged corporations to take action, for example, prompting cell phone carriers to provide free calls and text messages to those located in the disaster stricken area.

Additional philanthropic action occurred under the coordination of the government, charity foundations and disaster relief organizations, and conventional media. Local and central governments coordinated aid coming from individuals and channeled them to the disaster areas alongside governmental aid; foundations and disaster relief organizations organized significant philanthropic campaigns for disaster victims. For instance, the *Kimse Yok Mu* charity (KYM) mobilized its disaster relief teams in more than ten cities. This enabled them to provide 120 truckloads of relief goods to the area and the assistance of more than 500 KYM volunteers. Aid collected from donors was organized and packaged in the organization’s logistics centre and distributed to victims in a well-coordinated effort (KYM, 2012a). Through KYM, countries such as Indonesia and Pakistan provided cash donations to victims in Van (KYM, 2011, 2012b). Overall, KYM’s aid campaigns exceeded those led by the Turkish government. Several television channels organized special telethons; the first TV channel to host this kind of show, working in cooperation with KYM and having celebrities participate, raised 65M Turkish Liras, approximately \$US 35.9 million, in one night (Today’s Zaman, 2011a). Other TV channels organized similar telethons, generating in total an equivalent amount (Today’s Zaman, 2011b). Major corporations contributed to the campaign with cash contributions and other kinds of donations, such as the building company *FiYapi*’s donation of construction materials for new housing for the victims. Philanthropic actions continued in Van for the recovery stage with the Turkish Philanthropy Fund (TPF) playing a major role in raising funds and grantmaking to nonprofits for reconstruction, rehabilitation and rebuilding phases (TPF, 2012).

Response to the Van earthquake demonstrates the similarity of approaches in engaging philanthropic action, including the involvement of entertainment media and celebrities. What is

distinctive about the Van response is that, in a Twitter era, social media is being used not just to channel funding to nonprofit disaster relief organizations, but to mobilize collective action directly (Bernholz, Chapter 28). Still, foundations and organizations are essential to coordinating and managing volunteers on the actual ground.

Japanese earthquake and tsunami in 2011

The damage caused in March 2011 by the Great East Japan Earthquake and Tsunami (GEJET), a ‘massive 9.0 underwater earthquake occurred 70 km off the eastern coast of Japan’ (Cervone and Manka, 2011) followed by a tsunami and mass fires is the country’s most destructive disaster, worse than the 1995 Kobe earthquake. The death toll was almost 16,000 with another 4,000 people missing (Nohara, 2011). Due to lessons learned from past disasters, Japan had taken action to strengthen disaster response; while much of the damage from the Kobe earthquake was a result of vulnerabilities caused by poor infrastructure and development (Tanaka, 2012), this was not the case in 2011. The most heavily damaged areas (Fukushima, Miyagi and Iwate) were affected as a result of their geography, which consists of deep peninsulas and bays allowing for increased water levels and lengthened waves heights (Nohara, 2011).

What is now turning out to be common practice, text messaging encouraged individual giving with the option of \$10 or \$5 donations via mobile devices made available through companies such as mGive Foundation or Mobile Giving Foundation, both of which are nonprofits charities that manage and assist in mobile fundraising. To further promote mobile donations of cash assistance, over 12 nonprofits, ranging from the Red Cross and Salvation Army to faith-based organizations such as the Convoy of Hope and Save the Children, participated in mobile fundraising. Mobile phone companies, such as Sprint Nextel, Verizon Wireless and AT&T, also assisted by suspending text messaging fees for customers donating for the cause and also provided free communication from the US to Japan for their subscribers (Woyke, 2011). Overall, the Center on Philanthropy at Indiana University reports that \$4 million of the \$163 million donated by US charities was a direct response from mobile giving, of which the American Red Cross was the largest beneficiary (McQueen, 2011).

A new aspect of social media, the world of virtual gaming, found a niche in disaster philanthropy in Japan. With a platform that is one of the largest social media tools available, Zynga, the company that produces many of Facebook’s games, released certain goods or special items that could be purchased within its game and shared on donors’ personal profiles as support. These items cost \$5 each with proceeds, as well as any commission gained from Facebook (Lieu, 2011), benefiting Direct Relief International (DRI). This not only created a new outlet for donation funding but also increased the visibility of DRI at the same time as it provided moral and financial support to Japanese victims. Shaw and Takeuchi (2012: 116) observe that ‘individuals who are not affected by the disaster use social media to get information on the disaster to understand the disaster, donate money or goods, and in some cases offer moral support or informational support’, and this seems to be the case when taking advantage of virtual game donations. Overall, contributions via gaming raised about \$US 605,000 for humanitarian and relief efforts (Lieu, 2011).

As with other millennial disasters, the Japanese earthquake and subsequent events brought about the involvement of celebrities. Instead of specifically donating large sums of funding, with the exception of Sandra Bullock who donated \$1 million to the American Red Cross, most donated portions or all of sales of certain items: Charlie Sheen gave \$1 of each tour show tickets sold; Lady Gaga designed and sold support wrist bracelets raising a total of \$250,000 in 48 hours; and rapper Snoop Dog designed a t-shirt with proceeds going to benefit Japanese earthquake victims (Green *et al.*, 2011).

One aspect of philanthropy that occurred in response to the Japanese disaster, but not common in the other cases, was funding for research. Given that the earthquake eventually led to meltdowns in nuclear facilities, a unique opportunity, and need, for research was presented. The normal processes to generate grant funding would be far too time-consuming, and decisions to support this cause had to be made quickly due to the nature of the research (Gose, 2011). In response, the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation provided a \$4 million grant, with an approval turnaround time of just 15 days, to examine the levels of radiation in the waters of the Pacific Ocean. This is an interesting aspect of philanthropy. It provides a possible new outlet for donor funding as governments are likely consumed by response operations initially with little attention being paid to possible research (Tanaka, 2012).

In general, the scope and scale of philanthropy in response to the Japanese earthquake has been slightly less when compared to other major disasters. Although this has been approached in the literature, it has not been fully explained. Six days after the GEJET \$49 million was raised for its victims. This is a small amount compared to the response for the 2010 earthquake in Haiti that raised \$296 million, or the 2004 Southeast Indian Ocean tsunami that raised a reported \$250 million in the first week (Oren and Cathy, 2011). Reflecting on the reasons for this, Patrick Rooney highlights donors' perception of need by the stricken area: the fact that Japan may be seen as wealthier as and more self-sufficient than other disaster-inflicted countries may have dampened international giving (Oren and Cathy, 2011). Other possibilities are that people understand that the destruction of such a large scale tsunami and nuclear meltdown will require long term funding, leading individuals to become paralyzed by the wait-and-see aspect of response; the resilient nature of the Japanese people may also have led donors to take a step back from funding (Oren and Cathy, 2011).

Conclusion

It is obvious from the literature that there are multiple reasons why individuals give in response to disasters and the need for humanitarian assistance. These reasons include feelings of sympathy, an urge to contribute, and the need to return to normalcy, as well as religious and social values. Another spectrum of large scale philanthropy during times of disaster emanates from corporations is generated on the basis of creating good will within the community, satisfying employee and client wishes and as a way of promoting a positive organizational image. Recognizing need, organizations and individuals are moved to act quickly with cash and in kind donations. Despite longer term relief and reconstruction needs, donations to humanitarian crises tend to diminish on average six months after the initial event, suggesting that philanthropy in response to disasters is distinct from most charitable actions pursued by citizens.

As is the case with other areas of philanthropy research, the current research on disaster philanthropy is sporadic and covers a wide array of topics. As a way to better assess disaster-responsive philanthropy, this chapter identified key fundraising efforts that have utilized modern techniques such as social media and even touched on the new opportunity of donating through virtual gaming sites. Given that the average gamer is 37 years old, with 29 percent over the age of 50 and women representing a significant portion of players (ESA, 2011), gaming may be an important new avenue that is yet to be fully tapped in philanthropy as disaster response. Both domestic and superstar celebrities play very visible roles in this form of philanthropy, although the value of their involvement is debated. While philanthropy can mobilize significant private resources for disaster response, it is no substitute for governments who retain a unique and essential position in disaster responsiveness. Future research on the patterns of individual donations, as

well as the role that social media plays in disaster philanthropy may further assist in understanding the motives and effectiveness of giving in times of disasters.

Notes

I would like to thank Rebecca Dodson, Sana Khosa, and Dr. Fatih Demiroz for their assistance in this research. I would also like to acknowledge those who assisted in providing information and additional sources for this article: Dr. Rajib Shaw, Dr. Abdul Akeem Sadiq, Dr. Sitki Corbacioglu and Aya Okada.

References

- ABC News. (2001) '60 Million watch America: A tribute to heroes,' 21 September. www.abcnews.go.com/Entertainment/story?id=102309&page=1 [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Adelman, C. (2011) 'Haiti: Testing the limits of government aid and philanthropy,' *Brown Journal of World Affairs*, 17(2): 89–97.
- Aguirre, M. (2001) 'The media and the humanitarian spectacle,' in Humanitarian Studies Unit (ed.). *Reflections on humanitarian action: Principles, ethics and contradictions*. Pluto Press: Sterling, VA.
- Alexander, D. (2006) 'Globalization of disaster: Trends, problems and dilemmas,' *Journal of International Affairs*, 59(2): 1–22.
- Amos, O. (1972) 'Empirical analysis of motives underlying individual contributions to charity,' *Atlantic Economic Journal*, 10(4): 45–52.
- Andorfer, V. A. and Otto, G. (2013) 'Do contexts matter for willingness to donate to natural disaster relief? An application of the factorial survey.' *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 42(4), 657–88.
- Atkinson, A. B., Backus, P. G., Micklewright, J., Pharoah, C., and Schnepf, S. V. (2012) 'Charitable giving for overseas development: UK trends over a quarter century.' *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 175(1), 167–190.
- Banjo, S and Kalita, M. (2010) 'Once robust charity sector hit with mergers, closings,' *The Wall Street Journal*, February 2. www.wsj.com/articles/SB10001424052748704586504574654404227641232 [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Barnett, M and Weiss, T. (2011) *Humanitarianism contested: Where angels fear to tread*, Routledge, New York, NY.
- Barrow, O. and Jennings, M. (eds.) (2001) *The charitable impulse: NGOs and development in East and North-East Africa*. Oxford: James Currey.
- Berman, M. and Klepper, A. (1993) *Corporate disaster relief*. Ottawa, ON: The Conference Board.
- Bin, O. and Edwards, B. (2009) 'Social capital and business giving to charity following a natural disaster: An empirical assessment,' *Journal of Socio-Economics*, 38(4): 601–7.
- Brewis, G. (2010) "'Fill full the mouth of famine": Voluntary action in famine relief in India 1896–1901.' *Modern Asian Studies*, 44(04), 887–918.
- Brown, P. and Wong, P. (2009) 'Does the type of news coverage influence donations to disaster relief? Evidence from the 2008 cyclone in Myanmar,' *Social Science Research Network*, www.dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.1489909 [Accessed 30 June 2012].
- Butcher, J. (2005) 'Financing the relief effort,' *Lancet*, 365(9455): 206.
- Cervone, G and Manca, G. (2011) 'Damage assessment of the 2011 Japanese Tsunami using high-resolution satellite data,' *Cartographica*, 46(3): 200–3.
- Christie, T., Asrat, G. A., Jiwani, B., Maddix, T. and Montaner, J. S. G. (2007) 'Exploring disparities between global HIV-AIDS funding and recent tsunami relief efforts: An ethical analysis.' *Developing World Bioethics*, 7(1): 1–7.
- Christopher, M. and Tatham, P. (2011) *Humanitarian logistics: Meeting the challenge of preparing for and responding to disasters*. Philadelphia, PA: Kogan Page.
- Clinton Bush Foundation (2010) *Clinton Bush Haiti Fund*. www.clintonbushhaitifund.org/programs/ [Accessed 15 May 2015].
- Clinton, W. (2007) *Giving: How each of us can change the world*. New York, NY: Alfred A. Knopp.
- Cooper, T. (2015) 'Empirical research on inter-organizational relations within a national disaster management network in the Caribbean.' *Public Organization Review*, 15(1), 1–16.

- Cuccaro, E., Kinsella, K., Loe, C., Nauffts, M. and Schoff, R. (2002) *September 11 perspectives from the field of philanthropy*. New York, NY: The Foundation Center.
- Curti, M. (1988) *American philanthropy abroad*. New Brunswick, NY: Rutgers University Press.
- De Cordier, B. (2009) 'Faith-based aid, globalization and the humanitarian frontline: An analysis of western-based Muslim aid organizations,' *Disasters*, 33(4): 608–28.
- Douty, C. (1972) Disasters and charity: some aspects of cooperative economic behaviour, *The American Economic Review*, 62(4): 580–590.
- Entertainment Software Association. (2011) 'Sales, demographic and usage data: Essential facts about the computer and video game industry.' www.isfe.eu/sites/isfe.eu/files/attachments/esa_ef_2011.pdf [Accessed 30 June 2012].
- Fox News. (2010) 'Fast facts: Haiti earthquake,' 13 January. www.foxnews.com/world/2010/01/13/fast-facts-haiti-earthquake/ [Accessed 27 June 2012].
- Goldstein, D. (2010) 'Will we abandon Haiti?' *The Daily Beast*, 3 February. www.thedailybeast.com/articles/2010/02/03/where-america-gives-its-money [Accessed 15 June 2012].
- Gose, B. (2011) 'A foundation's fast action after Japan's disaster,' *Chronicle of Philanthropy*, 23(15): 12.
- Green, M., Greer, C., Hallett, K., Levy, D. S., Nahas, A., Triggs, C. and Leonard, E. (2011) 'Star power,' *People*, 75(15): 28.
- Heinrich, F. F. (ed.). (2007) *Civicus: Global survey of the state of civil society*. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press.
- Jeong, S. (2010) 'Public support for Haitian earthquake victims: Role of attributions and emotions,' *Public Relations Review*, 36(4): 325–28.
- Joye, S. (2014) 'Media and disasters: Demarcating an emerging and interdisciplinary area of research,' *Sociology Compass*, 8(8), 993–1003.
- Kapucu, N. (2006) 'Public-nonprofit partnerships for collective action in dynamic contexts,' *Public Administration: An International Quarterly*, 84(1): 205–20.
- Kapucu, N. (2007) 'Nonprofit response to catastrophic disasters,' *Disaster Prevention and Management*, 16(4): 551–61.
- Katz, R. A. (2003) 'A pig in a python: How the charitable response to September 11 overwhelmed the law of disaster relief,' *Indiana Law Review*, 36(25): 252–333.
- Kennedy, M., Capassakis, E. and Wagman, R. (2002) *Guide to charitable giving*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kimse Yok Mu (KYM) (2011) 'Indonesia didn't forget to show its loyalty towards Van.' www.hizmetmovement.blogspot.co.uk/2011/11/indonesia-didnt-forget-to-show-its.html [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- . (2012) 'Pakistan Loyalty: 100 thousand dollars donated to Van.' www.hizmetmovement.blogspot.co.uk/2012/02/pakistani-loyalty-100-thousand-dollars.html [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Letsch, C. and Walker, P. (2011) 'Turkey earthquake: Twitter plea for help gets 17,000 responses,' *The Guardian*, 24 October. www.guardian.co.uk/world/2011/oct/24/turkey-earthquake-twitter-plea-help?intcmp=239 [Accessed June 26 2012].
- Lieu, D. (2011) 'Aid group raises money with online-game tie-in,' *Chronicle Of Philanthropy*, 23(17): 12.
- McQueen, M. P. (2011) 'Japan scams spread,' *The Wall Street Journal*, 2 April. www.online.wsj.com/article/SB10001424052748704530204576232534235321802.html?KEYWORDS=Center+on+Philanthropy [Accessed 27 June 2012].
- Margesson, R. and Taft-Morales, M. (2010) 'Haiti earthquake: Crisis and response,' *Congressional Research Reports for the People*. www.fas.org/sgp/crs/row/R41023.pdf [Accessed 15 May 2015].
- Marjanovic, Z., Struthers, C. W. and Greenglass, E. R. (2012) 'Who helps natural-disaster victims? Assessment of trait and situational predictors,' *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy*, 12(1), 245–67.
- Martin, S., Forbes, F., Weiss, P., Poole, A. and Karim, S. (2006) *Philanthropic grant-making for disaster management: Trend analysis and recommended improvements*. Washington, DC: Institute for the Study of International Migration, Georgetown University.
- Melber, J. (2003) 'An act of discretion: Rebutting Cantor Fitzgerald's critique of the victim compensation fund,' *New York University Law Review*, 78(2): 749–81.
- National Football League (NFL) 'NFL pledges \$2.5m to aid Haiti earthquake relief efforts,' *The National Football League*. www.nfl.com/news/story?id=09000d5d815bff52 [Accessed 28 June 2012].
- Neely, B. (2010) 'Why we've given less to Pakistan's flood victims,' *National Public Radio*, 2 September, www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=129605789 [Accessed March 28 2012].
- Newland, K., Terrazaras, A. and Munster, R. (2010) *Diaspora philanthropy: Private giving and public policy*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.

- Niazi, J. and Khan, I. (2011) 'Comparative analysis of emergency response operations: Haiti earthquake in January 2010 and Pakistan's flood in 2010,' Unpublished Thesis, Monterey, California, Naval Postgraduate School.
- Nohara, M. (2011) 'Impact of the great east Japan earthquake and tsunami on health, medical care and public health systems in Iwate Prefecture, Japan, 2011,' *Western Pacific Surveillance and Response Journal*, 2(4).
- Oldenburg, A. (2001) 'Celebs have helped raise \$200M in past 3 months,' *USA Today*, 18 December. www.usatoday.com/life/2001-12-18-charities.htm [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- O'Neill, M. (2002) *Nonprofit nation: A new look at the third America*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Oren, D. and Cathy, G. (2011) 'No donor rush to aid Japan,' *USA Today*, 17 March. www.usatoday30.usatoday.com/printedition/news/20110317/1ajapangiving17_cv.art.htm [Accessed 27 June 2012].
- Ramachandran, V. and Walz, J. (2012) *Haiti: Where has all the money gone?* Washington, DC: Center on Global Development.
- Raschky, P. A. and Schwindt, M. (2012) 'On the channel and type of aid: The case of international disaster assistance,' *European Journal of Political Economy*, 28(1): 119–31.
- Ribar, D. and Wilhelm, M. (2002) 'Altruistic and joy-of-giving motivations in charitable behaviour,' *Journal of Political Economy*, 110(2): 425–57.
- Rogers, K. (2010) 'Haiti donations,' *The Nonprofit Times*, 1 April. www.thenonprofitimes.com/article/detail/haiti-donations-2519 [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Schulz, S. F. (2009) *Disaster relief logistics: Benefits of and impediments to cooperation between humanitarian organizations*. Berne: Haupt Verlag AG.
- Shaw, R. and Takeuchi, Y. (2012) *East Japan earthquake and tsunami evacuation, communication, education and volunteerism*. Kyoto: Research Publishing, Kyoto University, Japan.
- Sherlock, M. F. (2010) 'Charitable contributions for Haiti's earthquake victims,' *Congressional Research Reports for the People*. www.fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R41036.pdf [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Singer, A. (2008) *Charity in Islamic societies*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Smillie, I. and Minear, L. (2004) *The charity of nations: Humanitarian action in a calculating world*. Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press.
- Steinberg, K. and Rooney, P. (2005) 'America gives: a survey of Americans' generosity after September 11,' *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 34(1): 110–35.
- Steuерle, E. (2002) 'Managing charitable giving in the wake of disaster,' *Urban Institute*, 12. www.urban.org/url.cfm?ID=310471 [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Tanaka, Y. (2012) 'Disaster policy and education changes over 15 years in Japan,' *Journal of Comparative Policy Analysis: Research and Practice*, 14(3): 245–53.
- Thomas, A. and Fritz, L. (2006) 'Disaster Relief, Inc.,' *Harvard Business Review*, (11): 111–22.
- Today's Zaman (2011a) 'STV, Kimse Yok Mu raise TL 65 million for quake victims,' 26 October, Online. www.todayzaman.com/newsDetail_getNewsById.action?newsId=261003 [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- . (2011b) 'TV stations raise TL 129 million for earthquake victims,' 27 October. www.todayzaman.com/news-261124-tv-stations-raise-tl-129-million-for-earthquake-victims.html [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Turkish Philanthropy Fund (TFP) (2012) Van Earthquake Relief Fund Update. www.tpfund.org/2012/01/van-earthquake-relief-fund-update-3/ [Accessed 9 October 2015].
- United States Geological Survey (2012) 'Magnitude 7.1 - Eastern Turkey.' www.earthquake.usgs.gov/earthquakes/eqinthenews/2011/usb0006bqc/#summary [Accessed 26 June 2012].
- Waters, R. (2008) Examining the role of cognitive dissonance in crisis fundraising, *Public Relations Review*, 35: 139–43.
- Wiederhorn, J. (2001) 'Concert for New York City raises over \$30 million: Money raised for Robin Hood relief fund to aid September 11 victims' families.' www.mtv.com/news/1450484/concert-for-new-york-city-raises-over-30-million/ [Accessed 27 June 2012].
- Woyke, E. (2011) 'How to donate money by cell phone to Japan quake victims,' *Forbes.com*, Vol. 19.
- Wuthnow, R. (1990) *Faith and philanthropy in America: exploring the role of religion in America's voluntary sector*, Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers, San Francisco, CA.
- Zhang, R., Rezaee, Z. and Zhu, J. (2009) 'Corporate philanthropic disaster response and ownership type: Evidence from Chinese firms' response to the Sichuan earthquake,' *Journal of Business Ethics*, 91: 51–63.